

THE
Educational Review

A Monthly Record for India.

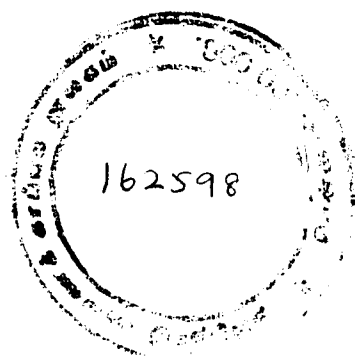
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LOYALTY IN SCHOOLS.*

Every one is familiar with Lord Macaulay's forecast eighty years ago of the result of British rule in this country. In his famous speech on the Bill which became the Charter Act of 1833 Lord Macaulay said: "To have found a great people sunk in the lowest depths of slavery and superstition, to have so ruled them as to have made them desirous and capable of all the privileges of citizens, would indeed be a title to glory all our own." The history of this country during the period that has followed this prophetic utterance, especially since the assumption of direct sovereignty by the British Crown, furnishes ample evidence of the endeavour continually and steadfastly made to fulfil the noble mission thus indicated. We may read instances of failure or shortfall of the ideal, but it cannot be denied that the endeavour has been persistent and the achievement, such as it has been, notable and of far-reaching consequence for all time.

The history of this process cannot be summarized in more appropriate language than in the words of King Edward's Proclamation of November 1908:

* Lecture delivered in Nellore on the occasion of the Coronation Celebrations by Mr. M. Chengayya, B.A., B.L., Public Prosecutor and Municipal Chairman.

"Difficulties such as attend all human rule in every age and place have arisen from day to day. They have been faced by the servants of the British Crown with toil and courage and patience, with deep counsel and a resolution that was never faltered nor shaken. The Proclamation of the direct supremacy of the Crown sealed the unity of Indian Government and opened a new era. The journey was arduous, and the advance may have sometimes seemed slow, but the incorporation of strangely diversified communities under British guidance and control has proceeded steadfastly and without pause."

It should be extremely interesting and profitable, on the eve of the present occasion of Indian celebration of the Coronation of His Imperial Majesty King George V, to recall a few of the most well-marked and decisive steps taken during three quarters of a century for the purpose of bringing together the numerous and the strangely diversified peoples of this land under one common principle and for enabling them, in spite of their differences in race, custom or faith, to live side by side in peace and contentment, in harmony and brotherly love.

From the political, as well as the constitutional, point of view, the Charter Act of 1833 was a most memorable piece of enactment. It provided for a general system of judicial establishments and Police, to which all persons whatsoever, as well Europeans

as natives, were to be subject. It also required that such laws should be enacted as might be applicable in common to all classes of inhabitants, due regard being had to the rights, feelings, and peculiar usages of the people, and that all laws and customs having the force of law should be ascertained and consolidated. In furtherance of this policy, Indian Law Commission, of which Lord Macaulay was the most prominent member, was appointed and to its labours do we owe the Indian Penal Code, the Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure and several other enactments which now form a magnificent part of the Indian Statute Book.

The same Act further provided that "no native of the Indian territories, nor any natural born subject of His Majesty resident therein shall, by reason only of his religion, place of birth, descent, colour, or any of them be disabled from holding any place or employment under the Company." As observed by an authoritative writer on Constitutional Law (Ilbert's Government of India, 2nd Edition, page 89): "The policy of freely admitting natives of India to a share in the administration of the country has never been more broadly or emphatically enunciated."

The Act was not confined to the establishment of a strong central authority for administrative and legislative purposes, and the conferring of political privileges on the natives of the soil. It contained the beginning of that stream of social legislation which at one time ran full and smooth and which in spite of its vicissitudes in later times, will, it may be hoped, never get dry. The enactment of the manifold laws under this head among peoples of diversified nationalities and creeds was an achievement quite worthy of a sovereignty founded on truth and justice and will

ever remain in history as a most glorious and humanitarian service rendered by one sister community to several others less fortunately circumstanced, for the suppression of evil and the promotion of good-will.

It must not be forgotten that about the time of which we are speaking, there were in India numerous customs, so glaringly evil and so barbarous that they at once attracted the attention and shocked the humanity of a civilized Government. Steps were taken early to declare the said customs illegal and minimise the social tyranny that their non-observance entailed upon innocent persons. No fact stands out more prominently in the history of this country than the boldness and promptitude with which early British Indian Legislature grappled with and legislated upon some of the most important social problems that ever engaged the attention of any community pretending to some degree of civilization. Under the Charter Act of 1833, to which reference has already been made, a Commission was appointed to investigate the extent to which slavery in one form or other prevailed and to suggest the means of extinguishing throughout the Indian territories that most inhuman institution ever invented by human genius.

The Caste Disabilities Act of 1850, The Re-Marriage of Hindu Widows Act of 1856, The Religious Endowments Act of 1863, The Parsee Marriages and Divorce Act of 1865, The Special Marriage Act of 1872, the Charitable Endowments Act of 1890, The Madras Malabar Marriage Act of 1896, are some of the monuments of humane legislation that will be cherished by posterity for all time.

It is a matter for sincere regret that the course of social legislation begun so well has in recent years been largely obstructed by the

demand or observance of undue caution based on the principle of religious neutrality. This hesitation on behalf of Government is taken full advantage of by the opponents of social reform. One is surprised at the opposition that is being mustered to the passing of the Hon'ble Mr. Basu's bill to amend the Special Marriage Act. The history of the country during the past century and a half gives ample proof of the justice and wisdom of State interference in matters which, though connected with the religious convictions or observances of a certain class of people, seriously affect their own physical and moral well-being. In such matters, legislation is distinctly called for, the more so because Hindu Society has become too stereotyped to admit of natural growth and the system which at every step speaks of authority and sanction is practically deficient in a head capable of assimilating into the customary law and legally sanctioning what happens to be approved by the enlightened sense of more advanced communities.

The most prominent feature of the British administration of the affairs of this country is the steady purpose ever kept in view of bringing about and maintaining internal peace and to rule in the best interests of all communities committed to its care. In the words of Sir Krishna Gupta, one of the most cultured among the Indians of to-day, "British rule has made India safe against external attack introduced peace and order within, and is doing much to spread and foster education. An ancient nation is being gradually roused to a sense of its own greatness and of its future possibilities."

Onward progress in these directions has ever been the aim, and wherever it was found to be slow, or the aim was ever found

to have been missed or strayed from the machinery has been adjusted without delay and the march kept on with admirable success. The adjustment sometimes necessitated the retracing of a few steps and the replacing of parts that had served their time by more improved mechanisms.

One important instance may be taken to illustrate this point. One of the chief causes of the decline of the Moghul Empire has been stated to be the gradual weakening of the central authority and the growth of practically independent principalities everywhere. In this state of things the utmost unit of the political system, *viz.* the Indian village retained and developed its autonomy. With the commencement of British Supremacy, the necessity of centralizing authority was felt and the various measures adopted from time to time towards this end had the tendency to unduly concentrate administrative authority and, consequently all spheres of social and economical influence in the towns. The effect was that the towns enjoyed the lion's share of the benefits of British rule and the self-dominant and self-contained character of the village gradually decayed, until it became necessary for the inhabitants of villages to migrate to the towns in search of employment. The last two Censuses afford ample evidence of this migration. The agriculturist became poor and the professional money-lender thrived at his expense. The fertility of the soil diminished and the outturn became poorer and poorer. This result was by no means intended and was the unavoidable consequence of the vigorous measures that the Government found it necessary to adopt for better efficiency in the administration. Serious attempts are now being made to check this tendency, without at the same time weakening the central authority.

The recommendations of the Decentralization Commission are rapidly being adopted. Several important changes have already been made and the necessary legislation has already been initiated. The passing of the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 marks an epoch in the economical history of this country, and it has already produced a wonderful effect towards producing a healthy, industrious and self-reliant and independent rural population which will prove in coming years the glory of the British Raj.

Very little reflection is needed to bring home to my country-men what may be regarded right feelings and right conduct towards the British rule in this country and towards the august Sovereign in whose name that rule is carried on. Neither the historic sense nor the demands of justice can be satisfied by any thing short of sincere and deep-felt gratitude and an abiding loyalty and devotion to the British throne. And this is but a humble return for the stern purposes, the thorough-going principles, and the mighty disinterestedness that have characterised the British administration of this country for over a century and a half.

It was our pleasure and our privilege in the course of the past few days to listen to some of the truest and the best things that ever were said of any sovereign in any land or in any age. The whole country to a man accorded the most heartfelt and enthusiastic welcome to His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor George V and to Her Imperial Majesty the Queen-Empress. The Durbar held on the 12th December in the most ancient capital city of Delhi was unique in character and principle, unparalleled in splendour, and unbounded in the good that

will flow from it. No one endowed with the least historic imagination can resist the temptation to compare King George V with the mighty monarchs of the past. But it may be said, without any show of exaggeration, that history furnishes no parallel to a sovereign voyaging thousands of miles, despite weather, despite tradition, and despite matters of consequence attempting to threaten the peace of Europe, to make known in person the solemnity of his Coronation as the Emperor of this great and historic land.

His Majesty's subjects throughout this Empire will ever remain grateful for the solution of the mightiest administrative problem conveyed by him in his famous Guildhall speech in the words :

"I cannot help thinking from all I have heard and seen that the task of governing India will be made easier, if we, on our part, infuse into it a wider element of sympathy."

This element of sympathy, however wide, would not alone have resulted in His Majesty's visit to this country had it not been wedded to the still finer element of love and affection for the vast millions committed to his benign care.

That the peoples of India are thoroughly loyal to the British throne and possess a sincere personal attachment to the sovereign needs no elaboration. They cannot be otherwise than loyal, regard being had to their religious and traditions, and the history of the country for a long series of centuries. They cannot suffer themselves to be disloyal as long as they carry with them a sense of justice to the British nation for the manifold blessings conferred by British rule and as long as they possess a reasonable modicum of historical prudence to enable them to judge what is best in their own interests. It is

noteworthy and extremely refreshing to find that the rulers hold fast to the belief that, in spite of atrocities that have disfigured the pages of Indian history during the past few years, India as a whole and all her numerous nationalities are as loyal to the Crown as they ever were, that they thoroughly disapprove of the disgraceful outrages that have brought discredit on the fair name of India, and that there is no general discontent and no manner of wide-spread anarchist movement in the land.

A very well-informed and discriminating foreign traveller of recent times puts the matter correctly when he says : "The loyalty of the great majority is still incontestable ; and it extends to students, lawyers, Deccan Brahmans, and even to the Babus of Bengal and the chiefs of the national party." To the same effect is the opinion of Dr. Coplestone, the Metropolitan of India, who told a press representative the other day that "the native populations entertained feelings of the most devoted loyalty to the person of their Emperor." "More among the peoples of India, probably," he continued "than among any other peoples of his dominions does the feeling exist of reverence for the King.* * The intensity of loyalty to English rule is one of the strongest factors in the Indian social scheme."

It is therefore a matter for sincere gratification that the aberrations of a few fanatic and misguided individuals has not materially affected the general character for loyalty that India has always possessed. The latest testimony in this behalf is also the most authoritative pronouncement. It is found in the reference in the King-Emperor's reply to the Bombay Corporation Address to his "good subjects in India." For, what is goodness

in the subjects of a sovereign if it is not loyalty in essence? Thankful as we are for such large-minded and statesmanlike appreciation, on all hands of India's loyalty we cannot ignore certain signs of a growing tendency to question authority and to manifest irreverence in matters in which a quarter of a century ago, one could have discerned nothing but a whole-hearted devotion and an unshakable confidence. Consider what the Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale said the other day in his paper to the Universal Races Congress at London. Speaking of the transition between the old and the new order of things he said :

"Things now came to be regarded in a new light. The old readiness to acknowledge freely and gratefully the benefits which India has derived from the British connection gave way to a tendency to indulge in bitter and fault finding criticism directed indiscriminately against everything done by Englishmen."

And Mr. Gokhale threw out a veritable menace when he said that this tendency "especially affected the younger minds throughout the country."

It is not possible in the course of this address to discuss at any length the causes that have led to this unwholesome state of things, which we all regret. A few broad facts may however, be stated. It was a quarter of a century ago when a small band of well-meaning and highly-educated Indian gentlemen started the National Congress in Bombay, for discussing measures of Government when such discussion was necessary, and for ventilating such grievances as they found to have been caused by the enforcement of such measures. One of the chief aims of the new movement was to obtain for the natives of the soil a larger share in the administration of the country. Thus outlined, the movement was

thoroughly justifiable. The young institution gradually grew in numbers and influence, and it had the co-operation and the sincere blessings of several respected members of the nationality to which the rulers belonged. The gatherings however soon ceased to be purely deliberative and assumed a demonstrative character. They naturally attracted the attention of those who had no legitimate place in their deliberations, and these included a large number of people who could not understand a word of the proceedings and a still larger number of students who could at best claim a very imperfect and misleading understanding of what was said. This tendency was found to be great in the early nineties, and many sober heads became nervous as to the consequences of the part that students took and claimed to take in the political movements of the day. I well remember the magnificent public debate that took place in Madras in the year 1894, as to the part that students should take in politics. Mr. Eardly Norton led the debate and with this eloquence and genuine enthusiasm for which he is famous, strongly advocated the cause of the students; Pandit Madan Mohan Malavya, the principal speaker in support of the opposite view made a speech full of thought and suggestion and pleaded that, in the interests of students and their immediate avocations and for the sake of the future of the country, the students should not be allowed to take any part in politics. Mr. Malavya's speech was fully appreciated, but when the time came for voting, his followers were overwhelmed by those that voted on the other side. Needless to say that the majority of the audience which consisted of several thousands of people were students.

The danger of allowing to political meet-

ings persons who are, through want of education or through immaturity of understanding, unfit to take an intelligent and sane interest in the matters discussed lies in the manner in which the discussions are carried on. The resolutions are cut and dried. The speeches which are mostly in support of such resolutions necessarily represent but one side of the question. The meetings are thus primarily of those that are of one mind, and those that have not bestowed a thought on the subjects dealt with have strictly speaking no place therein. We have often heard it said that such meetings are of great educative value. But it is hard to see what true education can be expected from gatherings where all that is said is what can be said against the view of the Government, and absolutely nothing is said in support of such view. It may be said that it is not the fault of the promoters of the meetings if people do not come forward to oppose a resolution. For one thing, it must be remembered that no one dares address a public meeting, the general consensus of which is already known, in order to change its conviction. Again, who possesses the necessary material with which to answer to arguments advanced against a Government measure? The only persons that have the information needed are the officials, who are precluded from attending, or at any rate from taking part in political meetings.

The result of students attending political meetings therefore cannot conduce to a correct understanding of the true state of things as regards the principles of administration or the efficiency or honesty of the Government executive. Students cannot fail to carry some vague and hazy notion that something is wrong with Government and little or nothing is being done for the benefit of the govern-

ed. It is true that in the course of the speeches, occasional references with approval are made to certain measures or orders. But the expressions of gratitude, however sincere, are not sufficient to remove the general conception that all is not well, so easily and yet so strongly formed in the youthful minds. The sensational catches more readily than the instructive, and fine speeches allow very little scope for any scrutiny as to the genuineness of the matter or the correctness of the conclusions.

While they remain at school or college, students have, as a rule, little opportunity for correcting their impressions. Their attention is naturally taken up with their studies and their masters have no means of noticing the internal workings, symptoms of a hazy consciousness. Those that are more fortunate than their brethren in point of intelligence and pecuniary means pass successfully through the prescribed courses and find themselves decently settled in life. With these, the poison produces very little after effect, as it wears out amidst the numerous pre-occupations of the mind and the play of the wholesome sentiments of self-regard and self-reliance. It is different with those whose parents have foolishly embarked upon their education without sufficient means for the purpose. They are unable to study up to the stage at which, if they should be compelled to leave off, they can either earn a respectable living or regulate their own conduct in life. Such students soon forfeit all chances of discipline at home or at school; they are practically left to themselves and have none to depend upon for further advancement in studies or for the acquisition of those moral qualities that are necessary to equip them as men of the world or useful citizens of the Empire. The likelihood

is that such men either fail to obtain any situation in life or obtain one which cannot give them a decent competence. One can imagine what effect either of these contingencies must have upon them. They get dissatisfied with their lot, and it is unreasonable to expect of them much that is good or noble.

The function of the school-master, who has to deal with pupils and students of the several denominations above described is peculiarly a hard one and involves special responsibilities. Reference has already been made to the natural and innate loyalty of the Indian peoples. And, but for the external causes at work, briefly indicated above, Indian students would have formed a most congenial soil for the dissemination of loyal sentiments and their gradual development as the students grew to be men. The difficulty of the school-master's tasks is enhanced by the circumstance that the Indian home does not as a rule furnish the needed discipline. The ideal school-master, however, has too high a notion of the dignity and the sacredness of his profession to complain of the nature of the material supplied to him, or of the special difficulties he has to contend against.

The suggestion is not that students should not have their own literary and debating societies. On the other hand, it is necessary for the completion of one's education to be connected with such societies. But it is essential that such societies should be connected with schools and their proceedings should be under the direct supervision of the teachers. The members should be allowed as much liberty as is necessary to enable them to acquire readiness of thought, persuasive speech, and business habits. But every attempt should be made to avoid topics of political controversy, at any rate of the present day.

his master, than an innate pleasure in the study of the books, he has pushed himself 'creditably' through. It is only after that he goes to one better learned than he and seeks his aid towards furnishing him with an application to one of the forementioned personages. It is then that he comes to realise that the study of Tippu Sultan and his father Haidar Ali and the learning of the mathematical truth, that, if a certain thing is true of n terms, it is also true of the $(n+1)^{th}$ term do not help him with that necessary sense of the language for an original letter! He has done some such thing as letter-writing as an exercise and has vastly pleased his masters. But the masters in the outside world are, in every respect, different from those with whom his decade of years has been passed.

It is a thousand pities that this subject which deserves our best attention is taken the least notice of. If any subject in High Schools is more neglected than any other, it is composition. This is obvious from the fact that, for a week, scarcely two periods, of three quarters of an hour each, are devoted to this subject; and during these periods very little work is turned out in the direction of improving the general knowledge of the boys; the master reads out a story which the boys pay attention to or no as they please; or they are asked to write an essay "not exceeding two pages on 'Honesty is the best policy' or 'Union is strength'." So far as my experience goes, the boys do not relish things of this kind; a pert boy, were he allowed the freedom, would jump out and declare "Ah, my dear Sir, you are harping on the same string; the next time, I fear, the string may break and you harp no more."

Masters run with avidity, on occasions as important as the Durbar Celebration of Their

Majesties, to set such subjects for composition, while not a word, with as much eagerness, has been said to enlighten their ideas by a description of the things themselves or by reading to them passages from the papers. No doubt then that the boys' conceptions in such cases will not go beyond "crowds and diamonds" which is but a poor and insignificant conception of the 'magnificence of the occasions. Last year, in many of the High Schools, a composition was required on the 'Census.' No wonder that the boys, not being supervisors or enumerators, were not able to deal at length, or to give an adequate idea on the subject; and likely enough, no pains were taken to improve them, at least after the exercise was set.

In one of the University examinations of the previous years, a boy, when asked to write an essay on 'gardens,' said: "There you will find green vegetable plants thundering in their fertility." Our Principal remarked that the words were good for oratory, special stress being laid upon the word 'thundering,' but how far he, or we, his faithful students, were able to understand the sense of it, I must leave my brethren to determine. Certain it is that the boy has, in his bombastic way, but wrongly expressed his thoughts. On another occasion, in a class-exercise, a boy, writing about the advantages of a school association, said "he created a spontaneous explosion of vocal energy" for "he at once made a speech." It is indeed a regrettable thing for masters to see boys indulging in such funny and, as they think rhetorical, devices while they are merely using expressions, the meanings of more than half of which, they do not know. The boys must aim at simple and chaste English. They must not join with Scott and say "he indited an epistle of the following

tenour," instead of "he wrote a letter as follows."

Brilliant ideas couched up in more brilliant expressions must make a beautiful composition. Facts may be omitted and yet the tone of the essay will not change. But let it want the style, the essential part in composition, then, the heap of huddled-up matter is not worth the paper over which it is wasted. Grammatical errors are rarely to be excused in composition, since boys may avoid a good many of these by writing simple, short sentences, that is, without crowding too many ideas under one long and complicated sentence. Sentences which are simple add a grace, a charm to the essay; they can be read with ease; and any mistake which one may commit stands before the eye ready to be corrected; while long sentences, abounding in expressions which are verbose, with a twenty nominatives and thirty verbs, fail to please the reader; fail to adhere to strict grammar; fail in their charm and style; but succeed in adding a tediousness to a long essay.

Abstract subjects and descriptions of places, voyages and scenes are more difficult to deal than articles on cats and dogs, trees, and certain select morals. For the former boys must have recourse to books rich with descriptions of sea-fights and rambles; and, having gone through them, they may condense them into a summary of their own. To attempt abstract subjects, they must have a fund of knowledge got from books other than their texts. Boys may be allowed to quote freely from books and care should be taken that such quotations are not out of place. Composition on animals, description and uses of trees, and writing on morals are found suitable for children from third form downward. The "skeleton" of a story

may be given and the pupils may be required to supply "flesh and blood" and make it whole. The full story may be read to them twice or thrice who will in turn reproduce the story in their own version; but whenever a boy stumbles over a difficulty, it will be well not to impatiently help him out. Books for non-detailed study containing "passing pleasing" stories with simple idioms, may be placed with much profit at their hands. They can mix the known with the unknown words and thus make the whole known to them. And lastly they must not be granted the privilege of writing composition exercises at home; for, I need not say why!

The system of writing an essay in paragraphs is very rarely observed even in the College classes. It would be conducive to the better improvement of the boys, if that system were begun in the IV Form. And, my dear brethren, it would be very good and kind of you, and a rightful discharge of duty on your part, to see that your pupils introduce into their works, wherever possible, a thing quite as good as style, a tinge of humour, ever so little.

T. S. RAJAGOPALAN.

TEACHING OF LOCAL HISTORY— SYLLABUS OF THE HISTORY OF THE TANJORE KINGDOM.

(Continued from page 448)

Tanjore and the Great Cholas.—The Cholas, an ancient ruling race. The great Rajah Rajah and his successors. Their kingdom comprised Coorg, Mysore, Northern Ceylon and the present Madras Presidency.

Their administration.—Good government, internal peace and prosperity—built many

fine edifices—The great Rajarajesvaram at Tanjore built 900 years ago. The famous granite bull *Nandi*. The Cholas built many fortresses in the District, maintained a well-disciplined and efficient army. Built also many big *Siva* temples in the District at Kumbakonam, Tiruvalur, Mayavaram, Thirukkadaiyur and other places of pilgrimage.

[N.B.—Children's attention must be drawn to the big *Siva* temple at *Tirukkadaiyur*, a place 4 miles north of Tranquebar and the children should take an excursion to this place to visit the temple, &c.]

The Cholas struck coins of gold and copper. (Show the coin of Rajah Rajah's time to the children from the school museum and tell them that it is nearly a thousand years old).

Irrigation works.—The Cholas, famous for their irrigation works, dug many channels in the Kauveri Delta, Veeracholanar, Vikramanar, &c. (Draw the attention of the boys to the Chola names in the rivers Vikramanar, &c., and especially கீரகேழி which forms the southern boundary of this Porayar town). They also built dams and anicuts across rivers for irrigation, grand anicut, &c.

The Chola capital at Tanjore and Conjeevaram their northern capital. The Cholas encouraged education and literature, patronised great poets like the immortal கம்பன், தாயுமானவர்—Decline of the Cholas in the 12th century A.D.

Tanjore under the Nayaks.—Tanjore conquered by Vijianagar kings of the north. Ruled by their military governors called *Nayaks*. *Nayaks* became independent and established themselves at Tanjore permanently.

The Nayak administration.—Beneficial to the people, built many forts (Vallam Fort, Arantangi Fort, &c.) and many Vishnu temples in the District like Rajagopalaswami pagoda

in Mannargudy and temples in Kumbakonam, and other places.

European settlements on the Tanjore Coast—Portuguese at Negapatam—Dutch at Nagore—Danes at Tranquebar (to be studied from their respective coins in the school museum).

Dissensions between the Tanjore and Madura *Nayaks*, and the tragical and heroic end of the Tanjore *Nayak* dynasty.

Tanjore under the Mahrattas.—Dissensions among *Nayak* kings of Madura and Tanjore. Ekoji, brother of Sivaji, supported Tanjore *Nayak* and finally seized Tanjore and himself became Ruler.

Expansion of Tanjore territory all round under their famous general Mankoji.

Tanjore interferes in the quarrels between rival claimants to the Southern *Marava* kingdom. As a result two *Marava* principalities are established—one having its capital at *Ramnad* and the other at *Sivaganga*. Tanjore becomes weak and tributary to the Nawab of Carnatic.

Rival claimants to the Throne of Tanjore. One of the princes sought the help of the English. English got *Devikotah*. Nawab wants to seize the fertile Tanjore. Induces the English, his allies, to attack it for non-payment of arrears. The English hesitate. Meanwhile Tanjore Rajah forced to give Karaikal and adjoining villages to the French. The Rajah seeks the English protection. Thereupon the French threaten invasion of Tanjore and instigate Murar Rao. Raids of the latter into Tanjore territory and sufferings of people (stories of the so-called 'கலக்காரர்கள்'). Haider's ravages.

The tribute of Tanjore assigned by the Nawab to the English. Rajah unable to pay the tribute, gives up his kingdom and his household pensioned. The British get the

Tanjore kingdom and the Tanjore Royal family declared extinct, 1855.

PROVINCIAL AND GENERAL HISTORY.

Haider Ali—the founder of the Mahomedan kingdom of Mysore. His raids.

Tippu Sultan and the collapse of the Mysore kingdom. His overthrow by the English.

Why the *English* came into India and how they fought with the French?

Clive—the founder of the English power in India.

How the English won India?—Benefits of the English Rule.

I FORM.

Local History—A revision of what was done in the 4th class (*vide* syllabus of Tranquebar History in the November issue) with special reference to matters of historic research, such as inscriptions, public buildings, coins, &c.

**Provincial History*—A study of the History of Tanjore with fuller details.

Indian History—A brief survey of the History of India from the earliest times up to the present day to be taught in the form of stories in the following order:—Our ancestors—The Dravidians, &c.—The Ramayana—Buddha—Alexander and Purushottama (Porus)—Pataliputra—Asoka—Some later Hindu Emperors—Mahabalipuram and the Pallava Supremacy—Madura (Pandya Dynasty and the *Nayaks*) Sankara, Ramanuja and Madhwa, religious reformers.

Mahomed, The Prophet of Arabia—The Somnath Temple—The Fatal Swayamvara (Ranee Samyukta)—Rajaputs—Delhi, the seat of the Empire—Hampi and Vijianagar

* (Tanjore History with fuller details for I Form will appear in a subsequent issue).

Kingdom—Akbar, the Great—Emperor Builder—The Taj—Aurangzeb—Sivaji, the Mahratta Rajah—Lord Clive—Haider Ali of Mysore—Tippu Sultan, the Tiger of Mysore—How the British won India?—What the British have done to India?

N.B.—The arrangement given in Lessons from Indian History by Vira Raghavachariar and Marsden's Stories from Indian History, may with advantage be adopted.

Books to be consulted—Tanjore. District Gazetteer; Chola History by T. A. Gopinatha Row (Tamil Sangam); History of India by K. V. Rangasami Iyengar; Government Archaeological Reports, &c.

R. KALYANA SUNDARAM AIYER.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN OUR SCHOOLS.

THE introduction of the S. S. L. C. Scheme has made it obligatory on the part of a IV Form student to select two optional subjects in Group C. Generally speaking, there are two main groups, *viz.*, Mathematics and Physics, and History of England and an optional language. Of course, there are other groups in some big schools but they are so few that we can leave them out of consideration. This kind of grouping is intended to enable a student to take the corresponding group in the College classes. The difficulty experienced by a young student of the IV Form in selecting the subjects that would best suit him has already been discussed by abler hands, and it forms no part of my subject to dilate upon the same. I venture to suggest that this difficulty can be obviated to some extent at least, if no grouping is done in the IV Form where all the subjects, *viz.*, History of England, Algebra and Geometry should be

taught. The advantages that would result from such a system would be :—

(1) Every student has to study all the subjects and at the end of one full year his special aptitude can be found out by himself to his great advantage.

(2) Every school boy is made to study History of England for one year and thus know at least the outlines which, every one would admit, would be a great asset to his credit, for the value of the study of English History is so great that, without it, education is incomplete.

It is not intended that every one should take up History of England for his optional subject. Let him take up Physics, Mathematics or Botany. The fact of his having studied the general outlines of English History would create in him a taste for that subject and would induce him to read more of it and derive all profit that would accrue therefrom. Having now explained the necessity for teaching English History for the whole IV Form, I now proceed to the question of how the subject is taught at present in our schools and then say how it might be better taught.

The subject is generally begun in the Fourth Form where a text-book is prescribed and the Pre-Norman, Norman and Plantagenet Periods are done. In the Fifth Form the same text-book is used and the rest of the book is finished. In these classes, the text is explained and questioned upon by the teacher, and a few illustrative historical maps and plans are drawn. So a student of the VI Form is expected to know the general outlines and a special period is prescribed. Here greater details are studied. The teacher has more work to do here. He either supplements the text-book, if any, with his notes, or in the absence of a text-book, gives notes for his

class. The boys thus have a major portion of their work done by the teacher. Suitable selections are read from various sources for the benefit of the boys. Here also the boys are made to draw maps and plans.

The study of English History may, I think, profitably begin in the III Form. In our schools, History of India alone is taught there and, according to the rules, in the vernacular of the boys. One or more periods a week may be allotted for what I call 'historical conversation.' The teacher is to select the lives of eminent personages and such other things as he may consider important from both Indian and English Histories, converse with the boys on such subjects in English and finally ask them to write down what they have learnt in their note-books. Practically it amounts to an English conversation lesson on historical subjects. For example, the lives of Alfred the Great, William the Conqueror, Edward I, Henry VIII, Queen Elizabeth, Charles I, Chatham, Nelson, Wellington, Napoleon, Gladstone, Victoria and our King-Emperor and others may be taken from English History. Here great use should be made of historical pictures which can be had in plenty nowadays. As the boys are to be taught History in their vernacular in the Third Form and in English in the Fourth Form, such lessons in English in the Third Form would not only make the transition less sudden, but would be an incentive for the boys to study more of English History.

Then in the Fourth Form, the question confronts us as to which method is to be followed. Is only a portion of the History to be taught in detail or the whole in outline? I prefer the latter to the former, because in the Third Form the boys have learnt something about great men and events not in one period but in the whole History, they have a natural desire to have a knowledge of the whole History,

however elementary it may be, and because those who do not take English History will ordinarily have no occasion to read it. The next problem is whether we are to use any text-book or not. A suitable text-book like Tout's History Book I or Ground Work of English History by Carter may be prescribed but it should in no way fetter the teacher from framing his own syllabus and teaching the subject in the order he finds best. There is no necessity for closely following the book *in toto*. The History lesson should not be converted into an English lesson. The teacher should neither confine himself solely to the text nor treat the subject in any manner he likes, but should try to follow, as far as possible, the order of the text-book so that it may serve the purpose for which it was intended, *viz.*, to enable the students to refresh their memory. The teacher should try to make the lesson as interesting as possible by giving out bits of extraneous information. Great use should be made of the black-board for drawing maps and plans and for noting down the important points as the lesson proceeds. Boys also should be made to draw maps and plans and that only in the class under the supervision of the teacher. As a special case, those students who have an aptitude for such work, may be instructed to draw special maps and such maps, if well-mounted and exhibited in the school-hall, would, in addition to being a token of their good work, be an incentive to others also to make an attempt in that direction. Further, boys should be encouraged to read historical readers which are generally had in our school libraries and this can be very well done by the teacher reading out in the class interesting extracts from such books. It is thus intended to give a very elementary knowledge of the whole of English History to the boys of the Fourth Form.

The same text-book may be used in the

Fifth Form. Here also the whole history should be done with more details than in the Fourth Form. All the extra information not found in the text should be given by the teacher and the boys should be made to take down notes of such information themselves. The knowledge gained by a student here should be such as to fit him to answer the questions in general history set in the S. S. L. C. Public Examination.

In the Sixth Form, a special period is prescribed by the Department. The boys should have a detailed knowledge of this particular period in addition to an elementary knowledge of the whole. A suitable text-book may be used for the special period. The teacher has to eliminate the unnecessary things in the text and to give other important information not found in the text. Here boys should be made to do more work. They should read source-books and from such solve important historical problems themselves and the teacher has to assist the students in arriving at the right conclusion. If done so, the boys can be made to have more of originality and independent thinking.

I have only touched upon the main points and, before concluding, I desire to bring home to the minds of Managers and Headmasters of our High Schools that History should be taught only by trained History graduates, that they should be supplied with up-to-date books on the teaching of History and that source-books, standard books on history, historical readers and other appliances for teaching History should be supplied more liberally.

A. GANESAN.

EDUCATIONISTS AND CERTIFICATES OF HONOUR.

[By B. K. MUKHERJI, B.A.]

In the Honours' List, the names of Indian Schoolmasters seldom figure, but even for small mercies our grateful pleasure must be given expression to. In the United Provinces, certificates of honour have been granted for meritorious public services to Messrs. A. C. Mukherji, late Headmaster, L. M. High School, Benares; S. G. Thomas, Headmaster, St. John's College, Agra; P. N. Ghosh, Headmaster, C. M. High School, Jaunpur; and H. C. Sarkar, Headmaster, Municipal School, Bareilly. We take the opportunity of heartily congratulating these recipients of honours as teachers' brotherhood is thus honoured by reflection.

POINTS FOR SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The following points are submitted in the hope that they may be useful to many of those engaged in the all-important and sacred work of teaching:—

1. *Be purposeful*.—An aimless enterprise is a poor thing, and certainly not worth the time and trouble which should be expended on teaching. In the last Franco-German War the French war-cry was "To Berlin!" The goal they set before them was the capital of their enemy, and every effort was strained, though strained in vain, to attain their object. Whenever brave men have faced the hardships of Polar exploration or the conflict with disease or adversity, the purpose of their enterprise has ever been kept before them. This is the law of all serious human effort. It must also be the law of teaching. The teacher's aim and purpose must be to bring every member of his class to realise the vital importance of education, to make clear to each child the way of ignorance and dark-

ness, so to teach and plead with the children that, at the last, when called to render an account of stewardship, the teacher may not have to bear the responsibility of the lack of development of any one of the precious minds which were committed to his care in the school. He should set and keep this supreme aim and purpose ever before him, dwell often upon it and never meet his class without having reminded himself of it.

2. *Be prepared*.—If possible, he should start early in the week on the lessons for the following week. At any rate, let the main subject, be in his mind, and let him use any spare time he can find to get together some thoughts, informations and illustrations upon the lessons. His time for preparation may be scanty. But it is necessary to arrange that before the lesson comes to be given, he has a clear idea of it in its main bearing. He should encourage the members of the class not only to learn the portion given for the day, but to look over the subject and to be ready with any questions they may desire to ask when the time comes. For his preparation he should remember that the basis of all preparedness in teaching is a thorough acquaintance with the best works on a certain subject and a desire for the guidance and enlightenment of the best living men.

3. *Be punctual*.—One of the weakest points in school work is the habitual unpunctuality of some teachers. Occasional unpunctuality is, perhaps, unavoidable, but habitual unpunctuality is a most grievous injury to the teacher's influence on his class, and a serious aid to indiscipline and carelessness in the whole school. Every teacher should aim at being in his place five minutes before the time fixed for the commencement of school. This is a point of the greatest importance. A teacher who observes it will soon come to be regarded by the class as one who is in

earnest. Punctual teachers will soon teach their classes to be punctual, and the Headmaster will have the satisfaction of looking round on a full school when the clock bids him ring the bell for roll-call.

4. *Be particular*.—He should cherish a keen sense of the necessity of discipline. Let the children feel that he thinks too much of the welfare and reputation of the school and of his own class to allow misbehaviour. He should never let the members of his class lounge about when standing for reading or answering questions, and try and cure them of the equally bad habit of looking about and leaning against the wall or desk. There will always be something unhelpful for the wandering gaze to rest upon. It is not at all an uncommon thing in a school to see master X being anything but well-behaved under the very nose of an unconcerned teacher. Misbehaviour should always be seen and always checked. If ignored and unrebuked, so much the worse for the teacher in the long run. He should be particular in allotting marks. Unfaithfulness in this respect is destructive in many directions. He should be particular as to the attention of the members of the class. During the lesson he should take note frequently as to whether the members of the class are attending. If inattention is persisted in, the offender should be severely dealt with. He should be particular in not allowing books, slates, etc., to be carelessly handled or dropped on the floor. The old adage "Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves" may reasonably be revised to run "Take care of every little detail in your class-work, and the welfare of the class as a whole will take care of itself." But the teacher himself should be observant, thoughtful, orderly and methodical in the whole manner of his life.

5. *Be plain*.—The English language is rich in monosyllables. He should never use

a long word if a short one will do as well. He should make not only the words but the substance of the lesson clear and plain. Whether the lesson be difficult or easy, full or scanty, he should seek to drive home one or two plain, simple points that every child can understand. It is astonishing how often even the most careful explanation of a sentence, rule, principle or fact is misunderstood. To make sure of being understood, he should not be afraid of repeating a point two or three times in the same lesson.

6. *Be patient*.—His patience will often be tried. If he has but a small stock of it, he should take care that it does not run out and try that it be replenished. Experience has often proved that the most troublesome boy in a class has often turned out exceedingly well in after life. This should not lead him to favour the most troublesome boy or to be blind to his waywardness. The revolution in after life is probably in most cases the fruit of the prompt and faithful, and patient and frequent checking of the youthful rebellion. Let firmness and patience go hand-in-hand.

7. *Be prayerful*.—Whatever his religious persuasion may be, the teacher should never be ashamed of his faith and religion. An irreligious teacher, or one who talks lightly about religion and sacred things is an example to be avoided; he is a light-house showing near approach means inevitable wreck. He is not to parade his belief, talk his sincerity, show his piety in the class, etc., but he is required to make it plain to the class that he has a religion and his moral sense is based upon it.

THE FUNCTION OF THE UNIVERSITIES.

In an interesting speech as Chancellor of the Victoria University of Manchester, Lord Morley, dealing with "the habit of mind which the Universities are meant to foster," quoted from Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* the

2. The Hon'ble Mr. Sharp resigned his seat on the Committee before the Committee began to meet. All the other members took part in the deliberations. The Committee held four meetings in July and August 1911. Sub-Committees were at work during the intervals, drafting and redrafting schemes in accordance with the resolutions passed at each meeting.

3. The Committee are of opinion that the most suitable method of encouraging Commercial Education in this Presidency is to institute a Degree of 'Bachelor of Commerce' in connection with the University and that this is the best, if not the only, way in which the University can encourage the study of Commerce. A special University training is universally recognized to be necessary for the professions of Law, Medicine and Engineering. Similarly, a University training of the kind proposed in this report will, in the opinion of the Committee, be of the highest value to young men desirous of entering on a business career. Without a well-disciplined mind and the faculties specially trained to analyse new commercial and economic situations, and without a scientific study of Applied Economics, and in India, without a good grounding in English, it is difficult for young men to handle scientifically and critically the numerous complicated problems of modern commerce and industry. This fact has been recognized in Europe and America and by several British Universities like those of London, Birmingham, Manchester, and also Oxford and Cambridge. Should Higher Commercial Training not be recognized by the University, it is likely to be divorced from culture, which is as important for men engaged in business as it is for Lawyers, Doctors and Engineers. Further, in this country, a course of studies not recognized by the University fails, as a rule, to attract students of ability, and no economic and commercial training of the higher kind can be usefully imparted to those whose general education is not sufficient to enable them to profit by a University Course.

4. The Committee therefore recommend the institution of an additional Degree in the Faculty of Arts, viz., the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce (B. Com.). They recommend that the standard and the length of the course for the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce be the same as for the Bachelor of Arts and the Bachelor of Science Degrees, and that the first year's course be identical for these three Degrees. Every candidate for the B. Com. Degree shall be required (1) to pass the Matriculation Examination, and (2) either to obtain a certificate from

the Principal of an Arts College that he has satisfactorily carried out the work appointed by the University for the first two terms in Arts or pass the Previous Examination of this University, before he is admitted to a Commercial College affiliated to the University. He must then be required to pass (1) the Intermediate Examination in Commerce, after keeping two terms in a Commercial College, and (2) the Final Examination for the Degree in Commerce on the expiry of two years after his passing the Intermediate Examination in Commerce.

5. In framing the Scheme of Studies and Examinations, the Committee have had before them (1) the draft scheme submitted by Mr. K. Subramani Aiyar to the Syndicate in March 1910, (2) the Regulations of the Faculties of Commerce of the chief British Universities, especially those of Birmingham and Manchester, and (3) the Regulations for the Examinations of the Institute of Actuaries, the Institute of Bankers, and the Chartered and Incorporated Accountants' Institutes of England.

6. The Compulsory Course.

(a) Recognizing, as they do, that higher business training ought to be based on a systematic study of Economics, the Committee have included in the Compulsory Course a study of Political Economy and of Applied Economics in its various aspects.

(b) During the first two years after matriculating, candidates for the Degree in Commerce will study English on the same lines as candidates for the Bachelor of Arts Degree, while in the last two years of their course, candidates for the Commerce Degree will devote special attention to English Composition.

(c) As a certain amount of general commercial knowledge is necessary for all business men, subjects like Mercantile Law and Practice, General Accountancy, and Economic Geography and Organisation have been prescribed for all students.

(d) The compulsory subjects recommended for the three years' course in Commerce are:—

1. English Texts and Composition.
2. Political Economy.
3. Economic History.
4. Economic Geography.
5. Organisation of Industry and Commerce.
6. Mercantile Law and Practice.
7. Banking Law and Practice, including Co-operation and Co-operative Banks.
8. General Accountancy.

7. *Voluntary Groups.*—Provision has been made for a certain amount of specialization at the Degree Examination, so that candidates may be able to devote special attention to the group of subjects which will be most useful to them in the special career to which they are looking forward and for which they have an aptitude. Three Voluntary Groups have been provided, one of which must be offered by each candidate for the Degree, viz., (1) Exchanges, Investment, and Currency, (2) Accountancy and Auditing, (3) Actuarial Science with relative Mathematics. The first of these groups will meet the requirements of young men looking forward to a general business career as well as of young men intended for the Banking Profession. Specializing in Accountancy and Auditing requires a special aptitude for that kind of work and the more advanced study of this subject has therefore been placed among the voluntary courses. As a study of Actuarial Science requires a knowledge of Higher Algebra and the Calculus, none but those that have an aptitude for Mathematics can take up Actuarial Science with advantage. Other Groups of Voluntary subjects may from time to time be added to satisfy the requirements of other business careers.

8. Our Scheme prescribes four Subjects and 6 Papers for the Intermediate Examination in Commerce, and five Compulsory Subjects with 5 Papers and one Voluntary Subject with 2 Papers for the Degree Examination. In Economic Geography, we also recommend a Practical examination for testing the candidates' first hand knowledge of the chief Indian raw materials of commerce.

9. *Text-Books.*—We have appended lists of text-books chiefly for the purpose of indicating the nature and scope of the courses of study prescribed. The scope of the Examination in each subject is fixed by the Syllabus laid down, and not by the text-books recommended, as the text-books named cover sometimes a little more and sometimes a little less ground than the prescribed Syllabus. Further, we intend that the recommendation of text-books, as usual, be left in the hands of the Syndicate, who should have the power to alter the lists of text-books from time to time.

10. We are of opinion that there is a distinct demand for the services of young men trained in the way we suggest, and that the institution of a Degree on the lines recommended will open out new careers for Indian youths, and help Business Houses in securing the services of

trained youths capable of being gradually advanced to the highest positions in business; and we are at the same time convinced that the cause of liberal education will in no way be imperilled by the recognition of the right of Applied Economics and the study of Business Problems to a place in the curriculum of the University.

11. We have reason to believe that, should the University adopt this scheme and institute the proposed Degree, satisfactory provision for the necessary teaching will be made at an early date.

(Signed) D. MACKICHAN.
(") K. SUBRAMANI AIYAR.
(") H. N. ALLEN.
(") MUNMOHUNDASS RAMJI.
(") P. N. WADIA.
(") W. A. HAIG-BROWN.
(") C. H. ARMSTRONG.
(") VITHALDAS D. THACKERSEY.
(") D. E. WACHA.

Bombay, 1st Sept. 1911.

SCHEME OF STUDIES FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF COMMERCE.

1. Candidates for the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce (B. Com.) must have passed the Matriculation Examination, and will be required to pass two subsequent Examinations, the first to be called the Intermediate Examination in Commerce, and the second the Examination for the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce.

First Year.

2. Candidates will be permitted at the end of the first year to enter on a course for the Intermediate Examination in Commerce, provided that they produce a certificate from the Principal of an Arts College showing that they have satisfactorily carried out the work appointed for the first two terms in Arts, or a certificate of having passed the Previous Examination of this University.

Intermediate Examination in Commerce.

3. No Undergraduate will be admitted to this Examination unless, after obtaining a certificate from the Principal of an Arts College showing that he has satisfactorily carried out the work appointed by the University for the first two terms in Arts, or else after passing the Previous Examination, he shall have kept two terms at a College or Institution recognized in Commerce, and unless he produces satisfactory testimonials under Form.

4. Candidates for the Intermediate Examination in Commerce will be examined in the following subjects:—

- I. English.
- II. Political Economy.
- III. Mercantile Law and Practice.
- IV. Accountancy.

I. ENGLISH—Two Papers.

- (a) English Texts (One Paper).
- (b) English Composition (One Paper).

Additional marks will be assigned for good handwriting in each paper.

II. •POLITICAL ECONOMY—One Paper.

Economic Schools of Thought. The Factors of Production; Labour, Nature and Capital; the Methods of Production. Organisation, Association, Division of Labour. The Circulation of Wealth, Exchange, Credit and International Trade. Distribution, Wages, Interest, Rent and Profits. Consumption, Spending and Saving.

Text-Book recommended:—

Principles of Political Economy, by Charles Gide.

III. MERCANTILE LAW AND PRACTICE—Two Papers.

Contracts: the leading features of the Indian Law of Contracts with special reference to Purchases and Sales, Agency and Partnership. The leading features of the Indian Company Law. Bills, Cheques, Notes and Letters of Credit; General and Special lien; Discounting Bills, Raising Loans and Collecting Interest and Dividends; Charter Parties and Bills of Lading; Ocean, Canal, and Railway Freights; Lay Days; Demurrage; Customs Regulations about loading and clearing goods; Open and Valued Policies of Insurance; General and Particular Average; Total Loss; Average Clause; Bottomry Bond.

Text-Books recommended:—

Pitman's Commercial Law, by J. A. Slater.

The leading provisions of the Indian Contract Act, the Indian Companies Act, the Indian Negotiable Instruments Act.

Modern Business Training, by J. K. Grebby.

Marine Insurance, by Frederick Templeman.

IV. ACCOUNTANCY—One Paper.

Keeping the subsidiary books, posting into the Ledger, preparing Trading and Profit and Loss Accounts and Balance Sheets of General Merchants, Partnerships, and Joint Stock Companies, Bad Debts, Depreciation and Reserves.

Text-Books recommended:—

Book-keeping and Accounts, by L. C. Cropper.
Student's Book-keeping, by Arthur Fieldhouse.

Principles and Practice of Book-keeping, by K. Subramani Aiyar.

EXAMINATION FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF COMMERCE (B. Com.).

5. No Undergraduate will be admitted to this Examination, unless after passing the Intermediate Examination in Commerce at this University, he shall have kept four terms at a College or Institution recognized in Commerce, and unless he produce satisfactory testimonials under Form

6. Candidates for the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce will be examined in the following subjects:—

- I. English.
- II. Economic History.
- III. Economic Geography.
- IV. Banking Law and Practice.
- V. Organisation of Industry and Commerce.
- VI. One of the following Voluntary subjects:—
 - (a) Exchanges, Investment and Currency.
 - (b) Accountancy and Auditing.
 - (c) Actuarial Science with Relative Mathematics.

I. ENGLISH—One Paper.

English Composition, including Precis-writing, and drafting Commercial Letters, Reports, Circulars, etc.

II. ECONOMIC HISTORY—One Paper.

Text-Books recommended:—

Outlines of English Industrial History, by W. Cunningham and Ellen McArthur.

British Commerce and Colonies, by H. De B. Gibbins.

History of Commerce in Europe, by H. De B. Gibbins.

III. ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY.—One Paper and a Practical Examination.

The main factors connected with climate and soil affecting the production of articles of commerce. The cereals of different climates and their Zones; Plants yielding starch, spices, condiments, sugar, etc.; Fruits and nuts; Medicinal plants; Textile plants; Building and furniture woods; Gums and resins; Economic Animal

Products. The Economic Minerals, facilities for or obstacles to their profitable working.

Commercial towns and the causes of their greatness; colonial enterprise and the necessity therefor; important markets for the chief commodities. Manufactures and the economic distribution of power; distribution of population; centralisation in manufacturing industries; shifting of trade centres, vicissitudes of commerce, competition. Consuls, Chambers of Commerce, commercial museums, and other means by which nations endeavour to promote their own commerce and industry. How natural advantages may be affected by the action of Governments. Trade routes; means of communication and transport in various countries. The effects on commerce of the construction of Canals, Railways, and Tunnels.

Practical Examination:—

Candidates will be required to identify the chief Indian raw materials of commerce.

Text-Books recommended:—

The Natural History of the Raw Materials of Commerce, by John Yeats.

Hand-book of Commercial Geography, by G. G. Chisholm.

Applied Geography by J. Scott Keltie.

IV. BANKING LAW AND PRACTICE—One Paper.

The relations between banker and customer; the banker's position in relation to infant customers, Joint Accounts, Partnership Accounts, and Accounts in the names of Corporations, Executors, and Trustees; Appropriation of Payments; Deposit Accounts, and Deposit Receipts; Crossed Cheques; Valid and Invalid Endorsements; Banker's position in relation to payment of customers' acceptances and collection of customers' Bills; Banker's Securities for Advances; Banker's lien; Legal and Equitable Mortgage; Bailment; Deposits for Safe Custody.

Co-operation and Profit Sharing; Co-operative Stores and Agricultural Societies; Co-operative Supply, Production and Sale. Co-operative Banks with limited and unlimited liability; Co-operative Savings Banks; Co-operative Mortgage Credit; Co-operative Banks as borrowers.

Text-Book recommended:—

A Treatise on Banking Law, by J. D. Walker.
Banking Law, by R. W. Holland and A. Nixon.

Co-operation, by C. R. Fay.

Co-operative Banking by H. W. Wolff.

For consultation:—

Questions on Banking Practice, by the Institute of Bankers.

V. ORGANISATION OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE—One Paper.

Nature and Constitution of Business Houses; Partnerships; Public and Private Companies; Financing of new business; Organisation of Control and Responsibility; Organisation of Credit; Inquiring Agencies; Bank and Business References; Value and Methods of Statistical Investigation.

The organisation of markets and the interdependence of market phenomena and industrial phenomena. Produce markets and markets for manufactures. Industrial combinations and regulation of output; Factory Legislation. The concentration of specialized industries; Production on a large scale; localized industries.

The Rise and Progress of the Cotton Industry in England, India, the United States, and Japan; present conditions and prospects.

Foreign Trade; International Trade; Balance of Trade; the Organisation of Commercial Intelligence; Tariff Policies; Efficiency of Marketing; Railways and other agencies of Transport.

Text-Books recommended:—

Business Organisation, by L. R. Dicksee.

Imperial Organisation of Trade, by G. Drage.
State in its relation to Trade, by Farrer and Giffen.

State in its relation to Labour, by W. S. Jevons.

Cotton Industry and Trade, by S. J. Chapman.

Economic Transition in India, by Theodore Morison.

Railways and the Nation, by W. Bolland.

VOLUNTARY SUBJECTS.

VI (a) EXCHANGES, INVESTMENT AND CURRENCY.
(Two Papers.)

(1) The Mechanism of Banking; Banking Capital; Banks of Deposit, Issue, Discount, and Remittance; Savings Banks; the general administration of a Bank and its administration during seasons of pressure; Clearing Houses; Bank Book-keeping; Regulation of the Issue of Notes; History of the Rise and Progress of the Banks of England, Scotland, Ireland, and India; Modern Banking Developments; Branch Banks; Bank Amalgamations; History of the Bank of England, and the Bank Charter Act; the banking

systems of the leading foreign countries and of the British Colonies; Financial Crises.

(2) Mint Par and Course of Exchange, Specie Points, Favourable and Unfavourable Exchange, Rise and Fall of the Exchange, Quotations in Foreign and Home Currencies, Long and Short Exchange; London, Paris, Berlin, and New York Exchange; Silver Exchanges; Bullion Operations.

(3) The principles governing investments; the Money Market; the Short Loan Fund; Bill Brokers and Discount Houses; the Bank Rate; the Market Rate; the Deposit Rate; the Banker's Call Rate; Analysing and Appraising the Weekly Returns of the Bank of England and of the Indian Presidency Banks, and Bank Balance Sheets. Banking Reserve and its relation to the Money Market.

(4) Functions and Attributes of Money; Standard and Token Money; Legal Tender; Gresham's Law; Convertible and Inconvertible Paper Money; Gold and Silver discoveries and their effects on the relative values of these metals and on general prices; Inter-action between Gold and Silver prices; Currency Theories; Indian Currency; Development of Credit Money.

Text-Books recommended.

Theory and Practice of Banking, by H. D. Macleod (2 vols.).

Gilbart on Banking (2 vols.).

Presidency Banks Acts.

A Money Market Primer, by George Clare.

A B. C. of Foreign Exchanges, by George Clare.

Foreign Exchanges, by G. J. Goschen.

VI (b) ACCOUNTANCY AND AUDITING.—Two Paper.

The accounts of different kinds of business, including Bankers, Insurance Companies, Factories, Mining Companies, Railways, and Hotels, Charitable Institutions, and other non-trading concerns. Income and Expenditure Accounts, Branch Accounts, Cost Accounts, Bankruptcy Accounts, Departmental Accounts, Depreciation, Reserves, Sinking Funds; The Double Account System, Columnar Book-keeping.

Auditing: the continuous and the completed audit; the Detection of Fraud; Technical Errors, and Errors of Principle; First and Subsequent Audit; Verifying Cash, Securities, Stock Sheets, Wages Sheets. Special considerations in different classes of audit; Valuation of Fixed and Floating Assets; Forms of Accounts and Balance Sheets. Capital and Revenue Items; the Audi-

tor's Certificate; the Liabilities of Auditors; the Conduct of Investigations and the Certifying of Average Profits.

Text-Books recommended:—

Book-keeping for Company Secretaries, by L. R. Dicksee.

Advanced Accounting, by L. R. Dicksee.

Book-keeping and Accounts, by Spicer and Pegler.

Auditing, by L. R. Dicksee.

VI (c) ACTUARIAL SCIENCE WITH RELATIVE MATHEMATICS.—Two Papers.

(1) The Binomial and Exponential Theorems; the use of Logarithms, the Elements of the Theory of Probabilities, the Elements of the Calculus of Finite Differences including Interpolation and Summation; Elementary Differential and Integral Calculus *excluding questions requiring the use of Trigonometry.*

(2) Interest and Annuities Certain; Problems in Compound Interest; Equation of Payments; Valuation of Perpetuities, Varying Annuities and Increasing Annuities; Repayment of Loans by Annuity; Operation of Sinking Funds; Valuation of Redeemable Securities; Loans repayable by Cumulative Sinking Funds; Capital Redemption Assurances; Calculation of Single and Annual Premiums; Policy Values; Applications of the Calculus of Finite Differences and the Infinitesimal Calculus for ascertaining the amount and present value of an annuity.

(3) Life Assurance Practice; Different kinds of Policies of Assurance and Annuities; Policy Conditions; Interpreting the Revenue Account and the Balance Sheet of a Life Assurance Company; Sources of Profit; Bonuses; Surrenders and Dividends; Valuation Returns; Proving a claim; Life Assurance as an Investment; Life Assurance Accounts.

Text Books recommended:—

Part I of the Institute of Actuaries Text-Book, by R. Todhunter.

Life Assurance Explained, by William Schooling.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

His Majesty on Education—Message of Hope.

The King-Emperor's reply to the Calcutta University address which we print below in full is the most valuable, comforting and enduring asset in the country.

"It is to the Universities of India that I look to assist in that gradual union and fusion of the culture and aspirations of Europeans and Indians on which the future well-being of India so greatly depends. I have watched with sympathy the measures which from time to time have been taken by the Universities of India to extend the scope and raise the standard of instruction. Much remains to be done. No University nowadays is complete, unless it is equipped with teaching faculties in all the more important branches of science and the arts, and unless it provides ample opportunities for research. You have to conserve the ancient learning, and simultaneously to push forward Western science. You have also to build up character without which learning is of little value. You say that you recognise your great responsibilities. I bid you god-speed on the work that is before you. Let your ideals be high and your efforts to pursue them unceasing, and under Providence you will succeed.

"Six years ago I sent from England to India a message of sympathy. To-day in India I give to India the watchword of hope. On every side I trace the signs and stirrings of new life. Education has given you hope, and through better higher education you will build up higher and better hopes.

"The announcement was made at Delhi by my command that my Governor-General in Council will allow large sums for the expansion and improvement of education in India. It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a network of schools and colleges from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens able to hold their own in industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life, and it is my wish too that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge, with all that follows in its train, a higher level of thought, of comfort and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart.

"It is gratifying to me to be assured of your devotion to myself and to my House, of your desire to strengthen the bonds of union between Great Britain and India, and of your appreciation of the advantages which you enjoy under British rule. Thank you for your loyal and dutiful address."

XVIII

A Comparison of Government Education in the Philippines and in India, by Dr. Henry M. Mac-Cracken, late Chancellor of the New York University.

This address is fully reported in the New York "Evening Post" of October 21 last, the comparison including (1) an enquiry into the relative qualifications of the races affected; (2) the amounts expended on education by the American and British Governments respectively and the results, as shown by the number of schools and the attendance of the children; and (3) the spirit in which the subject of popular education has been approached by the two Governments. Sir W. Wedderburn, *Bart.*, gives us a short abstract of this lecture in *India* of December 8 last. "As regards (1) the social and intellectual condition of the two countries, as viewed from the historical standpoint, the contrast is striking, the civilisation of the Philippines being new, whereas that of India is very old..... Looking at these facts the lecturer judges that the educational task of the British Government in India is comparatively light, as they have only to revive an ancient civilisation, not to create a new one. The next point for consideration is (2) the Government expenditure on education..... Working out these figures, it appears that in British India the Government expenditure is about 4 cents per inhabitant, for a population of 232 millions, while in proportion the expenditure in the Philippines is ten times as great, being 42 cents per inhabitant, for a population of 7½ millions..... As regards school attendance, it appears that the total number of children in India under instruction is between 5 and 6 millions, but only one-fourth of these are in Government schools. In the Philippines 450,000 children are under instruction in Government schools so that if the same standard were made applicable to India, the attendance of children in Government schools should be 13 millions, instead of 1¼ millions..... As an example of what may be done in India, the lecturer points to the State of Baroda, where the expenditure is 15 cents per inhabitant, more than three times the rate in the adjacent British districts; and where the school roll amounts to 100,000, which, looking to the population of the State, is ten times the proportion of attendance in British India..... It is impossible to say that the present state of primary education in India is creditable to the administration, whether we look to the long period of British rule, or to the docility of the Indian races, or to the fact that the Indian revenues are absolutely at the disposal of the Executive Government."

Moral and religious training of youths in schools and colleges, by the Rev. J. C. R. Ewing, M.A., D.D., LL. D.

At the Convocation of the Punjab University held on the 22nd December last, the Rev. J. C. R. Ewing, M.A., D.D., LL.D., Vice-Chancellor, delivered the address in the course of which he fully discussed the question of moral and religious training of youths in schools and colleges. ".... In considering this question it is essential to remember, that perhaps more than in any other land, religious ideals and motives give colour to the lives of the peoples of India. This is a fact which no scheme of education can afford to ignore. We must take into account the almost universal conviction of the reality of the invisible and supernatural, and upon this basis make it possible for each faith, if it will, to build and inculcate its own code of morals. Any attempt to substitute for the religious sanction, which the vast majority of the people believe to be of paramount authority, such artificial scheme of morals as would be sufficiently colourless to be acceptable to all, is doomed to fail; and even though it should succeed in obtaining general acceptance, its result would be to defeat the very purpose which we all like and aim to achieve. It is by no such procedure as this that Government schools and colleges can be put into a position where those who are being educated therein may secure, not only as they now do, the best of intellectual training, but also may come under such moral and religious influences as their parents and guardians desire for them." ".... That those charged with the responsibilities of the Educational Department of Government are, in general, fully alive to the importance of this question is not to be doubted, but they are not free to deal with the problems of morals in such a way as to appear to favour one or another of the several religions professed by their pupils. Is there, then, no method by which this situation may be, at least in some measure, relieved? I would venture to suggest that something substantial in the way of accomplishing what is desired might be secured through the establishment of what, for lack of a better name, we may call denominational hostels. A thoroughly equipped and adequately managed hostel in the vicinity of the Government school or college furnishing a home for the students of a particular faith would probably be welcomed by the authorities of the place as a positive help. Here there would be found the most entire freedom for the leaders of that particular community to provide whatever

moral and religious instruction they might regard as of the greatest value. It need hardly be said that such an enterprise could be of appreciable value, only if most seriously undertaken. It would involve not only the expenditure of considerable sums of money, but also would depend for its success upon the moral earnestness of the men in immediate charge. But if it is not worth this expenditure, and if the best men refuse to be enthusiastically and practically interested in it, let the matter be put aside, and the talk of the paramount importance of moral and religious training cease. I am, however, convinced that some such scheme is not wholly a vision, and that in circumstances where there is present a profound conviction, ready to prove itself in action, that religious and moral training are of supreme importance, great possibilities lie. It is by no means claimed that this is a solution of this great problem; at best it could only be regarded as a beginning. Obviously, it could only merit even that humble designation if earnestly, efficiently and persistently undertaken and maintained. Attempted in any other spirit, such hostels would be intolerable in the vicinity of, and in affiliation to, well-regulated schools and colleges, and would be a source of positive injury to those who might find residence in them. "If good morals are to be taught, it is imperative that we look after the character of those who are set to teach." Let the teacher be one whose life is clean and strong and beautiful, and you have here a dynamic at work upon your boy more powerful than any other, save that which operates in that home where father and mother are alike qualified, through education and capacity for rightly estimating the best things, to surpass all others as guides of their own children. Where the teacher is of this type he is not so by accident. Character of this sort is not fortuitous. It is founded upon definite convictions. The student will not only admire it, but will seek to know its basis, and in process of doing so will be acquiring the sort of education which is the best of all treasures, whether it be labelled moral, or religious, or both. Indifference in a matter so vital as that of the personal character of the teacher is, of course, deplorable: but it would appear that it is by no means unusual. Ability to secure a high percentage of passes in a public examination has an unmistakable value, but if there be an absence of all capacity to stimulate to something higher and better and more abiding than that, there is entire failure at an essential point."

The Training of Teachers, by Prof. John Adams.

The Headmasters in England as a body do not appear to have yet got beyond the vague feeling that training of teachers is unnecessary. Such a feeling accords with the view expressed recently by an educational officer of the London County Council that educational theory is thoroughly neglected in England, even the rudiments of psychology being repeated by teachers without any attempt at understanding their true significance, and that therefore, educational practice suffers greatly in comparison with that in Germany. This attitude is generally taken to be symptomatic of the lack of interest in the people of England to educational matters and their lack of imagination. Recently various improvements have been effected in the system of training teachers. Professor John Adams, presiding at the annual Sessions of the Training College Association, gave an indication of the direction in which progress was being made in England in respect of this matter. "Educational theory has become consolidated to such an extent that in the Training Colleges it would be possible to spend the whole available time of the students on non-controversial matters. The present position marks a movement towards an organization in which University, college, and school would be merged into one whole, with no divided interest, the University supplying the theory and its newer development, the school supplying the field of practical criticism, and the College holding the balance between the two, saving the school from becoming a mere institution of rule-of-thumb and keeping the University within the realm of the practical. The inter-penetration of the Elementary and Secondary School systems in the training of student teachers would probably do much in the future for the improvement of both. The question of the relations that should subsist between the Department and its officers and the schools is a delicate one. An English educationist described recently the three stages through which the English Inspector has passed. Fifteen years ago he was a kind of glorified check weighman for the Board of Education. Those were the days of payment by results. Then they had Inspectors with a craving of uniformity in the teacher. The third and present stage is the day of the junior Inspector—"the young man with social antecedents, who brought with him that attitude of complete detachment which the Board loved and which, translated into plain words, counted nothing more than a perfect ignorance of the duties he was called upon to perform."

"Hindu and Muslim Universities," by Pandit Bishan Narayan Dar.

The following is a portion of the address delivered by Pandit Bishan Narayan Dar, President of the Congress:—"Among the many important questions that have been prominently before the public and the Government, that of education is perhaps the most important. The growing demand for high education on national lines has found expression in the schemes of the Hindu and Mahomedan Universities and that for mass education in Mr. Gokhale's Elementary Bill. That education is one of the noblest gifts of England to India is generally admitted; but Lord Curzon evidently thought otherwise, and so he passed certain measures which had had the effect of narrowing the area of high education and making it more expensive. It came to be said in his time that Indians were over educated, that education had turned their heads and that they had become so numerous that the Government did not know what to do with them. Lord Curzon's Universities Act excited widespread dissatisfaction both among Hindus and Mahomedans, but was strongly supported by the bureaucracy, and it became apparent to the people that the rulers of our day had different educational ideals from those which had inspired Bentinck and Macaulay. Thoughtful men of all communities have always felt the necessity of independent institutions which, while supplementing the efforts of Government to disseminate education, will supply the deficiencies of the present system and adapt it to India's particular conditions and requirements. It is in this view I believe, that the Hindu and Muslim University schemes have been promulgated, and *pace* critics of the type a learned Judge of the Madras High Court, I feel sure we all have watched with admiration the noble efforts of the promoters of both the schemes and, while congratulating them on the magnificent response their appeals have evoked from their respective co-religionists, we wish them complete success and trust the Government will not only help them to make the Universities accomplished facts but will allow them to be really independent non-official institutions. While at this I cannot pass over Mr. Justice Sankaran Nair's altogether unjust condemnation upon the Hindu religion. Mr. Sankaran Nair is an able and independent man, and I believe that in what he said he was actuated by the best of motives. Nevertheless, he has been guilty of a most deplorable error and has brought baseless accusations against the Hindu religion as it has been preached and practised by the choicest spirits of our race from the dim dawn of history down to the present day."

"Whether Denominational Universities will promote sectarian differences," by H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner.

In his speech at the Calcutta Town meeting in support of the Hindu University Scheme, H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner explained the beneficent effect of the royal visit and traced the history of the growth of the idea of founding a great Hindu University. As regards sectarian differences which some say that these kinds of Universities will promote, the words of His Highness are quite appreciable. "It has been said that denominational Universities are liable to promote sectarian differences. Perhaps I may be permitted specially to touch on this subject. Whatever the ideal may have been India is big enough for two such Universities as are now before the public, and situated as we are at the present moment, it must be conceded that much good can be done by diverting the charities and activities of the two communities towards the promotion of education by creating institutions which will appeal to them in a special degree. It is our earnest desire to work in a spirit of amity and concord, and in such a way that the Mahomedan and Hindu Universities may be looked upon as sister institutions labouring to promote in their respective spheres the good of the children of our common country, and there is every reason to hope and believe that with both the institutions broadly organized, soundly managed and sufficiently endowed, and with the spread of knowledge which they will foster and promote, they will contribute towards creating a spirit of good will among the members of the two communities, based on morality, reverence and duty. Their teachings will tend to tolerance and not to estrangement, and with the spread of education, of which this movement is a great landmark, both Mussalmans and Hindus will recognize the common humanity which unites them and the common goal to which they are striving by different paths. It is important to remember that both the Mahomedan and Hindu Universities are to be open to the students of all creeds and classes, and the mutual exchange of compliments and subscriptions between H. H. the Agha Khan and the Maharajah Bhadur of Darbhanga and the other instances where the Mahomedans and the Hindus have contributed towards the educational institutions and schemes of sister communities, auger well for the future."

Sir Edward Poynter on "Study."

At the annual prize-giving of the Royal Academy Schools, London, on Saturday, December 9th, Sir E. Poynter, the President, said in addressing the students that he had always tried to convince them that without steady and serious study their natural talents would never attain their proper development. Pursuing this theme, he said:—"No idea more foolish, more preposterous I may say, more opposed to the dictates of reason and common sense, was ever put forward than that instruction in the study and practice of your art will stifle originality, and that the more helpless and crude the efforts of an artist are in the exercise of his art the better he is equipped for displaying his natural genius; a theory which, though not so boldly expressed, is certainly at the bottom of much that is written at the present time, and is apparently in high favour with a school, if we may call it a school, which professes to learn nothing, on the other side of the Channel—a school which is as much repudiated among the saner spirits in France as it is by those in this country."

"The idea that patient study can be dispensed with is catching, and there is an epidemic of slovenly work abroad, fostered by ill-considered criticism and an advertising spirit. It is so easy to cover a canvas with paint if you can persuade yourselves that it does not much matter if a figure is out of drawing, if troublesome details are slurred.....It is not you are not to study tone and values—they are of the highest importance—it is that the study of them (when they really are studied) is with a certain school made the excuse for not studying anything else.....If your 'values' are wrong, and by that I mean if they are not in harmony and accordance with the general scheme of light and colour, one of the most important elements in your picture is neglected, and it can never be a complete work of art. They must be right, or you show yourself incompetent in a particular direction, just as the perspective must be right; but correct values no more make a good picture than correct perspective makes a good picture. I dwell on this particular point because such vague generalities are part of the epidemic of slackness which is so prevalent and for which it is so convenient to find excuses. It is so easy to neglect the study of accuracy and to be indefinite, to have no method, to try for qualities which make no demand on industry. If there is no necessity to learn, if it does not matter how a thing is done, any one can be an artist, and the scrawl of a child of seven has equal value with the work of a Titian or a Raphael."

The Elementary Education Bill, by Babu Jitendralal Bannerji.

We take the following from the speech delivered by Babu J. L. Bannerji at the last day's sitting of the Congress:—"The principles of Mr. Gokhale's Bill are two in the main—the principle of "compulsion" and the principle of "taxation." So far as compulsion is concerned, I need not say much. It is the universal experience of mankind that, for the wider spread of primary education some measure of compulsion is necessary. I may quote some figures to illustrate my point. In England, they have had compulsory education for 40 years: in India, we have had voluntary option for 50 years. What is the result? In England, cent. per cent. of the people are literate; in India only 6.6 per cent.—or about 1/16th of what it is in England. Let us come nearer home. In Baroda, they have had compulsory education for the last five years only. What is the result? Of the total population of school-going age those who actually attend school constitute 80 per cent: in British India they constitute just 21 per cent.—or 1/4th of what it is in Baroda. Gentlemen, if compulsion is necessary to the spread of education everywhere else, how can India alone plead exception to the common rule? The question of taxation stands on a slightly different footing. People may very reasonably argue. We subscribe to the principle of compulsion. But why should we pay additional taxes in order to receive education? Gentlemen, in our country, there is a short but conclusive reply to this objection; and that is—"because otherwise you won't get the thing." The alternative before us is plain—either education with some measure of additional taxation or no taxation and no education. Such being the case, need I doubt as to what your choice will be?"

"But there is another and higher ground on which I should like to support the question of taxation. In India, the middle and upper classes

have long neglected their responsibility in the matter of educating the lower classes. Between them and us, we have raised artificial barriers more rigid and far more cruel than any natural barriers could ever be. 'Untouchable'—such is the bitter stigma with which we have branded a large majority of our fellow-countrymen; and in the wide ignorance of the masses, we reap the fruits of our narrow policy in the past. Labour of body, labour of mind, we shall have to give all in order to elevate those whom we have degraded and kept down in the dust; and it is thus that we must do age-long penance for the sins of long centuries. Gentlemen, we have been told that the Government of India will throw out Mr. Gokhale's Bill. For my part, I should not be surprised if this were so. The Government of India have committed many mistakes in the past, and this will be but one more added to a long and inglorious list. But though the Bill may be thrown out this year, its ultimate triumph is certain. For a movement like that which is at the back of Mr. Gokhale's Bill—a movement so truly national, so entirely popular—though it may receive a temporary check is bound to gain in the end. Its success may be feeble at first, but as month follows month and year follows year, it will grow in greatness, it will swell in volume, it will gather in force and intensity—till before its onflowing and resistless march, the weak barriers of short-sighted opposition will be swept away like chaff before the wind. For to-day, as in the days past the words of the poet hold good:

'For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Some here no painful inch into gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
Come silent—flooding, in the main.'

The A B C of Rural Schools in America,
by Sudhindra Bose, M.A.

In an interesting article appearing in the January number of the *Modern Review*, Mr. Sudhindra Bose describes how the Americans have learned to make education cultural as well as serviceable: "The American students should not only know the Three R's, but they should also get some training in those very subjects which bear on their life work. Here is an object lesson for India. The subjects taught in the rural schools are Reading, Spelling, Grammar, Composition, Arithmetic, United States History, Geography, Physiology, Music, and Drawing. To these, many schools have added recently courses in Manual Training, Agriculture and Domestic Science. Domestic Science is designed to increase the home efficiency of the young girls who will some day become the home-makers of the nation. It teaches the latest and most scientific methods of cooking, sewing, knitting, and the art of house decoration. The work in agriculture concerns itself with instruction in the composition of soil, the maintenance of the soil's fertility, the selection of proper seed, the rotation of crops and the care of raising and feeding stock. The manual training course gives the boys practice in handling tools, and making simple chairs, tables, fences, and gates. The work throughout is practical.....The work in these schools extends through eight years. If one is desirous of going further, he can enter the High School and graduate in four years; and if he is still more ambitious, he can go to a University and get his Bachelors Degree in another four years. Thus, a boy who goes to a rural school at six years of age will be ready to begin his life's vocation as a well-equipped University graduate when he is only twenty-two.....The rural schools are absolutely free. All children between the ages of six and fourteen are required by law to attend school for at least twenty-four consecutive weeks of every year. In cases of real privation, the School

Board furnishes suitable clothing, books, and other necessary school supplies. But each parent must send his children to school. When the law is violated, the offending parent is reported by the smart officer, is hauled before the Justice of the Peace, and is rendered liable to a fine of from ten to one hundred and fifty rupees, or to imprisonment for not over six months.....The average expense of running a country school for a year of eight months is about a thousand rupees.The schools in the country district have often five juvenile libraries. The methods of providing a library for the school are many.....No one in the country, not even a college professor has a legal right to be a common school teacher unless he can pass a special examination of the State Board of Examination. To the successful candidate the Board gives a license or Teacher's certificate granting him the privilege to teach. Briefly speaking, there are four classes of certificates. The third-grade certificate, the holder being entitled to teach only one year before his certificate must be renewed. The second-grade certificate; the first-class certificate which is hard to get and therefore sharply contested by all; and lastly a Life certificate. To get the Life certificate, a teacher must have a record of five years of continuous successful teaching, the quality of success to be judged by the school or country superintendent under whom he may be engaged.....But why are we interested in the American school? Of all things which come home to us with greatest force in India there is none more highly important than providing ways and means for practical education. Indian education should fill the needs, the requirements of the time and the country. In Indian village schools—such as they are—attempts should be made to open up, at least, elementary vocational education. Right now is the time to provide for the training of our coming mechanics, farmers and skilled workmen, if as a nation we are to go up and not sink down."

Making of the most of Books, by James
Hosmer Penniman.

Mr. James Hosmer Penniman discusses about the "classification of books" in the November number of the "School Bulletin." He says: "The multitude of books impresses on us the shortness of human life, and immortality never seems more desirable and necessary than in the presence of a library. The national library of France contains about three million books and the British Museum requires forty miles of shelves to accommodate its two million volumes. The room which contains the card catalogue of the nine hundred thousand books of the Boston Public Library is as large as the entire space of many a village library. According to the purposes for which they have been written books may be divided broadly into three classes. In the first place we have books intended to convey information. This class is very numerous as it includes histories, biographies, travels, text-books and works on technical subjects. The second class comprises those written to amuse and consists mainly of works of fiction. This is also numerous, for it constitutes the chief mental nourishment of the greater number of readers. The last class is composed of books written to inspire, to which belong works of the sacred writers and of the great poets. Such books are comparatively few in number, but they include much of the noblest work of the noblest men whom the world has known. These three divisions are not separated by hard and fast lines; There is of course still another class of books that are no books. Works of this kind far out-number all the others put together, and it requires constant care in order to avoid them. 'Throw away none of your time' says Lord Chesterfield 'upon those trivial futile books, published for the amusement of idle and ignorant readers: such sort of books swarm and buzz about one every day; flop them away,—they have no sting.'"

Reviews and Notices.

OUTLINES OF THE HISTORY OF GERMAN LITERATURE,
BY J. G. ROBERTSON. (WILLIAM BLACKWOOD
& SONS). 3s. 6d.

With narrow feelings of insular pride William Watson has claimed for English Literature absolute supremacy in lyric song in all Europe. 'One flash of Byron's lightning, Wordsworth's light' is to him

More than the froth and flotsam of the Seine,
More than your Hugo-Flare against the night,
And more than Weimar's proud elaborate calm.

But this attitude of scoffing indifference to alien literatures is happily wearing away and commands no sympathy at least in the regions of sober academical scholarship. The comparative study of literatures has been recognised as an essential feature of any comprehensive study of the masterpieces of particular languages. And a book like this of Mr. Robertson's cannot but be of the highest value even to students of English literature who abound in this country.

It is hardly necessary for us to point out that the History of German Literature acquires an additional value to students of the English tongue, not only on account of the affinities between the two races, but also of the intimate relationship that has been maintained between the two literatures in recent centuries. No student of Carlyle, De Quincey or Coleridge, among others in English Literature, could afford to ignore the German influences on the evolution of their genius and it is useful to recognise the illumination that has often come from Germany in matters pertaining to English criticism.

Mr. Robertson's volume is a thorough and comprehensive study of the History of German Literature within the short compass of a handy volume. The task has been discharged with commendable ability and earnestness and we have no hesitation in regarding it to be quite reliable.

THE GRANTA SHAKESPEARE—TWELFTH NIGHT AND
MACBETH, EDITED BY J. H. LOBBAN. (THE
CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 1s. each.

The text of this series of plays is based on the fourth and last edition of Johnson and Steevens. There is the additional attraction of a careful revision, and modernisation in spelling and punctuation. The handy volumes must prove useful to the lay student of Shakespeare, as it is always convenient to have the plays in separate editions

with the brief introductions and notes necessary for their appreciation. Mr. Lobban has prefixed a few pages of criticism and analysis of the plots which must contribute to lucidity of exposition. The glossary of terms is certainly of great use, but we are afraid the notes are somewhat scanty even for the average English reader of the plays. The illustrations impart an additional interest to the volumes.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND ITS HISTORY, BY E. G. HAWKE. (JOHN MURRAY). 3s. 6d.

We had recently the pleasure of welcoming a descriptive account of the British Empire published by Mr. Murray for the League of the Empire. The volume under review is the second in the useful series which aims at the inculcation of some of the noble responsibilities of citizenship in the youth of this wide empire. It is devoted to an historical account of the British Empire, and it is as brief and comprehensive as it is readable and entertaining. We sincerely echo the hope of the publishers that there may come a time when a common Matriculation or School-leaving standard will be established for the whole Empire and we trust the volume will prove quite useful for such a common purpose. Mr. Hawke has discharged his task with ungrudging thoroughness, and we are particularly glad to notice the volume has been made quite up-to-date. We might instance the fact that the author has taken care to mention even the proposals which are now pending regarding the Indo-Ceylonese Railway.

It is also refreshing to note a spirit of absolute freedom from prejudice and any narrow feelings of imperialism. Otherwise the book would not make any appeal to the citizens of a subject country like India.

HEROES, HERO-WORSHIP AND THE HEROIC IN HISTORY: CARLYLE, EDITED BY G. WHERRY. (THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 2s.

The introduction of the eminent masters of English prose to the students of Secondary and High Schools is rendered possible only by handy editions of particular parts of their works, like the one under review. And the Cambridge University Press has been earning the gratitude of that class of readers by several publications of the kind. Mr. Wherry's volume can be safely placed in the hands of young readers, though we have to confess the introduction is not particularly

valuable. Neither as a biographical study of Carlyle, nor as a critical analysis of the brilliant series of lectures on *Heroes* does it rise to the dignity of a literary piece.

BROWNING: POEMS. (1835—1864). W. T. YOUNG. (THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 2s. 6d.

The prolonged period of complaint against the alleged obscurity of Browning's verse has now happily disappeared and even Universities have not hesitated to prescribe his poems for examinations. Quite a useful edition for the study of Browning's poems is Mr. Young's Selection which has been done with very fine taste and discrimination. As far as the elementary student of literature is concerned the most valuable part of Browning's poetical work is comprised within this period of about thirty years and the limitation has not therefore in any way interfered with its usefulness.

It has very rarely been our privilege to come across such a clear exposition of Browning's poetic work and genius as the one presented by Mr. Young. The sympathetic and illuminating analysis of Browning's choice of subject, under the heads of *Nature, the Arts and Love* affords striking testimony to the editor's intimate appreciation of the poet's work. The excellence and comprehensiveness of the criticism have not been attained at any sacrifice of simplicity and clearness.

It would be absurd to demand an absolute adherence to all our individual idiosyncracies of taste in the matter of the selection of pieces but the following extracts from the list will demonstrate the wisdom of the choice from Browning's poems of the period: *Pippa Passes; The Lost Leader; Home-thoughts from Abroad; Home-thoughts from the Sea; Incident of the French Camp; The Pied Piper of Hamelton; A Grammarian's Funeral; Fra Lippo Lippi; Rabbi Ben Ezra; Caliban upon Setebos, &c.*

LYRICAL FORMS IN ENGLISH, BY NORMAN HEPPLE. (THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 3s. net.

Nothing can be more baneful to the student of literature, in his task of perceiving poetic beauty, than the scoffing attitude which would look down upon the *technique* of verse. It is not merely that the study of poetry cannot be complete without an appreciation of the forms of verse, but *form* and *spirit* are more intimately related to each other than is ordinarily recog-

nised. The peculiar lyric form very often determines the nature and magnitude of the poetic feeling and the choice of the vehicle has always been rightly based on some fundamental, though not clearly perceived principles of beauty. We are aware of the fact that metre has sometimes been absolutely ignored as any essential part of poetry. But the curious hybrid known as *Prose-poetry* has ceased to charm our critics and there is now a proper appreciation of the dependence of poetry on verse. It can even be maintained that metre has often served to inspire some of the highest aspects of poetry. 'I have never before,' writes Schiller to Goethe, 'been so palpably convinced as in my present occupation'—he was turning a prose piece into verse—'how closely in poetry, substance and form are connected. Since I have begun to transform my prosaic language into a poetic rhythmical one, I find myself under a totally different jurisdiction; even many motives which in the prosaic execution seemed to be perfectly in place, I can no longer use; they were merely good for the common domestic understanding, whose organ prose seems to be; but verse absolutely demands reference to the imagination: and thus I was obliged to become poetical in many of my motives.'

Mr. Hepple's volume draws attention to this aspect of literary study and we cannot be sufficiently thankful to him, for the admirable guidance he has afforded to the student. We have long regretted the absence of a book dealing with the principles of lyric forms in English Poetry and a study of their use in various periods in the History of English Literature and we are delighted to see this publication of the Cambridge University Press.

The Introduction deals with the essential characteristics of the Lyric, its Music, Subjectivity and Unity, and the parts are devoted to the *Song-Lyric, The Sonnet, The Ode, The Idyll, and The Elegy*. Each section is prefaced by a valuable study of the particular lyric form. Our only complaint is that the studies might have been longer—the section on the Sonnet might have for instance dealt with the later developments in the hands of Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Rossetti, and Theodore Watts-Dunton. The dangers of making it a purely technical work has been avoided by an interesting anthology in each section. We hope to see the work used extensively by students preparing for examinations in our Universities.

MOLIERE'S LE MEDECIN MALGRE LUI IN TELUGU, BY V. VENCATACHALA IYER. (THE G.R.C. PRESS). 4 As.

Mr. Iyer's excellent adaptation of this famous comedy of Molière must serve to introduce the play to the Telugu-speaking population of this Presidency. The local colouring and the peculiarities of dialect have been observed with admirable faithfulness. The piece might be read for its own interest without a knowledge of the original and that is surely the highest compliment that can be paid to a translator.

"A HAND-BOOK OF MORALS," BY M. KRISHNAMACHARYAR. Re. 1.

We owe an apology to the author of this book for the delay in noticing it. It is an excellent treatise on practical ethics written in a simple style and is admirably calculated to give the teachers and pupils in High Schools a clear idea of the various virtues and of what constitutes good moral conduct and character, about which there seems to be considerable vagueness in the minds of many of those who talk so glibly of moral and religious instruction. Teachers desirous of introducing the subject in schools would do well to adopt it as the basis on which they can safely proceed. It, however, in our opinion, requires supplementing in actual teaching inasmuch as however opposite the illustrations taken from ancient Hindu literature may be, they do not impress the imagination when taken out of their setting in the original narratives and given in the form of short anecdotes. Besides, the characters taken from ancient Indian literature have an unreality about them being either mythological or clothed in hyperbolic or allegorical language, or on account of the inherent improbabilities of many of the incidents related in connexion with them. Moral training would be more efficient if the illustrations should be taken from real life than if they were taken from fairy tales or mythology.

In the moral training of Indian students greater importance should be attached to what may be called the active and manly virtues such as bravery, heroism, &c., than to the passive ones like patience, obedience, resignation, humility and others which the author calls spiritual virtues. Indian character needs strengthening in those qualities which constitute what Nietzsche calls the 'overman' as well as in those which impel to acts of heroism at the risk of one's own

life, self-sacrifice in pursuance of a cause, courage of one's convictions, &c.

But we are not justified in taking exception to a good book because it does not contain all that we want. We have no hesitation in recommending Mr. Krishnamacharyar's Hand-book to all those who are in search of a school text-book on morals as distinguished from religion and who want to steer clear of the rock of religious controversy in schools.

THE HISTORICAL GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH PARISH CHURCH, BY A. HAMILTON THOMPSON, M.A., F.S.A. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 1911.

This little manual is one of the first of "The Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature" to make its appearance. If the character and style of this one is a fair index of what may be expected in the others the series will form a valuable collection of monographs. The range of subjects in the series is wide, the mechanical get-up is neat and durable, while the price is extremely low.

The book opens with a chapter of twenty-two pages on the historical development of the Parish Church in which are set forth clearly the conditions under which the churches grew up, and the customs prevailing with reference to their maintenance. Chapter two is given to a discussion of the chantry chapels which from time to time were added in many of the Parish churches. Chapter three takes up the history of the tower, the porch, and the chancel, while the last chapter is devoted to a discussion of the furniture of the medieval churches. The general style is clear and concise yet nothing important is sacrificed for brevity. The author speaks with a force born of a close familiarity with the subject.

To anyone interested in architecture and particularly in church or religious architecture the volume will prove very useful.

1. ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF THE 'SRI BHAGAVAD GITA.' 6 As. 2. ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF A FEW PRACTICAL LESSONS IN 'SUKRANTY.' 3 As.

These are two handy and valuable booklets written by Mr. S. Ramaswamy Iyengar, Sub-Registrar, Hoskote, Bangalore District. The former is an English Epitome of our Sri Bhagavad Gita. The author's object in writing this

epitome is to help the young men of very meagre education to understand the gist of the Gita in as simple and easy English as possible. The latter contains over 300 practical lessons of good advice and may rightly be termed a hand-book of morals. We heartily recommend both these books to the reading public, and particularly to youngsters.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Report on Public Instruction, Madras Presidency.—The following G. O. has been issued on the Report of Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency for 1910-11.

The report has been much curtailed with reference to the recent orders of the Government of India directing that, while the quinquennial reports should contain information of a more elaborate character, the intervening annual reports should be shortened so as to consist of a mere general summary of the salient features of the year. The chief events of the year are summarised in paragraph 2 of the report.

General Statistics.—Judged by numerical statistics, the period under report was one of advance, the total number of institutions and their strength having increased. The increase was confined to public institutions, elementary schools having mainly contributed to it. The fall under private institutions is not of importance considering their ephemeral character. While it is very gratifying to learn that the year was marked by great improvement in meeting the requirements of secondary education, and that the progress of elementary education was shown by the increase in the number of pupils, both girls and boys, it is only too clear from a study of the table appended to the report how much requires to be done. There is, however, every hope that during the next quinquennium the advance in all directions will be rapid.

Expenditure.—Excluding, for purposes of comparison, the expenditure on technical and industrial schools which were transferred to the control of the Educational Department in the latter part of the year, the total expenditure for the year, direct and indirect, from provincial, local and municipal funds and from fees and other sources was the largest on record amounting to 125.68 lakhs against 119.39 the previous year. Provincial funds contributed 44.48 lakhs or 3.18 lakhs more, including contributions to local boards and municipal councils to the extent of Rs. 1,91,358 and Rs. 8,710, respectively; local and municipal funds spent about the same as in the previous year, while fees and other sources, including subscriptions, income from endowments and the like contributed about 69 lakhs or some three lakhs more, thus indicating that private agencies are striving to spend more money from their own

funds on the maintenance of their schools. Of the expenditure of 125.68 lakhs, 90.14 lakhs represented direct outlay, i. e. expenditure on colleges and schools, the balance (35.54 lakhs) being classed as "indirect" that is, expenditure on the University, direction, inspection, buildings, furniture, scholarships and other miscellaneous items, including 9.86 lakhs on hostels. The expenditure from public funds on secondary and elementary schools was 29.91 lakhs, all but 4.3 lakhs appertaining to elementary institutions. A sum of 18.66 lakhs or 1.14 lakhs more than in the previous year was spent from public funds on grants-in-aid to institutions under private management, the increase being borne wholly by provincial funds. As in the previous year, the average annual cost of education per head of population was five annas, public funds providing As. 2.3.

Secondary and Elementary Schools.—In consequence of the conversion of weak incomplete secondary schools into complete elementary schools, secondary schools declined both in number and strength, while partly for the same reason and partly owing to the opening of fifth standards elementary schools of the higher grade increased in both respects. Elementary schools with standards up to the fourth declined in number though they had an accession to their strength. The increase in the number and strength of the higher and lower elementary schools as a whole is satisfactory. The Director of Public Instruction's proposals for removing the causes which retard the development of schools with standards higher than the third are under the consideration of Government.

Special Schools.—The scheme for the re-organization of the training schools for mistresses has been sanctioned and is being brought into force, while a corresponding scheme for the improvement of training schools for masters will be placed before the Government of India at an early date. The Department of Industries was transferred to the control of the Director of Public Instruction with effect from the 1st January 1911 and it was decided to strengthen it by the addition of three experts for dyeing, leather work and weaving. The dyeing expert joined just before the close of the year and his report on the dyeing industry of this Presidency is now under the consideration of Government. The leather expert arrived only in September last, while the post of weaving expert has been vacant since its creation, no suitable candidate being available.

Female Education.—The education of girls showed a marked advance, there having been 10,000 more under instruction at the close of the year. The reorganization of the training schools for mistresses already referred to will, it is hoped accelerate the rate of progress. A ten years' programme for the development of female education has been called for by the Government of India and the Director of Public Instruction's proposals on the subject are awaited.

European Education.—The absence of a training school for European teachers in this Presidency and the consequent paucity of qualified teachers continue to stand in the way of the progress of the education of this class of the community. It is a matter for regret that no European teacher from this Presidency has availed himself of the training afforded in the training school at Sanavar. The suggestion of the Inspector of European and Training Schools that a modified form of secondary school-leaving certificate scheme may be introduced into European schools should be examined by the Director of Public Instruction separately.

Muhammadan Education.—The education of this class made some progress. The number of public elementary schools chiefly intended for Muhammadans increased from 1,018 to 1,139 and the number of pupils in these schools rose from 57,311 to 64,528. There is, however, little indication of any marked advance.

Panchama Education.—There was a small increase in the number of Panchama boys being educated in public elementary schools and the total expenditure on Panchama education showed some advance. Here also, however, it is clear that the progress made is very slow.

The thanks of Government are due to the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne, the Hon'ble Mr. Stone and the other officers of the department for their work during the year. The most satisfactory features of the year seem to be the improvement in the teaching and equipment of secondary schools and the general progress made in the provision for elementary education. The improvement of the training institutions both for masters and mistresses and the greater encouragement of local boards and municipalities in the matter of primary education are matters of urgent importance.

The Christian College Day.—The Christian College Day was celebrated on the 30th ultimo, when the old students of the College were assembled in the College hall and spent the day in *Conversations*. The public meeting was held in the evening at the Anderson Hall, with the Hon'ble Dewan Bahadur L. A. Govindaraghava Iyer in the chair. The proceedings began with the singing of the College Day Ode. Letters and telegrams were then read by the Secretary, Dr. Vijayaraghavalu, from a large number of past students including Dr. Miller.

The Chairman proposed the toast of the King and it was honoured by the singing of the National Anthem. He then proposed the toast "The success and prosperity to the Madras Christian College" to which Rev. Mr. Pittendrigh responded in an interesting speech. The Hon. Mr. Justice Sundara Iyer then proposed the toast of Dr. Miller. In doing so, he said that Dr. Miller was the embodiment of everything that went to make a strong, kind and affectionate teacher, not to the alumni of the Christian College alone, for Dr. Miller had

always demanded the respectful veneration of all who had ever devoted any thought to the work of education in this country and to the relations that should subsist between a teacher and his pupils. No one was a greater admirer of Dr. Miller than the late Mr. V. Krishnasami Iyer about whose lamented death he dared not trust himself to speak. Their friend Mr. T. Ramakrishna Pillay had the rare privilege to meet Dr. Miller face to face and to touch his kindly hand. They had learnt from him how full of India, how full of Madras and his pupils Dr. Miller's heart always was. He (the speaker) never could realize that Dr. Miller was not always present with them here in this country and in that College who could ever forget the kindly face and the magnetic eyes that at once captured all who had the good fortune to come under his influence? They were all assured that Dr. Miller's heart and soul ever turned towards this country and to the progress that it made in the great work of education. The fact that the full power of vision was no longer vouchsafed to their *guru* was a constant source of poignant grief but they all rejoiced that in other respects Dr. Miller's health was fairly good and that he was still able to do a great deal of work for the benefit of those who were in Scotland and those here. Dr. Miller would be a constant inspiration to those whose taste was to undertake the guidance of the youth of this country and he was the ideal of a teacher to the millions of people here. Dr. Miller's annual greetings were always looked forward to with keen anticipation and pleasure and some trepidation. Dr. Miller was not the soft-hearted friend who thought that in writing to those at a distance nothing but praise should be spoken, but whatever admonition might be contained in his message would be received with the respect and attention which they had always paid to anything coming from Dr. Miller.

A message from Dr. Miller which had been sent specially for the occasion was read by Mr. T. Ramakrishna Pillai.

Mr. V. Rama Doss then proposed the toast of young friends, to which Mr. S. Kamath responded.

With the usual vote of thanks to the Chair, the meeting terminated.

The American College, Madura.—The twenty-ninth anniversary of the American College, Madura, was celebrated in the College Hall at Tallakulam recently, with Mr. Marsden of the Technical Institute in the chair. An interesting programme of various items consisting of recitation, songs, etc., was gone through. The Principal's Report indicated that it was a year of advance in every department and in almost every respect with the college which gave them ample ground for encouragement in the future. It was also gratifying to note that they had recently received a gift from America of 80,000 dollars (Rs. 90,000) for a new Science Hall and equipment for the college which it was hoped would make possible the realization of their long cherished desire to establish a course in Science in order to meet the growing

need for such an instruction in this country and also to raise the college to the status of a first-grade institution. A Prize competition in Declamation was held in which four students of the High School took part all of whom acquitted themselves well to the high appreciation of all those present. The college students staged some select scenes from Shakespeare's King Henry V which evoked applause and laughter among the audience.

Then came the chief function of the day, viz., the distribution of prizes to the successful students which was performed by Miss Swift of the American Mission.

The Chairman then made an interesting speech in which among other things he dilated on the importance and necessity for higher ethical education upon which the scientific education was built, as the basis for technical education for which there had of late grown a large demand in this country. He also pointed out that such instruction should be imparted to men of practical skill as theoretical knowledge without practical skill or practical skill without intelligent training proved a failure in most cases.

Referring to the work of the college he said that there was purely one of unselfish motive and he strongly exhorted to the students of the institution to avail themselves of the opportunities which presented themselves to them while at college and to firmly grasp the principles of unselfishness, so that they might in their after years turn out useful citizens doing a helpful service to the society and humanity at large.

The singing of the National Anthem brought the proceedings to a successful close.

A High School at Jammalamadugu.—The Hon'ble Mr. P. Kesava Pillai laid the foundation stone of the Campbell High School at Jammalamadugu on the 6th instant, in the course of his speech, he said:—

The success of the Missionaries in the educational field have been incentive both to the Government and the various communities and the Indian cannot be sufficiently beholden to the Christian sympathy and endeavour.

In this Presidency also the Missionaries like Anderson, Dr. Miller and many others have found a niche in the Hindu heart. They have done much to bring the light of Western literature and enrich our thoughts and broaden our outlook.

The education of the higher classes and the masses is now engrossing the best minds of the country. Mr. Gokhale is covering himself with glory. Bitter controversies are the order of the day over the denominational Universities. Mr. Justice Sankara Nair's letter to Mrs. Besant has stirred up all the subsided turbid waters of narrowness and bigotry. Few could share in the apprehensions of the learned Judge who commands our sincere and loving admiration and respect, when he says

that Hinduism may promote disloyalty, but the way in which he is assailed by some of his critics may lead one to suspect that the denominational Universities may tend to further disharmony and disunion, embitter the existing unhappy caste prejudices and rouse the smouldering resentment.

BOMBAY.

Vernacular Library: Bombay Government's Order.—The following Press Note has been issued:—

The Governor-in-Council has had under consideration the question of the registration of vernacular libraries and the official support that may suitably be accorded to such libraries when registered. He is pleased to issue the following general instructions in the matter:—

(i) The register of approved libraries will continue to be kept by the Director of Public Instruction who is given full discretion to grant or refuse registration; a 'registered' library means a library entered in the Director of Public Instruction's register.

(ii) No library will be registered the management of which does not agree to conduct it in accordance with the rules promulgated in Government Resolution No. 2037, dated the 14th October, 1909.

(iii) On registration a library will be accorded the following official support:—

(a) free supply of departmental publications, of books purchased by Government which are considered suitable for distribution in this way, and of annual reports issued by Government;

(b) free supply of press notes in English and the appropriate vernacular; and

(c) free supply of Part I of the *Bombay Government Gazette*.

(iv) no Government servant shall join, or remain a member of, any library which has not been registered.

(v) no grants from State funds shall be paid to libraries which have not been registered; and the attention of each municipality and local board concerned should be drawn to the impropriety of according any support, financial or other, to such libraries;

(vi) these instructions apply only to libraries which take in vernacular newspapers and literature.

2. Two lists are appended:—

List A—registered libraries which have agreed to abide by the rules of the 14th October 1909;

List B—libraries already registered which refuse to abide by these rules. The libraries in list B should now be struck off the register, and any Government servant who is a member of any of them should forthwith resign his membership.

3. List A is believed to be incomplete. Each Collector should now send to the Director of Public Instruction a list of all public libraries in his district which do not appear in lists A and B, noting whether they have been registered or not; and a recommends each for registration or whether he recommends each for registration or not; and a similar list should be sent by the Commissioner of Police for the City of Bombay. When the general list of registered libraries is complete, the Director of Public Instruction should publish it in the *Bombay Government Gazette*; future additions to, or withdrawals from, the list should also be notified in the same way. Copies of the notifications should be supplied to each Department of the Secretariat.

4. The libraries in list A should be added to the distribution lists of the papers specified in paragraph (iii) above, if they do not already appear in them; and the libraries in list B should be struck off such lists.

5. Government grants that have already been paid to libraries on condition of management in accordance with the rules of the Educational Department should be recovered from any library refusing to accept condition (ii) in paragraph 1 above. The Director of Public Instruction should take steps in consultation with the Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, for the recovery of the grant of Rs. 500 made to the Vengurla Native General Library, if the amount has not been recovered already.

6. Registration is open to libraries in Native States; and Political officers should encourage libraries in Native States to apply for registration. It is left to Political officers to decide, in each case, whether their subordinates may be members of libraries in Native States.

Practical Commercial Education.—We have much pleasure in drawing the attention of our readers to Prof. Davar's College of Commerce, Commercial Education on the most practical lines has been the standing need of India, a need which this College has been supplying for the past twelve years of its existence. It has turned out some thousands of young men who are scattered all over India, Ceylon, Burma, some of them having joined firms and Companies as far away as China, Japan and England. Prof. Davar has proved what a wide field Practical Commercial Education under a highly qualified expert opens to young men of this country. He is the only Indian Educationist who received his Commercial Education in Europe, and passed the Highest Tests there. All along, his special care has been to impart the most practical education and has not succumbed to the temptation of allowing his students to waste their energy on purely academic subjects. We are pleased to say that since the visit of Prof. Davar to Madras in 1906 when he delivered many lectures to crowded audiences many of our young men have profited by his coaching. The examination results have been

the best in India and Prof. Davar has been repeatedly complimented on them by the London Chamber of Commerce and other bodies. The College, as we have said before, is recognised for scholarships by many of our enlightened Princes. In these days when Legal and Medical professions are overcrowded, a Commercial course in Professor Davar's College would undoubtedly be the most advantageous to our countrymen and for our country's future nothing could be more desirable.

The Bombay Victoria Technical Institute.—

The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, is perhaps the foremost among the institutions imparting technical education in India. The courses of instruction there are mechanical, textile and electrical engineering, technical chemistry, sheet metal working, enamelling and motor mechanics. In the mechanical engineering course the student has to pass through six sections of work—pattern-making, foundry, smithy, machine tools, lathes and fitting. The course in textile manufactures consists of lectures on spinning and weaving, and practical work in the departments of ginning, opening and scutching, carding and drawing, framing, ring-spinning, mule spinning and reeling, bundling and plain and fancy weaving. The examinations include actual work on the machine, re-setting of motions, repairs, erection, etc., and are conducted by qualified outside examiners. The sub-departments of sizing, bleaching and finishing have now been introduced in connection with the textile department, 'which, while increasing the scope of usefulness, is a development calculated to be of considerable benefit to the students of this section.' The course of study in electrical engineering commences with the investigation of the electric circuit both theoretically and practically, the students all experimentally proving the various laws concerned. The measurement of electrical current, pressure, resistance and power are next dealt with, and are followed by a study of the principles of construction, methods of driving, testing and use of dynamos. Exercises in winding, the various applications of the current, and arc and incandescent lamps and machines using electric current as motors and transformers are next studied. The course in metal working is of one year's duration only and consists of practice in stamping, drawing and punching and circle cutting, burnishing and polishing. The course in enamelling consists of lectures and practical work in stencil cutting, and the preparation, mixing, grinding, applying and fusing of enamels on iron plates and hollow-ware stamped in the metal working department. The course in chemistry is intended to give the first year student a sufficient acquaintance with chemical phenomena to enable him to follow up the specialisation of chemical work in the second year to the particular requirements of the textile and other departments of the Institute, while in the third and fourth years the student will have sufficient knowledge imparted to him of qualitative and quantitative analysis to fit him to under-

take analytical work specially as applied to textile manufacture and to the testing and examination of oils, fuels and flue gases. The motor mechanics section provides for the instruction of two classes, viz., those actually employed in motor-car work, and those desirous of qualifying for such employment.

The total number of students in the Institute last year was 345, of whom 257 were Hindus. 'There are indications that a better class are now taking up technical education.' The students belong to all parts of the country, Bengal, Madras, the Central Provinces and Mysore being well represented. Over 60 per cent. of the students in attendance belong to Presidencies other than Bombay. In order to help the staff which, although strengthened by the appointment of competent head assistants in each of the departments, needed further help, as well as with a view to meet the demand for trained technical teachers 'which the growth of small technical schools in the country has created and which is expected steadily to increase,' the Board of the Institute instituted three years ago a small number of fellowships, each of the value of Rs. 50 per mensem. Seven of these were awarded last year. 'The Fellows assist the teachers in the work of teaching in the classes, and add to their previous practical training, by working in the engine-room and boiler-house.' The Institute had at the close of the last official year Rs. 9,26,873.4-7 to the credit of its capital account, nearly two lakhs as scholarships and prizes fund, and about Rs. 10,000 in its revenue account. In addition the Government of Bombay made a grant of Rs. 45,000, the Corporation of Bombay Rs. 20,000, and the Millowners' Association of Rs. 2,500. The fee income amounted to nearly Rs. 19,000. The expenditure of the year was about Rs. 1,18,000. In concluding his report Mr. Dinsha Wacha, the honorary secretary, says 'that the field for development and extension is wide and that although the expenditure is regulated on the principle of economy without loss of efficiency, owing to the almost non-elastic nature of the income it is not possible to meet the growing demands on the resources of the Institute without extraneous assistance.' And Mr. Wacha appeals to the Government for an increase of their recurring grant in order to enable the institute to show increased efficiency and usefulness.

Educational Conference.—The third educational conference in connection with the Theosophical Convention was held in the Indian Section Hall.

Miss F. Arundale delivered a short speech on the education of the depressed classes. The slum population in the great cities of the West was the despair of political reform. The depressed classes, the untouchables among the Hindus, had to do the most degrading work. First they ought to be taught to keep their bodies clean, to cultivate love for beauty, and that should be followed by moral education through stories from the scriptures. When their

surroundings would be good, then only they would be fit to be taken into the body politic of the Hindus.

Professor P. K. Telang dwelt at length on the methods of teaching history, and remarked that a teacher ought to look upon history not only from the point of view of battles and kings and acts, but in it he ought to be able to trace the evolution of nations and of the world. He also observed that to look upon history as a record of merely political events was to make too much of one part of human life, and absolutely ignore others equally important. He was followed by Baroness Asbeck who spoke on the educational movement in France, where, she said, two sorts of education existed. The first was the Roman Catholic dogmatic education and the second was materialistic education which tried to destroy religion. An attempt had been begun by the Theosophical Society in France to educate children along religious lines and the number of students was rapidly rising, and she hoped that in the near future they would have to start a college for the education of children along religious and moral lines. Rai Iqbal Narain Gurtu spoke on the work of the Hindu University.

Mrs. Besant in her concluding remarks observed that most of the depressed classes were untouchables, because of their living unclean lives, eating unclean food and using intoxicants. The duty of the society towards them lay in teaching them to live cleanly. She recommended a change of sewage arrangements so that the scavenger class might be utterly abolished. If they themselves were not ready to do that most degrading work, they had no right to sacrifice thousands of their brethren to remain filthy in order to make them comfortable. Referring to denominational universities she said that with the spread of education the gulf between the Hindus and Mahomedans would be bridged. She looked forward with the warmest hope to the future of the Hindu University. The obtaining of that boon then depended only on the collection of funds. If the funds were not collected the fault should lie not with the Government but with the Hindus. In conclusion she exhorted the theosophists to work for the Hindu University with as much self-sacrifice and zeal as they had worked for the last 13 years for the Central Hindu College.

TRAVANCORE.

The Retiring D. P. I. in Travancore.—A meeting of the friends, students and admirers of Dr. A. O. Mitchell, the retiring Director of Public Instruction in Travancore, was held in the College Hall at 5 p.m. on Wednesday, the 10th instant. Dr. N. Kunjen Pillai who presided over the meeting, was supported on the dais by Dewan Bahadur P. Raja-gopalachari, C.I.E., the Dewan. Among those present were a few of the officers of Government and Inspectors, Lecturers, Schoolmasters, Clerks and others diversely connected with the Education

Directorate. There was a very strong feeling of disapprobation current abroad and there were few among the audience who could be taken to represent the public, while that it was not popular even among the small clientele addressed by the promoters of the movement, was made manifest by the conspicuous absence of several of the Professors, European and Indian. It was not perhaps consistent with official decorum—being manifestly in violation of the spirit and letter of the standing orders of Government—that this meeting should have been convened at a time when Dr. Mitchell was still in office and was definitely known to continue at the head of the Department for over a month or more. And it is unfortunate that a meeting against which there is a very strong current of public feeling, should have been invested with a public character more so, that such a gathering should have been given the dignity of official sanction by the presence of the head of the Administration and his suite. We do not know whether the Dewan was inspired by a feeling of comradeship for his departing Educational mentor.

After a lengthy speech from the Chair, admiring the hero of the evening propositions were moved, seconded and supported purporting to embody the sense of the meeting, to commemorate in a suitable manner the services rendered by Dr. Mitchell to the cause of education in Travancore. The memorial is to take the form of the presentation of a farewell address and a *souvenir* to Dr. Mitchell, an oil painting of the likeness of Dr. Mitchell to the College, and the institution of a scholarship or prize with the balance of the proceeds, the necessary arrangements for the same being embodied in two more resolutions. The Chairman then read a list of subscriptions which the promoters of the movement had been able to procure by gentle means of persuasion, in the course of the past few months. These along with other donations promised at the moment came up to something above Rs. 4,000, of which about Rs. 2,900 was collected, including Rs. 500, from H. H. The Maharajah and Rs. 300 from the Dewan. We can safely hope the list to swell in the course of the next month or more during which Dr. Mitchell will continue to preside at the helm of the Education Department!

We have known Dr. Mitchell for the past 22 years as Professor, Principal and Education Minister, and nothing admirable in his work has been brought to the notice of the public till now, which would justify such a consummation to his career. The subjects he presided over as professor, are still in a deplorable condition of strength, the College he administered has been the aversion of students and the Department he guided is shoaled in quicksands.

The popular representatives at the last S. M. P. Assembly in a memorial which they prepared to be submitted to Government but which for reasons of policy was not presented—the wisdom of which was confirmed by the Government Proceedings on the question recently published—had among other

things prayed not to grant to Dr. Mitchell the extension he was known to have craved for and in appointing a successor to choose one "more efficient, broadminded, sympathetic and kind hearted." The virtues of Dr. Mitchell now extolled were seriously doubted by them till a few months ago since when their names have been made prominent by figuring in appointments, promotions and preferments in the department. And it is generally known that several of these are aspirants to certain high offices which the Director will create before he leaves the service. Dr. Mitchell whose money, we were told two days ago, flowed to help his peon out of distress and one or two of the relatives of his dependants, from discontinuing their collegiate education, has been instrumental in the abolition of all studentships in the College. He volunteered his services as Director of the Government Observatory for which he has latterly received a huge bonus from Government. He has raised the cry of disappointment in the homesteads of hundreds of poor schoolmasters by cutting off their salaries and reducing pensions by connoting part of their pay into "personal allowance." Would that Dr. Mitchell during the short time he has before him endeavour to rectify some at least of the blunders, errors.—*The Hindu.*

Foreign Notes.

Board of Education Conference.—As the result of a Conference at the Board of Education a scheme was recently submitted to the L.C.C. Education Committee for the reduction of the class rooms to maxim of 40 in senior and 48 in infants departments, the scheme to be completed in an agreed period of years—suggested as 15—and that the Council should meanwhile be exempt from any new regulation reducing the size of classes below the maximum of 60 allowed under the present regulations. The "sites and buildings" programme during the proposed period of 15 years will involve an estimated expenditure of about £4,500,000 on new schools, and the enlargement and structural improvement of existing schools. Of this amount (it is reported) about £2,500,000 may be regarded as expenditure which the Council will incur in any case as it will be needed for the provision of new school accommodation which the Council has already decided to provide, or which will be required to meet the future increase of population in certain districts, and for the modernising of the old schools which have still to be dealt with. The remaining £2,000,000 will be required for the provision of the additional accommodation needed in connection with the scheme now under consideration for the reduction of the size of the classes. The report of the committee adds that it is possible that they may find it desirable to make some re-adjustment in the method on which the amount of accommodation required is calculated, and this may result in an increase in the expenditure up to £500,000.

University of Edinburgh.—Edinburgh has been devoting great interest in matters relating to afforestation. A few years ago, the University instituted a degree of B. Sc. in forestry and appointed lecturers to deliver special courses of lectures on forestry and connected subjects. Last year attention has been bestowed by the University, in collaboration with the Edinburgh and East of Scotland Agricultural College, on (1) a forest garden, including an area for experimental formation of woods; (2) extension of the present museum and the provision of laboratories, and (3) additional lecturers on the University staff. Recently, says an account in the *Times*, the Development Commissioners have come to the help of the University. A sum of money has been promised annually for a period of years for the rent and upkeep of a forest garden and an area of experimental plantations. The Development Commissioners, recognising the need of additional room for the extension of the Forestry Department within the University, its museums, and laboratories have granted the University a sum of £4,500 towards the erection of a new forestry building, stipulating that the University should provide a similar sum. The University court have undertaken to provide this amount or a larger one should it be required. The Development Commissioners have also made a grant of £2,000 towards the equipment of the museums and laboratories, the money to be spent during the next five years. The Commissioners have promised to consider a further provision for this object should such be required at the end of the period. It is expected that the erection of the buildings will be begun in the coming year. The instruction in forestry proper for the degree will remain in the University, and, with the object of supplementing the staff of the departments, the Development Commissioners have granted a sum of £2,500 (£500 a year for five years) as a provision for the salaries of an additional lecturer and for an assistant in the Forestry Department.

Education in Japan.—A perusal of the thirty-sixth annual report of the Minister of State for Education shows that the Japanese are not only making the details of their educational administration very complete, but also that they take very wide and liberal views of the aims and objects of education from the national point of view. During the period under review the development which has been going on for years has been continued with all its former zeal and success. The Emperor issued a rescript on the realisation of the national destiny, pointing out the duties of individuals, officials and the public; and the Minister of Education not only issued an instruction relating to the observance of this gracious command to the directors of Government schools and local governors, but also instructed them to lay it to heart. Those engaged in education, in particular, were cautioned to keep always in mind and put into practice this command, together with another command on education, which as the basis of morality, to fulfil their duties of instruction and

discipline, and to aim at the formation of a healthy, vigorous nation, as well as the realisation of the national principle of uniting the whole nation into one, manifesting at the same time the glories of the fundamental character of the empire. It is this national aim in education which is the striking characteristic of all that is done in Japan, and is in marked contrast to the individualistic aims in Western countries. The arrangements for elementary, secondary and higher education are being made more and more complete, while the number of schools for special purposes is now very large. These are established for the purpose of training those who intend to engage in productive labour, such as agriculture, manufactures and commerce. The total number of such schools is 5,167, but, of course, a large proportion of these are small and are suited to the requirements of the localities in which they are situated. Some of them are, however,

very complete, and compare favourably with similar institutions in Europe. The crown of Japanese education is the Imperial universities. That of Tokyo is the oldest and most complete, and consists of the six colleges of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture and a university hall. In the year under review, it had 814 professors and instructors, 5,411 students and 1,154 graduates. The Imperial University of Kyoto consists of a university hall and colleges of law, medicine, literature, science, and engineering. The number of professors and instructors was 178, of students 1,412, and of graduates 409. What may be called the auxiliary institutions connected with education are very numerous, and a perusal of the report lets us into the real secret of the success of the Japanese in almost everything to which they put their hands.—*Engineering.*

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The Educational Review.

In some quarters a spirit of opposition is being manifested towards the establishment of the Hindu University of Benares.

There has been much unseemly and ironical writing about what will be taught in this University in the way of religion. We may not all agree with the promoters of this University in thinking that character can be built up by making religion and ethics an integral part of education. But all the same we can all agree with the other objects of this proposed University. As formulated, these objects are (1) to promote the study of the Hindu Shastras and of Sanskrit literature generally as a means of preserving and popularising for the benefit of the Hindus in particular and of the world at large in general, the best thought and culture of the Hindus, and all that was good and great in the ancient civilization of India; (2) to promote learning and research generally in arts and science in all branches; (3) to advance and diffuse such scientific, technical and professional knowledge, combined with the necessary practical training, as is best calculated to help in promoting indigenous industries and in developing the material resources of the country. With these objects no one need quarrel. That in our country there is scope for any number of teaching Universities no one dare deny. If our country is to rise in the estimation of the world, it can be effected only by the achievements of Universities entirely manned by Indians. It is not imposing buildings and large endowments that give prestige to a University;

it is the professors who can inspire students to do their best and to bring out the best that is in them. Why have the German University cities become the Mecca of scholars from all parts of the civilized world? It is not because there are imposing buildings or material equipment, but there are men who can inspire them with the spirit of research, who are great authorities, who are actively engaged in investigation and in making contributions to the world's advancing knowledge. If the promoters of the scheme for the Hindu University of Benares have this ideal before them and succeed in realising it, they will have accomplished a glorious feat, which would in a great measure raise the prestige of the country. Though we believe that the promoters of the University have committed a glaring mistake in coupling religious teaching with University education, yet we trust that any narrowness and exclusiveness consequent upon such teaching will be corrected by the scientific spirit which must naturally pervade the atmosphere of a University life.

In our last issue we commented upon the great boon conferred on India by the allotment of fifty lacs of rupees annually for the education of the masses in India. Sympathy with the progress of India in all directions is apparently the marked trait of the present Emperor of India. Consider the noble and inspiring reply he gave to the deputation of the Calcutta University which waited on him on the 6th instant. He said: "It is to the Universities of India that I look to assist in that gradual union and fusion of culture and aspiration of Europeans and Indians, on which the future well-being

of India greatly depends. I have watched with sympathy the measures that from time to time have been taken by the Universities of India to extend their scope and raise their standards of instruction. Much remains to be done. No University is nowadays complete, unless it is equipped with teaching faculties in all the more important branches of the sciences and the arts and unless it provides ample opportunities for research. You have to conserve the ancient learning and simultaneously to put forward Western science. You have also to build up character without which learning is of little value.....Let your ideals be high and your efforts to pursue them unceasing.....Six years ago I sent from England to India a message of sympathy. To-day in India I give to India the watch-word of "hope." On every side I trace the signs and stirrings of new life. Education has given you hope, and through better and higher education you will build up higher and better hopes. The announcement was made at Delhi by my command that my Governor-General in Council will allot large sums for the expansion and improvement of education in India. It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a net-work of schools and colleges, from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens able to hold their own in industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life and it is my wish too that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge with all that follows in its train, a higher level of thought, of comfort and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart." These wise words of our King-Emperor give an indication of the change of

attitude of the powers that be towards higher education. A few years ago one of the Viceroys viewed with suspicion the spread of higher education in India. If the aim of the British Government in India is to befit the Indian peoples for Self-Government, as we are often told, nothing can effect this consummation so devoutly wished by all enlightened Indians so easily as the spread of education. Mass education will render it easy for the Press to enlighten them on various topics, and higher education will make for the realization of the ideal of an Indian nationality which is cherished by all thoughtful Indians. He must indeed be very perverse-minded who can think that education has conferred no blessing to India. The sooner arrangements are made by the Government for a free and compulsory education all over India, the sooner will dawn the day when we may witness the fusion of the various peoples of India into a new Indian nationality.

The great publishing firm of Messrs. B. G. Teubner, Leipzig and Berlin, A Mathematical Encyclopædia. which sends out from its presses about two and a half million books yearly, recently issued the fifteenth edition of its circular on the great mathematical encyclopædia with the title: "Encyklopædie der Mathematischen Wissenschaften with Einschluss ihrer Anwendungen." The gigantic character of this work may be inferred from the fact that the published parts of the German edition (there is also a French edition) would fill more than a score of volumes of four hundred pages each, although a large part of the field has not yet been covered. The object of this great work of reference is to give as completely as possible the fully established mathematical results and to exhibit

education, and not a one-sided education of the intellect alone, or the heart alone, or the body alone or the hand alone.

It was a remarkable address that Prof. John Perry, F.R.S., delivered at the opening of the new engineering laboratories of the Municipal Technical Institute, Belfast. The address dealt largely with various questions connected with the engineering and manufacturing trades. One of these questions is the practical training of the average boy, and Professor Perry's remarks on this are of the highest interest to teachers. All teachers would do well to reflect on them. Says Prof. Perry:

"In secondary schools and colleges, we used to teach only 5 per cent. of our students, those who were capable of abstract reasoning, and we called them the clever students. We called the others stupid until they thought themselves stupid, and we did not recognise the fact that these others were in many cases very much the cleverer. They refused to reason about things they did not understand—that they were not familiar with. And so their honest minds refused to follow their teachers in geometry and other parts of mathematics; they refused the study of what is often called natural science in schools. Yes, and in spite of the mental training which is always bragged about by Latin masters and other teachers of philology and grammar, the average boy was stupefied by all the scholastic work he did, and if it had not been for their sports, their teaching of themselves by observation and experiment out of school, we should have stupefied them for their lives.

"I have always felt that my best work was in teaching that average student whom most

teachers call stupid, but whom I regard as the most earnest, and hard-working and honest, and altogether best of all students. And now in every University, in every Polytechnic of Germany or Science College of America, there are great laboratories and in most of them the average student still has no chance. Teachers will not exercise their common sense. Why, a man can train a monkey or a dog or a bear because he studies the animal; he never studies the average boy, whose mental powers are infinitely greater: he calls him stupid." "Although we speak of our ways of teaching as "practical geometry," "practical mechanics," "practical electricity," &c., you must not get the idea that these are degraded subjects. Academic people had the names "geometry", "mechanics", &c. for subjects taught in the old way; our subjects are the old subjects taught in a new way, and it has been abundantly proved already that the new way is the only way by which the average student can learn at all; and not only this, but it is the very best for all students. Almost no student, however great he may be as a mathematician, taught in the old way, has a real knowledge of mechanics; force and momentum are always abstractions to him; mental phenomena are his only study, mere logical deductions from a few simple premises which, for all he knows, may be quite wrong.

"Academic methods of teaching mathematics have quite failed with the average student, whereas the system which is called practical mathematics has proved most successful, not only with him, but for men capable of becoming great mathematicians. The average student now gets a thoroughly good working power over what are usually

called higher mathematical methods; he can use his knowledge readily in all kinds of practical problems. It used to be that when an evening mathematics class was started in September only about one-third of the students were in attendance in December, and when May came round there might be only one or two students in the class. Now the attendance keeps up to the end of the session, and there is scarcely any subject in which the students show so much interest. Their eyes and faces are bright, they work hard, and they evidently enjoy the work. We have merely introduced some common sense into the teaching; we have approached the student's mind from another point of view than

the old academic one, from the only side on which he has ever been taught anything—the side of observation and trial. We educate his reasoning powers through concrete examples until he gets a firm grasp of abstract truths. There is really nothing new in what we are doing; it was insisted on by Milton, by Herbert Spencer, and by many another philosopher."

No wonder that Prof. Perry regards writing in fair English of a decent letter or an account of anything one has done or seen as a sufficient qualification to secure admission into the Royal College of Science of which he is one of the professors.

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No. 2.

UNIVERSITY OF BOMBAY.

THE NEW DEGREE IN COMMERCE.

AT an adjourned meeting of the Senate of the University of Bombay, held on the 27th January 1912, Mr. K. Subramani Aiyar moved his Proposition for the institution of a Bachelor of Commerce Degree. The Proposition was supported by Professor Muller of the Elphinstone College and by Mr. Prior, the Director of Public Instruction, and carried unanimously. It was a full meeting of the Senate, seventy-one members being present; and several of those that were absent had written to Mr. Subramani Aiyar signifying their support of the scheme and regretting their inability to be present at that meeting. We give Mr. Subramani Aiyar's speech *in extenso*, as it contains the history of the movement and the near prospects of a fully-developed College coming into existence. As prophesied by Mr. Subramani Aiyar in his speech, a definite offer of an endowment of two lacs and a quarter was made on the 30th January and publicly announced a few days later. His Excellency the Governor has since announced further donations towards the endowment of a University College of Commerce.

MR. K. SUBRAMANI AIYAR'S SPEECH.

I have very great pleasure in moving, as recommended by the Syndicate, the Proposition relating to the institution of a Degree in Commerce that has been entrusted to me by the Hon'ble the Vice-Chancellor.

2. I earnestly commend the Proposition to the acceptance of the Senate, and trust that the

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present attempt to open out fresh careers for our graduates will receive your hearty support. Various attempts have from time to time been made during the past 12 years by the advocates of Higher Commercial Education to enlist public sympathy and support, and care has been taken not to rush the Scheme through in advance of public opinion. This delay of over ten years in bringing up a definite scheme before the Senate has proved beneficial to the cause, as it has given us enough time to secure the whole-hearted support of the University Syndicate, the Educational Department, the European and Indian merchant princes of Bombay, as well as of Government.

3. In the Convocation speech of February 1901, the then Chancellor of our University, the late lamented Lord Northcote, pleaded for University recognition of the scientific study of Commerce, and added that "Commerce should be as thoroughly taught and honoured a study as any other of those branches of learning which an Indian University delights to honour." The First Scheme of Studies for a Degree in Commerce was drafted in 1900 in consultation with the then Chancellor, Lord Northcote, who took a keen interest in the matter and discussed and improved the details of the Scheme like an expert educationist. But before the scheme was ready for submission to the Syndicate, the appointment of Lord Curzon's Universities' Commission of 1902 was announced, and it was naturally resolved to postpone the consideration of this question till the publication of the Report of the Commission. That Commission recognized that "the study of Commercial

subjects should be fostered as far as possible both by the Universities and by the Government," but did not feel justified to recommend the adoption of any immediate steps for the purpose as there were so many other reforms that the Commissioners felt called upon to recommend as being urgent and imperative.

4. Lord Lamington, in his Convocation speech of February 1904, admitted the advisability of instituting a Degree in Commerce, but added that "the need for such specialization may be met when those who are chiefly concerned make the demand, as the Medical and the Legal professions have done in the past". The condition laid down by Lord Lamington has since been satisfied, as every important Mercantile Association in Bombay has seriously asked for the institution of a Degree in Commerce.

5. A fresh stage was reached about the end of 1908, when our present esteemed Chancellor, Sir George Clarke, arranged to bring out Professor Lees-Smith, of the London School of Economics, to deliver a series of lectures in Bombay on Higher Commercial Education. His lectures were intended to rouse public interest in the scientific study of Commerce and Economics, and incidentally to gauge the degree of support that may be expected from the merchant princes of this city. The cost of these lectures was borne mainly by the leading mercantile bodies of this city, such as the Chamber of Commerce, the Mill-owners' Association, the Native Piece-goods Merchants' Association, the Presidency Trades' Association, the Byramjee Jeejeebhoy College of Commerce and by several prominent merchants of this city.

6. Once in June 1905, and again in March 1910, I submitted to the Syndicate definite proposals for the institution of a Degree in Commerce. The Syndicate, while in general sympathy with the cause, considered it inexpedient to bring up this question before the Senate before the issues then under consideration had been settled. Mr. Padhye and myself were on both those occasions to have

moved amendments in the Senate for the institution of either a Faculty of Commerce or of a Degree in Commerce. The amendments were, however, withdrawn on the advice of our friends and leaders in the Senate, as the attention of the Senate was then engrossed in the revision of their existing Regulations and Curricula.

7. Representations were received by the Syndicate during the course of 1910 from the Indian Merchants' Chamber and the Bombay Mill-owners' Association, requesting the formation of a Faculty of Commerce in connection with this University. I may here add that the annual Industrial Conferences have for the past few years been passing Resolutions recommending the institution of a Faculty of Commerce in our Indian Universities.

8. The revision of the General Regulations as well as of the Curricula of Studies for the Degrees in Arts, Science, Law, Medicine, and Engineering having been practically completed last year, the Syndicate appointed a Committee of Experts in April 1911 for considering and reporting on the best method of encouraging the study of Commerce. The Scheme now placed before you for adoption is the result of the deliberations of this representative Committee of Experts, and I would draw your attention to the fact, that it is an unanimous Report without a single Minute of Dissent. The Committee consisted of four European and five Indian members. Two of these are members of our Syndicate, one of them being a former Vice-Chancellor of this University. That these two leading representatives of the University have signed the Report, goes to show that the interests of culture and liberal education have been duly safeguarded in the scheme that has been prepared for your approval. That the scheme is well adapted to the requirements of different kinds of business is vouched for by the presence on the Committee of two European and five Indian Business men, representing Mill-owners, Bankers, General Merchants, Insurance Companies, and Public Accountants. That the scheme has been submitted to the Senate on the recommendation of the

Syndicate, is a sufficient guarantee that the interests of the University as representing liberal education have been duly safeguarded.

9. The Committee's introductory Report already circulated among members of the Senate goes fully into the question of the advisability and necessity for the institution of such a Degree, and explains at length the principles on which the Curriculum for this Degree has been framed, and I do not, therefore, propose to take up your time by going into those details.

10. Briefly put, candidates for the Bachelor of Commerce Degree will have to study for one year in the Previous Class along with the Arts students, and will then have to study for three years in a Commercial College affiliated to the University. They will be required to pass two Examinations, viz., the Intermediate Examination in Commerce at the end of their first year in a Commercial College and their Final Examination at the end of their course. At the Intermediate Examination, all the subjects are compulsory, while at the Final Examination all subjects except the Voluntary Group are compulsory. It will be seen that the compulsory course provides for a sufficient grounding in English and in Economics, as well as in such portions of Business Law and General Business Knowledge as are required for all Departments of Business. The Voluntary Groups for the Degree Examination provide for specialization as (1) Bankers, (2) Accountants and Auditors, and (3) Actuaries. For practical business purposes specialization to a larger extent in certain Departments of business than is provided for in our present Curricula for the Degree, will be required. This further specialization may later on be provided for, after this Scheme has been worked for some time, by instituting an Honours Examination in Commerce or a Master's Degree.

11. The framers of this Scheme do not, of course, claim it to be perfect in all respects and incapable of improvement. Such defects in the Scheme as may be brought to light by actual experience, when

a duly affiliated Commercial College has been in working order for some time, may easily be remedied in the light of such experience. We have at present adapted this Scheme from the Regulations of the Universities of London, Birmingham, and Manchester.

12. It only now remains to refer to two more aspects of this question, viz., whether the necessary provision for teaching this course will be made at an early date and whether the Commercial College that may be established will attract enough students.

13. To my knowledge, large donations are waiting to be offered after the Senate finally resolves to institute a Degree in Commerce. I feel confident that before the year is out and before our esteemed Chancellor and Governor, Sir George Clarke, hands over charge, final arrangements for the establishment of a well-staffed and well-equipped University College of Commerce will be completed. Naturally, donors are chary of finally announcing their donations before the Senate resolves to institute the Degree. We shall very likely have a British graduate in Commerce brought out as Principal of the new College, and we shall be able to secure Indians with British Commercial qualifications to serve as Professors in certain subjects. Meanwhile, it is hoped to send out two or three Bombay graduates to the Universities of Manchester, Birmingham, and London for a course in Commerce, that they may be utilised as additional Professors in the new College on their return. It is further possible to begin at once and prepare candidates for the Intermediate Examination in Commerce, even before importing a Principal or a Professor from England, as fully qualified teachers are locally available for the first year's teaching in the new College.

14. From my experience of Commercial schools and classes in Bombay, I may assure members of the Senate that there will be no dearth of students in the new College, as I know of Bombay under-graduates and graduates incurring much heavier expenditure and going to England at their

own cost for the professional examinations in Accountancy and Actuarial Science. To quote an example, four graduates of this University have during the past few years served my firm as apprentices and been trained by us in Bombay in Advanced Accountancy and Auditing and Actuarial Science. Two of these have after completing their apprenticeship gone to England and passed the Final Examination of the Society of Incorporated Accountants, one of the leading and recognized bodies of professional Accountants in England; a third graduate is proceeding to England next month for the same purpose; and the fourth is a graduate in Arts and Engineering of this University, and is gone to England to sit for the Accountancy and Actuarial Examinations. That our graduates are capable of acquitting themselves satisfactorily in those Examinations is evidenced by the fact that this B.A., L.C.E. has just passed the Intermediate Examination of the Society of Incorporated Accountants, coming out First in the Honours Division, thus topping the list of successful candidates in the British Isles.

15. Before closing, I beg to be allowed to make a short quotation from His Imperial Majesty's speech, delivered the other day at Calcutta. His Majesty said, "I have watched with keen interest the progress of your Business enterprises, and I trust that the success which has attended your Commercial energy will attract more and more of the youth of this country to regard commerce as a distinguished and honourable profession."

16. Bombay, the commercial capital of India, Bombay, the founder of the Indian cotton industry, the promoter of the premier Iron and Steel Works of Sakchi and the Hydro-Electric Works of Lonavla, Bombay, the founder of the Tata Institute of Science and of the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, the city of Merchant Princes and Captains of Industry, Bombay which has so often taken the lead in introducing well-considered educational, social, and other reforms, deserves and ought to take the lead in a matter of this kind; and I trust that Bombay will acquire the proud

privilege of initiating a reform of this kind, which is sure to have far-reaching effects on the industrial regeneration of our country and will provide our graduates with fresh careers, as honourable and lucrative as those for which our University has till now provided openings. I know of no other city in India, where a reform of this kind could have so readily and rapidly won the support of all classes of the public; and this much more I would say, viz., that in no other Indian city is it possible to secure so readily the funds necessary for bringing a College of this kind into existence as in this City of Philanthropists. I implore the Senate to unanimously pass the Scheme placed before them, and to bless the College that is to come into existence in consequence of their votes to-day.

THE PLEA FOR SECTARIAN UNIVERSITIES.*

READERS of Newman will remember a brilliant chapter in his *Historical Sketches* in which there is a fine tribute paid to the catholic spirit of the academical life of ancient Athens. It was a glorious brotherhood and citizenship of the mind which knew of no distinctions of creed, colour or race but was based entirely on a lofty pedestal of intellectual communion. The fascination exercised by this home of the intellectual and the beautiful was so universal that there were drawn to it votaries of culture from the most diverse quarters. Many a Gallic, Italian, Armenian, Scythian or African cast anchor at Piræus after a weary tossing on the Saronic wave, to seek instruction and wisdom

Behold
Where on the Ægean shore a city stands,
Built nobly, pure the air and light the soil.
Athens, the eye of Greece, mother of arts
And eloquence, native to famous wits
Or hospitable, in her sweet recess,
City or suburban, studious walks and shades.

* A paper read before the Madras Teachers' Guild on the 18th inst. by P. Seshadri, M.A.

The varied types of devoted students sketched by Newman impress the reader with a profound sense of the greatness of a charm which could keep spell-bound the entire civilised world of the age. There was that youth of low stature and black hair, with a turn for poetry, Horace, who came to finish the education he had begun at Rome, or the grave and mysterious Cappadocian youth who was to become one of the most eminent doctors of the Greek Church, St. Gregory. It was again a youth full of promise, Cicero by name, who would stop there though only for a short time on his way to Asia Minor, or it was the great Emperor Marcus Aurelius himself, fresh from splendid triumphs on the battle-field, come to do homage to this city of wisdom. A recollection of this catholicity of spirit in all matters pertaining to the intellectual life of the city, is brought home to our mind by way of keen contrast when we think of the present plea for denominational Universities in this country.

It is idle to say they are not sectarian in spirit—their doors might be open to children of other faiths but their professed aim is the imparting of a culture peculiar to the religion and traditions of the Hindu or the Moslem. And to expect either of the institutions in spite of repeated declarations of this nature, to rouse the enthusiasm of the followers of the other faith and attract them to its class-rooms, is to misunderstand the fundamental elements of human nature. The force of circumstances might occasionally see an introduction of the other class, but their character must remain indelibly written in the names they have chosen.

Before examining the contentions on which this new demand is based, it may be observed, that the very qualifications, "Hindu" and "Muhammadan" seem to be inconsistent

with the spirit of a true *University*. Support might be sought for these terms in parallel instances in the present or past history of the world, but the extensive spirit of a University must be aware of no limitations other than the mere physical ones of time and space. The narrow ideals which the organizers have set before themselves must deprive them of the exalted privilege of using the word, 'University.' To borrow an observation of Milton's they might as well talk of 'the particular universal, or the catholic schismatic.'

And what are the grave circumstances urged for this expenditure of national energy and sacrifice in founding new Universities discarding at least indirectly those already existing in the country? The demand certainly implies a condemnation of noble institutions which have rendered invaluable service in the past and the extent of whose beneficent influence is only widening every year. A serious consideration would seem to be the absence of religious education and another embraces an adverse criticism of the nature and scope of the instruction imparted in the colleges as they are constituted at present. A positive ground is also urged in the plea that there is a profound necessity for propagating the peculiar characteristics of the two civilisations.

Tears have often been shed at the alleged decadence of piety in this country; schemes for religious education have often been formulated to bring the straying sheep within the fold of sacredness and the sages have often been invoked to stop the impending disaster, which is however unfortunately visible only to inspired religionists and the over-zealous followers of the Hindu or the Moslem faith. All this has been done in the face of the repeated testimony that has been borne to

the elevating influence exercised by our Universities, from the most diverse quarters.

The enemy of Indian aspirations might be interested in drawing lurid pictures of the Indian graduates' alleged want of character. The importance of political movements based on an appreciation of the lofty principles of popular government might be belittled on the imaginary ground of their being the result of want of spiritual instruction which would certainly inculcate habits of peace and obedience, leaving the ground free for the wiser sons of humanity to make themselves comfortable at the expense of others. The superstitious mummery of senile old age might crave for a revival of beliefs which have died a natural and desirable death. It is possible again that a national philosophy which has a weakness for paying too much attention to the things of the other world might make a similar insistence. But the sobriety of reason will have to examine the soundness of the contention before joining in the cry.

When a number of distinguished leaders of intellect and public spirit have risen from the alleged 'godless' education; when mighty movements of far-reaching national benefit have been started and worked by them with considerable success; and when there has been a steady rise in character with the spread of education, there would seem to be no need for this alarm. The keener the plea is urged, the more provoking is the calumny that is thrown at the head of a class that does not deserve any part of it.

Nobody would claim that the average Indian graduate is a pattern of all virtues. He has the weaknesses common to all human nature, and probably his race and peculiar environment, but his failings do not clearly arise from any want of the religious sense. The

truth would even seem to be in the other direction—he would even seem to be suffering under an excess of the spirit, often lapsing into the inanity of a spiritual dreamer, sedulously cultivating the idle superstition of by-gone ages.

This is no place to enter into an examination of the extent to which the ethical conduct of an enlightened citizen of the twentieth century is dependent on religious faith, but it will be pointed out that there is room for drawing out the highest moral virtues on a basis independent of the dogma of a particular religious creed. In a recent volume containing an admirable study of several problems bearing on Indian education, entitled *Education and Statesmanship in India* by Principal James of Calcutta, there is a lucid survey of this problem, in relation to its abstract principles and the special circumstances of this country. 'It remains then,' he writes, 'that our education of character so far as schools and colleges are concerned must be independent of a specially religious basis. This does not, however, at all necessarily mean that it is cut off from all appeal to what is morally persuasive in religion. The true essence of belief, as far as morals are concerned is that God is on the side of Righteousness. This it is which gives effective power to religion as a motive to morality. The appeal to this fundamental faith is not denied to the teacher on a purely secular basis of education. The belief involves no theological dogma and offends no religious susceptibilities. The appeal is therefore always within the scope of the secular teacher's discretion.'

The soundness of this contention will be evident on even a cursory examination of academical life and the scheme of studies as they obtain in our Universities. It is difficult to exaggerate the high value of collegiate

discipline, the principles of well-regulated system, obedience to authority and the sense of mutual comradeship created even unconsciously by association with others with whom there is so much of real affinity. The life in the play-ground infuses a healthy spirit of very great moral import. The Professor again has effective means for developing in the class-room the moral spirit of the young men entrusted to his charge. The broad humanity of all good literature is a great moral education in itself; history brings with it the example of the most distinguished sons of the world; abstract principles of ethical conduct are based on reasoned appreciation by the exponent of philosophy and there is certainly a moral elevation of undoubted value in the zealous pursuit of accurate truth in the laboratory. Above all, what is often most effective, there is the intimate influence that may be exercised by Professors of irreproachable conduct whose very presence might be an inspiration of character.

It is probably an over-enthusiastic appreciation of Indian Governmental policy that prompted in the main the following remarks of Lord Curzon; but their essential truth is not obscured by any such imputation: "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 Church with State. But we do not therefore lay down that ethics are, or should be divorced from the life of a 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 class-room, 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 case of the State."

One might even go a step further and maintain that the direct inculcation of religion and morality by lectures and manuals is never half as effective as this indirect elevation of character. Leslie Stephen somewhere mentions a University dignitary who seems to have exclaimed: "I have attended the University sermon for forty years, and I thank God, that I am still a Christian."

There cannot certainly be any objection to the opening of faculties of theology but it is not intended by even the most enthusiastic champions of the sectarian Universities' scheme to inflict an elaborate course of scriptural knowledge on every student passing through their portals. It is meant to be just so much that is necessary for the correction of a fancied lapse into impiety and the building up of character which it is assumed is left undone in our Colleges. But a study of the conditions evolving the moral sense in the individual and the experience of educational life in the past must serve to convince one of the utter futility of trying to create character by hand-books of morals or direct sermonising in the class-room. 'Morality,' observes a former Director of this Presidency, who made a special study of this

question, Dr. Duncan, 'morality must be taught in schools in the way in which it is taught at home and in the social life of the young. Morality cannot be taught as a branch of knowledge forming part of the school curriculum nor is a special text-book the best means of inculcating it. That danger of neglecting the spirit for the latter which has to be particularly guarded against when text-books are used in teaching the ordinary branches of knowledge would be much more menacing were the attempts made to teach morality through a specially prepared text-book.'

The best place for imparting instruction in the principles of religion would certainly be in the genial surroundings of home-life under the gentle influence of the mother or the austere authority of the father. The school-room is less fitted for it as it introduces a teacher who cannot always command the prestige necessary for the effective discharge of such a task. But the college class would seem to be quite unsuitable for such work as the student enters it with a keen spirit of enquiry not prepared to be hawkeyed by authority which professes to be sacred and demands unquestioning allegiance. In an atmosphere surcharged with the incessant preaching of the supremacy of reason and proof in all intellectual belief it must be dangerous to introduce matters of religious faith and doctrine which are generally open to the most violent controversy. It would probably after all end in defeating the very purpose kept in view in introducing religious instruction. If means are however found for extorting absolute submission to the doctrines preached by the threats of discipline it would be difficult to conceive of a worse form of tyranny and it is moreover subversive of all the highest principles of education.

Even without recalling Mill's treatment of this question in his essay on *Liberty* it will be conceded at once that this is a serious infringement of the freedom of the individual for which there is absolutely no form of justification especially in view of the advancement in the reasoning faculty implied by entrance into the College. The ideal of a true University could therefore only be in the words of a poet, one

"Holding no form of creed
But contemplating all."

III.

The main plea is thus not serious enough to demand the foundation of new Universities and it is hoped it has been proved that it cannot claim acceptance as far as Colleges in general are concerned. There might now be a hurried reference to the other aspects of the scheme. It is proposed to make the new Universities, 'teaching' and 'residential.' But the organisers might be reminded that this is no new ideal discovered by them, but one that has been steadily kept in view by the existing Universities—only obstacles of great magnitude have prevented the realisation of this ideal. It has been repeatedly urged by University Commissions and beginnings have been made in Calcutta, in the new direction. Unless the new Universities are to confine their operations within the Municipal limits of Benares or Aligarh it is difficult to see how this can be achieved easily. The very wide area over which colleges are scattered in the various Presidencies renders it very difficult to organise anything like common lectures for all the undergraduates. And the existing ones have spread culture and enlightenment even to obscure corners as they have not limited their influence to capital cities. Let it be remem-

bered that the conversion of the present Universities into 'teaching' ones in the full sense of the word is possible only with the withdrawal of all centres of higher education in each of them within the limits of a single city.

Similar arguments hold good in the matter of their being made absolutely residential. More than others, the organisers of the new scheme must be aware of the numerous social and religious distinctions, and the peculiar features of domestic life in this country which render it hard to insist on all the students living in College residence. But anybody could discern a steady improvement in this direction in our Universities. There has always been demand made on its fulfilment on individual Colleges. The institutions managed by Government and Missionary bodies have opened facilities for its realisation. It is unfortunately those indigenous Colleges that have a peculiar claim on the liberality of the nation that are not able to afford the convenience. And instead of directing philanthropy to come to their need in this and other ways, they are to be allowed to languish and new ones are to be started. It is by no means unfair to stigmatise this as the grave neglect of a duty, in the well-meant pursuit of an ideal.

No blame again attaches to the present Universities for not developing technical and scientific education to the extent demanded by the material needs of the present century—they would be defective in such excellent company as the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Their primary aim has been the imparting of culture in *Humanities* and without entering into any competition with them in this department, there is nothing to prevent the establishment of technological and scientific institutions working for the indus-

trial regeneration of the country. It is only fair to point out that our Universities have shown willingness to aid efforts even in this direction. One might instance the recent advances in the University of Bombay in Science teaching and in the opening of a new Faculty of Commerce with degrees for commercial subjects. It will be readily conceded that there is a point in venturing to make the University instruction more Indian in its nature, but there might also be a recognition of the necessary qualifications. The impulse for progress in politics, social reconstruction and material advancement has certainly come from Western culture during the last century. One must see for it, even a wider sphere of usefulness in the future, in the interests of the nation. In Indianising the instruction therefore, care must be taken that this spirit is not injured to the slightest extent. There is the easier way of realising the end by reforms as in the University of Calcutta where special provision has been made for the study of Indian philosophy and economics. Our appreciation of the ancient greatness of India need not lead us to the disastrous step of foregoing the privilege of utilising the marvellous advances of science in the West during the last thousand years. The Hindu sciences have had their day and humanity is thankful to them for keeping aloft the torch of knowledge at a time when the other nations were steeped in ignorance, but it is a lamentable want of the historical sense and a sacrifice of inestimable benefits to begin again where they have stopped, ignoring a thousand years of later scientific evolution, which must deservedly be regarded the priceless possession of all the human race.

In freedom from Governmental control and the absence of undesirable restraint in University life there is held forth another attrac-

tion of some worth. It cannot be denied that Indian interests have often suffered in the past by an excess of control by Government. But the prospect does not seem to be more encouraging in the new scheme—it is at least not commensurate with the efforts put forth. The Imperial Member in charge of the portfolio of education has made it a condition for the granting of a charter that the Government must be allowed to have an effective control over the new bodies, and that there must be a good proportion of graduates of British Universities, on the Professorial staff. And what is the independence of the new Universities worth, if they are to start work under such cramping influences?

The examination of the plea must stop here and it is unfortunate indeed that a movement started by noble impulses should thus be open to serious criticism. The organisers might well pause before throwing away half a century of University tradition, and the efficient machinery that lies ready in the country, for increased action, before embarking upon a scheme for new Universities, marked out only for their sectarian character.

Similar spectres are bound to make their appearance in various quarters in the near future. The Parsi millionaire with a religion whose principles are as clearly marked as those of Hinduism will start his scheme quite easily though he has wisely refrained from doing so till now. The influential class of Jain merchants might start a similar movement and even the minor sub-sects will feel bound to entertain such thoughts the moment there is seen the financial possibility of the venture. And the historian of the future, will not certainly recall with pleasure the day when these separatist tendencies began to insinuate themselves into the national spirit under the guise of University culture,

in a country always notorious for its want of solidarity. The barriers of religion and race have done enough in the past to mar the happiness of mankind, let not enlightened citizens of the twentieth century be responsible for offering refuge to such a spirit in the fair Temple of the Muses.

THE TEACHING OF COMPOSITION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

IN December 1910, appeared in the pages of *The Educational Review*, an article on how to co-ordinate composition in a Secondary School. It dealt with the manner in which the work can be systematised from the Primary school upwards to the Sixth Form. One point was not therein explicitly stated. The work of the headmaster hitherto chiefly related to the upper forms for purposes of some attempt at knowing what was done. In the stage through which we are passing after the new regulations demanding a supervisory headmaster, the question ought to be approached not merely from above downwards but from below upwards. In fact, the serious part of the work is to build from below. Only those who approach it in this spirit know and can realise that a new range of experiences and thoughts opens itself before the earnest worker. He then feels more strongly than he ever did before, how it is useless to shift the burden of responsibility for failure or backwardness in the upper forms to the Lower Secondary and Primary school teachers. He then finds better than he ever did before that the greatest part of the responsibility always rests, as it should, on the highest. If the College Professor lays the fault at the door of the Secondary schoolmaster when the College student's composition is not of a satisfactory standard, he resents it. Why

should he not similarly expect the Lower Secondary and Primary teachers to resent? If the staff employed in the upper forms fail or do not attain as fair a degree of efficiency as is expected, is it not because the graduates trained by the professors have not been themselves duly equipped? So, the grievances in the matter can be more readily redressed by the attention paid to the subject in a college. While, as already admitted the question should also be more profitably approached from below, this consideration helps us to see that it must be done by those who have directly profited by the training that they have received. While the connection running through all the grades of education is thus seen in a manner however imperfect, attention has now to be confined to the work in a Secondary school; so that, not content with blaming either those above or those below, the duty falling to the lot of its worker may be tried to be discharged with some fair degree of satisfaction to him and to the pupils passing through his hands.

The first question that presents itself is—Is composition to be treated as a merely mechanical process whereby some amount has to be done? or, is it to be treated as an intellectual exercise equally important with other forms recognised already? The answer is certainly easy. But, what method may be adopted? At the very outset, it has to be recognised that matter must be first available before the manner of putting it is thought of. Here merely theoretical knowledge cannot serve. We depend for our store not merely on what we read but on what we hear and see. The knowledge that is most useful is obtained by observation, analysis of its results and a reflection thereon. The best part of the work must be, therefore, left to a writer's

own efforts though the guidance given him ought to have been sufficiently good. So, what really can be done at school is to lead and to attend to the portion that is practicable by way of methodising work. How is this to be done?

Speaking of simpler beginnings in the Lower Secondary forms, an example was given in the number referred to at the outset, of the way in which a Third Form pupil may be led to make a lesson in poetry the subject of composition. The poem on "Lady Clare" was taken and the heads were indicated that might be taken up. Or, we may even take a simpler poem—"Rain in summer." We may help pupils to analyse the matter into its usefulness (1) to houses and streets (2) to grasses, plants and crops (3) to animals and men. Here, some amount of intellectual effort is needed in the pupil before he re-arranges the matter. What applies to a Lower Secondary pupil does equally to an Upper Secondary, only his textbooks are more advanced. This is only making topical arrangement in a suitable way, taking as much as pertains to one point after separation from others. The Upper Secondary teacher understands this theoretically so well that he need not be troubled with elucidatory instances. What is required is the patience in daily work in trying to guide himself in the light of his theoretical knowledge. However much theory is admitted, a comparison of notes with others who have given their time to practice cannot be denied its value.

While every subject—Science, History or Literature lends itself to serve our purposes, we may take an illustration from the teaching of History.

We shall take the instance of Henry VIII's reign. Let us suppose that we are using

succeed in formulating for their own guidance and following with their pupils a rational plan that sets the mind thinking not only of details but also of the way in which they will hang round a few definite heads all going together to produce the harmonious effect of a connected whole.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

ON THE MIGRATIONS OF PLANTS.

WHEN we pry into the secrets of Nature, she is found to yield abundant seeds for the proper survival of the species and to adopt the most ingenious and varied methods to scatter her fruits and seeds from one pole to another. John Ray, the celebrated English Naturalist, tells us through his tour notes that he saw on one poppy stalk 32 thousand seeds; on a tobacco stem Linnæus states to have found 40 thousand seeds; on an elm tree Dodard counted as many as 529 thousand. Also the reproduction of many fungi is unique. In the plant of the *Reticularia Maxima* a naturalist counted more than 10 million reproductory bodies. Other plants of the same kind rear a still larger progeny which the most powerful of the present day lens is not able to magnify. I mean the gigantic *Lycoperdon*. It may be said without any exaggeration that the germs of this plant when dispersed over the whole land mass and were to be favoured with germination the earth would be completely paved with them the next day. Thus it is seen that the whole world would be completely studded with all forms of vegetable life, if all the seeds were allowed to grow. But Mother Nature arrests such a menacing invasion by limiting the power of germination in seeds to a certain period and to a particular soil as also by fixing the climatic conditions to each

of the species of plants. Again, a greater quantity of seeds is consumed by animals and what is left of them go on peregrinations to distant lands by various contrivances which the mother plant adopts. The plant knowing full well that sunlight and nutrition under her would be barely sufficient for her offspring, devices various methods for their proper dispersion and survival. The greater the number of offspring she yields, the greater is the facility given by the mother, to help on in their peregrinations.

The colour and sweetness of the *mango*, the hooks of the *goose-grass*, the sticky secretions of the *meadow-saffron*, the feathery hairs of the *Madar*, the explosive movements of the *balsm* and the floating tissue of the *cocanut*, are all intended by Nature, only to aid the proper dispersion of their seeds.

The adaptations of every one of them are the various means of satisfying their ends, mostly through birds, animals, wind and water. Besides these plants by their own dehiscive movements effect their journeys—the explosive movements of *balsm*, the sling movements of *wood-sorrel* and the squirting movements of *cucumber* are some examples of such movements.

Birds.—Everywhere on the walls of temples and old buildings we find in India, the sacred *Peepal* and *Banyan* plant. This is due to the agency of birds. They eat the fruits with avidity and throw away their refuse matter on the old walls which having withstood their powers of digestion germinate under favourable conditions. Also in trees we find parasitic trees having their roots in the stem of the host plant; the Indian *Mistletoe* is an example of the kind. Again, we hear of the *Nutmug* trees being destroyed by the Dutch and the sowing afresh of these trees by the nutmug eating pigeons; of the grape being

distributed throughout France by birds from Bordeaux. It is also believed that the varied flora seen in the Coliseum of Rome is due to birds.

Animals.—Although they are in a way enemies to plants, they help in their dissemination consciously or unconsciously. The hooks and sticky secretions of seeds cling to the wool of some animals such as sheep without their knowledge while they graze in the meadow and perform their journeys wherever the animals go. The fruits by their colour and sweetness attract animals especially squirrels, monkeys and last but not the least man. Man in order to satisfy his wants imports plants and seeds from their nativity. The tobacco of the pipe comes from America; the potato of Ireland is a native of South America; the coffee of Central America comes from Arabia; the wheat of Manitoba is from Persia; the vine and olive are from the Asiatic mountains; and the orange of New South Wales comes from China. Thus man is a prominent factor in bringing about the migration of plants.

Winds.—In the dissemination of seeds air plays an important part. The seeds that are light with plummy appendages, perform the longest journeys by the aid of winds. They are carried up to a mountain peak from a deep valley when there is a slight breeze; a tempest takes them on to the stormy clouds, thence traversing oceans effect a descent upon a distant land. Sometimes the storm is such as to carry away the entire plant to fall like a shower of plants on a distant land; of such plants may be mentioned certain lichens from the Asiatic mountains which travelling in their journey in cloud germinate and fall like a shower when the storm abates itself. Such plants sometimes form thick layers in deserts and they form food for exhausted

travellers. It is thought that "the providential Manna" which fed the Hebrews in their wanderings in the desert was due to such edible lichens. A specimen of such a lichen may be found in the Academy of Sciences. Examples of such seeds are not wanting in Southern India. The feathery plumage of *Madar* seeds, the leafy *Petelea Trifoliata* and *Ailanthus*, *Glandulosa*, the pith-like *gyrocarpus Asiaticus* and *Triopteris Bifurca* and several other cottony seeds of grasses are striking examples.

Water.—Seeds that are so weighty as not to be carried by animals, birds and wind accomplish their journeys through the water agency. Such seeds are capable of floating with the help of their covering. The cocoanuts of Seychelles arrive at the coast of Malabar and strike root as the soil is found favourable for their growth. In the same way the fruit of the Coco Palm and many others from the Equatorial America are carried away by the waves and are stranded on the shores of Scandinavia, where the unsuitable climate hinder their development. According to Karl Muller wherever the oceanic current goes they carry away seeds along with it. Seeds travel from Brazil to Congo in Africa; from the shores of India to Brazil.

Plants of the lofty Himalays are found on the borders of the delta of the Ganges. The Nile is resplendent with its gigantic *Victoria Regia* (water lily) from its source to its delta. Seeds in the like manner are also brought by the wandering rivers of ice (glaciers). It is thought that the mosses, lichens and woody plants of North Germany should have descended from the mountains of Scandinavia through the help of glaciers.

Thus the necessity for migration is keenly felt by plants and they adopt the various

used or a Telugu, when reversed. A 9 can also be made by filing off the tail of a Q and then inverting the type.) Any printer can get all these types in a few days' time; he can at any rate procure a fresh font of types suitable for the modified alphabet (and in no way unsuitable to the existing system of printing), the next time he desires a renewal of types. The new conjunct-symbols may perhaps look a little uncouth owing to the edges of the conjunct-types not coming close together, but this defect can be remedied by cutting some of the necessary letters in the 'sans-serif' style, and by giving the symbols a more graceful form.

It should be noticed that the proposed alterations are very easily recognisable. The essence of the scheme is the assimilation of exceptions to the normal forms and the substitution of easy and uniform modes of 'animation' for the complicated and confusing ones of the existing system. As soon as the beginner, therefore, has been taught the primary letters and vowel-symbols he will be in a position to read with ease any combination of letters, a performance which at present is an impossibility to the beginner before he has in addition learnt a large number of separate forms for each of the consonants which undergo modification in shape during the process of animation. Nor will the proposed reform impose any hardship on a child or an adult already acquainted with the existing system; no new symbol except *o* is introduced and no change is made in the phonetic value of any of the symbols. A few days' practice will suffice to give one a firm grasp of the modifications.

This scheme, therefore, gives us uniformity and removes complexity. While the alphabet does not lose in compactness it improves in cursiveness and clearness. Children will be

saved more than three-fourths of the time and labour they now expend in learning the alphabet. Owing to the reduction in the requisite variety and number of types, type-founding is made less costly, composing easier, and printing, therefore, much cheaper. These are advantages substantial enough to justify the adoption of this scheme. Will it therefore be asking too much if a dispassionate consideration of the scheme is solicited?

T. G. ARAVAMUTHAN.

THE TEACHING OF SANSKRIT.*

"The study of language has held a high place in most systems of education." So it may be well to ask ourselves at the outset, why should we study language at all? "Speech we know is the one characteristic distinction of humanity. Every word which has been invented is the record of some fact or thought and furnishes the means by which facts or thoughts can be transmitted to others. In a sense every new word represents a new conquest of civilization, a distinct addition to the intellectual resources of the world. To become acquainted with words, in their full significance, is to know much about the things they represent; and about the thoughts which other people have had representing those things. The enlargement of our vocabulary whether it be in English or any other language, means the enlargement of our range of thought and the acquisition of new materials of knowledge."

Thus, we see from this quotation that we have to study languages not merely for the purposes of conversing with another passing

* A paper read at the Educational Conference held at Irinjalakuda (Cochin State), by K. A. Aiyadurai Aiyar, B.A., L.T.

our thoughts on to him and understanding his. There is yet another and a greater end in view in studying languages. It has a historical importance. By the study of the words of an ancient language we are imperceptibly led to know a great deal of the thoughts of the ancients, their civilization, etc. And in what case can it be of greater value than in the case of Sanskrit, by far the most perfect language in the world and a language which contains in its vocabulary the essence of a hoary civilization? And thus if the study of Sanskrit, or for matter of that, any classical language has a historical value where can that be fully appreciated more than in India where the teeming millions are every day speaking languages derived directly or indirectly from Sanskrit?

There is yet another use in the study of Sanskrit. At least in the case of the large majority of the people of India, the knowledge of Sanskrit is of paramount importance. All their religious books from the Rig Veda to the latest Purana have been written in that sacred language. All the philosophy of India, for which more than for any thing else India has been held in esteem, is found in Sanskrit. The mantras we utter and the prayers we offer to God every day are all in Sanskrit. Such being the case, I believe it is not necessary for me to prove here the extreme importance of Sanskrit as a language and the great necessity of teaching the young ones placed in our charge rudiments of that language.

After being satisfied that Sanskrit is a language that deserves to be studied the next question that we have to ask ourselves is who all have to be taught and how we are to teach them.

With regard to the first of these questions there can be only one answer. If this question is however asked of a teacher in Ger-

many or Austria we may expect him to answer that he would teach the language not to all the pupils in his school but only to such of them as are likely to enter the University and to devote their time in their post-University career to research in the domain of philology, philosophy or history. To the other children, who may either stop their education at the end of the compulsory period, to take up work in a factory or in the field, the study of Sanskrit would be of no value. It will not be of very great use even to those German and Austrian lads who would stop their education after passing through the High School. The same question put to a teacher in England may, in all probability, be answered exactly the same way the German or Austrian teacher answers. But I believe a difference has to be made between the two. England and India are so indissolubly linked together that the better the one is understood by the other the more the respect and sympathy that exist between them would become and the stronger the bond. It therefore behoves that a great many of the English students should be made acquainted with our ancient literature. If the educated Indian has a profound respect for England and her greatness it is not entirely due to the excellent manner they are governing the country. It is, I believe, due more to the fact that we have been brought face to face, thanks to the Educational policy of the Government, with the great thinkers of England through the books that carry down to us an idea of what they thought, preached and acted. It is this, more than any thing else, that has captivated the Indian mind and I am sure that with an advance in the study of Sanskrit in England the notions that an average Englishman now has about India and her people will be materially changed to the mutual advantage of both England and India.

But if that question is asked of an Indian teacher he ought to say that the vast majority of his pupils, if not all, should learn Sanskrit. Without the acquaintance of Sanskrit it is not possible for an Indian to learn thoroughly any one of the Vernacular languages of India which are all directly or indirectly connected with it. This may perhaps not hold good in the case of an Elementary school, the majority of the pupils of which, belong to the labouring classes and who might stop their education after a two or three years' course. But in the case of all the Secondary schools Sanskrit must be given a place among the compulsory subjects.

We then pass on to the second question—How to teach Sanskrit. Before attempting to answer that question, I shall attempt to describe what is now being done. A student who has passed through the Primary stage is given a book on Grammar to begin with. He is made to learn by heart, without understanding the meanings of the words contained, certain rules of Sandhi. This perplexes him at the very outset. He is then given a certain number of words. The gender of the word is required to be studied along with the meaning of the words themselves. Even these meanings of words are not properly grasped by the student. The present tendency to make the pupils have an idea of the nature of the object described before they attempt to commit the words themselves to memory, I am afraid, is most neglected in this study. Such words for instance as उग्र to glean are studied by the students without having any idea whatsoever of what the sound is represented by, in reality. This method is both uninteresting and against modern principles. It takes away from the pupils any interest they may have in the subject. Then to be expected to remember the gender of each

and every noun that they meet with is a Herculean task. This kind of study takes up more than three years. In the course of these three years the student has been enabled to learn by heart certain rules of Sandhi, certain forms of declension and inflexion and a few words. But no attempt whatsoever is made to bring him face to face with the language as such or to give him an interest in and a liking for the subject. He leaves the Middle School Forms and enters the Upper Secondary Classes. Here again he is put in possession of a book which more than anything else, I believe firmly, is the cause of the great disinclination on the part of the students to study Sanskrit. From the beginning to the end it is full of grammatical rules given in difficult language whose meaning cannot be properly grasped by the students or even by the Pandits, as they are. The study of this second book of grammar is all that is generally attempted in the IV and V Forms though I am not ignorant of the fact that nowadays something else is also attempted. Then again, in the teaching of these additional books more attention is given to the grammatical forms and peculiarities than to the subject matter of the piece or its beauties of diction.

I am sure that there will be some who hold a different opinion in this matter. You may say that the second and first books, that I was describing as books on grammar, are not really books on grammar but are readers with grammatical rules given to explain the peculiarities of grammar contained in the sentences given. To such I have only to say that the fact is not so. The books referred to, do not pretend to be readers at all. They are grammar par excellence. The author thought it desirable to

put in a few examples selected apparently with great difficulty, illustrative of the rules given with the object apparently of drilling the student on these rules.

The result of this mode of teaching is that the student is frightened away from Sanskrit and its grammar and even the few that dare to begin the study are disheartened by the nature of the study and give it up before they go out of the High School. Now is not this a deplorable state of things which it is our duty as teachers to find out a remedy for? I shall attempt therefore to chalk out briefly a way out of the difficulty.

There was a time when grammar was given a prominent place in the school curriculum so much so that several or all the chief educational institutions of England were known as Grammar Schools. In these schools grammar was taught with an earnestness and devotion that was really commendable if it had been shown in a better cause. But all that has now been changed. A cry for more rational modes of teaching the several subjects is heard from every quarter. No method is now allowed to be adopted which does not follow as far as possible the Methods of Nature.

And in no subject is this rational and natural method so important as in the study and teaching of languages all that is required being sufficient acquaintance with the language itself either spoken or written. This needs no proof. We have all learnt to speak our mother-tongue not after an elaborate study of its grammar but we studied the language first. It might be that in the first few weeks we might have made some mistakes in talking, say for instance, using a verb in the second person with the subject in the third person—a plural verb with a singular subject—and so on; but experience has enabled us to talk pretty correctly without any the

least idea that we were learning Grammar at all. Take again the case of a Tamilian residing in a Telugu country. He goes there and lives there for some time. He comes in contact with Telugu speaking people only. He hears them talk Telugu. At first he does not understand it, but later on when he hears the same words over and over again he begins to grasp it. He first understands what others tell him and then he slowly attempts to express his ideas in that language. I do not say that the very first sentences he attempts to frame will be grammatically accurate but it will not be long before he is able to do so. He uses several words correctly without knowing what gender, what person, what rules of grammar have been applied in the process. Just in the same way we have to attempt to teach students Sanskrit. I am aware of the fact that there is a great difference between a spoken language like Telugu and a dead language like Sanskrit and that therefore the latter has no chances of being studied in the way that Telugu can be. I do not at all mean that exactly the same method must be adopted. All I mean is that we might adopt a more reasonable and natural method than the one now being followed.

I think that at this stage I might say a few words on the different aims that a man has to keep in view in studying different languages. We now teach in our schools English, Malayalam and Sanskrit. What is the end in view in the teaching of these different languages? Is the end in view the same in each case? I am afraid it is not so. We teach our boys English in order that they may read and understand books written in that language. We teach them English in order that they may converse in that language to those who do not know the other languages they know. We teach them

again, at least in the case of a few, to enable them themselves to become writers of books or teachers. But when we teach Malayalam we may have the same objects in view but here the relative importance of the different aims differ. Malayalam has not, compared with English, I mean no disparagement to the literature, a very large number of works written by eminent men. If it is taught now in the schools it is more to enable them to speak and write correctly than to understand the existing books. But when we come to Sanskrit the difference becomes very great. The second and the third aims in this case are thrown completely into the background. The one absorbing interest in Sanskrit study is the acquirement of the capacity to read and understand the gems of Sanskrit literature. I do not believe that any other ancient country in the world has books written in her language treating of all conceivable subjects. And if we do not make an honest attempt to acquire the capacity of understanding what mines of information lie buried in these works written by our ancients we do not deserve to be called true sons of the land. There are a great many among us who being otherwise intelligent and educated know so little of what our religion is that we very often mistake a social law for a religious precept and *vice-versa*. Then again there are several among us who believe that the earth is flat and that anyone of us who says that the earth is round is supposed to believe in something that our ancients did not believe. That this latter is an absurd notion will become very clear by a study of some of our books on Astronomy. Thus we may compare ourself to an elephant who not knowing his own real strength considers all others more strong than he and allows himself to be easily controlled. If we only know what our literature contains and

what not, we would not so easily admit, as we very often do, that we are a helpless nation in the intellectual field as we undoubtedly are in the physical.

I was saying a little while ago that the chief end in studying Sanskrit is the acquirement of the capacity to understand what others have already left behind them. The capacity to talk and write correctly and fluently and well is a very desirable thing indeed, but its importance is not half as great in the case of a dead language as in a living tongue. That being the case, we need not bring ourselves down to despair that as we have very little opportunities of coming in contact with men who talk Sanskrit as the mother-tongue, we cannot acquire the language in the same way as we can a spoken language. Whether it is possible or not our object can be very well gained by bringing the children face to face with simple Sanskrit poems or lines in prose as early as possible. Poetry has an advantage over prose inasmuch as the slokas may be easily committed to memory, but there is the disadvantage, at least in the very beginnings, that prose order has also to be taught. I believe however that this disadvantage is not sufficiently great to stand in the way of our beginning with simple Sanskrit slokas. But whether we begin with prose or poetry or a combination of both we have always to bear in mind that the language must be easy, and the subject matter interesting. Having selected a piece like that we must at once begin to teach it in what is known as the Translation method. In doing so we may attempt to connect as many Sanskrit words as possible with corresponding words in Malayalam or Tamil that

the student knows already. Wherever possible give the meanings of the Sanskrit words in such a way as to clear the difficulty of the endings and leaving the meaning proper to be guessed by the students themselves.

Lines like these may be very well begun with :—

1. गोदावरीतीरे प्रवर्तकं नाम पद्मं अस्ति ॥
2. तस्मिन् पद्मे गोपालकृष्णः इति ब्राह्मणः वसति ॥
3. तस्य गोपालकृष्णस्य गृहे मर्जारः सुखं प्रतिवसति ॥
4. तस्य मर्जारस्य नामा मूषिकशङ्खः इति ॥
5. सः मूषिकशङ्खः रात्रौ मूषिकान् भक्षयति ॥
6. तस्य ब्राह्मणस्य भार्या मूषिकशङ्खं पुत्रसमं परिपालयति ॥

This method will have the advantage of making the boys think a little. Then again when we come to the second line we may point out the similarity between पद्मे and तीरे and try to get the meaning from the students themselves and thus without making the student feel that he is taught formal grammar we must try to combine grammar with language always remembering that the study of language is the end and grammar is only the means. We have also to bear in mind that no attempts at framing general rules on these should be made in the initial stages. The similarities in structure and endings must be pointed out to be noted by the students and as this process is repeated he will of his own accord and without the help of the teacher find out the similarities himself. This way grammar can be taught without the tediousness being felt.

A doubt may now be expressed if it is possible by following this method to make the student understand sufficiently well the significance of the case endings, etc. I have only to refer to the fact that even those who study Malayalam in the F.A. and B.A. classes have to study several verses that go for

Malayalam verses but which are really Sanskrit slokas with the admixture of a few Malayalam endings here and there. No one will say that these students study Sanskrit grammar and yet we find that they are able to understand the endings sufficiently well to grasp the meaning of the passage correctly. And that is after all what we require in the vast majority of cases. It is true that a few may desire to acquire better knowledge than this. And it is left to them to study grammar at a later stage. For the sake of a few a great many should not be sacrificed.

I have also to draw your attention to the fact that we are now attempting to teach boys English by conversational and by direct methods. No one objects to this on the score that the boys will have a tendency to speak bad English. If this difficulty is not expected to crop up in teaching a foreign language whose vocabulary and grammar have absolutely no similarity with our own I cannot find any reason why the same or similar methods cannot be used in teaching a language that has at least in its vocabulary a great similarity between it and our spoken languages. I wish also to point out that even now Sanskrit is being taught by our scholars outside the English schools in quite a different manner from that adopted here. They begin with Amarakosa and Sidharupa and they get these learnt by heart. They then begin I believe Sreeramodanta or some such Sanskrit work and study it thus beginning at the very outset with Sanskrit literature. It may be argued that the learning by heart of Sidharupa removes to a large extent the necessity to learn grammar. But I believe very little benefit is really obtained by its study. They are in fact following the method that I have

tried to show ought to be adopted by us also, namely teaching language before grammar or the natural and realistic method. It is only then that interest in the language and literature can be generated. The present disinclination to study may be avoided and Sanskrit made more popular than it is at the present day.

A PLEA FOR RELIGIO-MORAL INSTRUCTION.

WHAT should be done to lay the foundations of a good and noble character, to educate young men so as to become worthy citizens of the State?

I. Is any kind of direct instruction or training necessary? Is it not enough to create a healthy environment, to maintain a high standard of school discipline, and let the boys alone to its passive influence? Now, the creation, as far as possible, of a healthy environment, and the maintenance of a high standard of school discipline are both necessary, but not sufficient in the present condition of education, of Indian education at any rate. In the first place, boys are brought into touch with one another, and with their masters to such a little extent, for so short a time, in such large numbers, and for the purpose of learning such specific things that school-life does not afford free, ample, and unbroken opportunities for the formation of character. *Secondly*, masters also generally think, or are made to think, that their sole business is to impart instruction in one or more definite secular subjects, for progress in which they are held responsible; they do not generally realise that they should in their own persons be examples of conduct for their boys to follow, that they should not be

indifferent to how their boys feel and think beyond learning their lessons satisfactorily. *Thirdly*, the teaching profession holds forth such few emoluments, and is treated with such scant courtesy that there is very little incentive for any to go beyond the strict range of their duties, and interest themselves in the general welfare and progress of students. *Fourthly*, public life, in the case of boys sufficiently advanced to come under its influence, is at present so demoralised that every endeavour has to be made to arm young men against its evil influences; nor is the "double" life led by "educated" Indians within and without their homes conducive to inspire the rising generation with lofty ideals of consistency and uprightness. *Lastly*, moral education, meaning thereby the drawing forth of the higher nature in man, and the building of character, is of such primary importance that it cannot be left to mere chance, even were the environment better. It is not in keeping with any sense of proportion to devote the best and greatest portion of school-attention to intellectual development, and to relegate to a thoroughly subordinate position the training of what is far more precious—the moral faculty. For these reasons some kind of direct and systematic moral teaching appears to be necessary in addition to maintaining a high tone of school efficiency and discipline.

II. What kind of direct instruction should be imparted? The answer theoretically is simple enough: we should provide such instruction as will appeal strongly to the higher and nobler instincts of a boy's nature, as will make him cherish grand and beautiful ideals of conduct and character. But how is this result to be practically secured?

A. Shall it be by imparting religious teaching?

(a) *Objections to giving religious instruction*:—(1) The Government is pledged to an attitude of strict religious neutrality; and it is not desirable to help even indirectly to accentuate the differences that obtain among several faiths. (2) Each religion, and especially the Hindu, is made up of so many diverse sects that it will be almost impossible to formulate a scheme or to find a teacher acceptable to all. Even among Christians, it is doubtful if Roman Catholics will generally have the Bible taught by Protestant teachers or *vice versa*. (3) Religious teaching, further, unless given under specially appropriate surroundings, such as in a church, mosque, or temple, and by a more or less venerable personage does not impress the hearers appreciably. (4) Even in European countries that are far more advanced than India is, and though in the former people are more homogeneous religiously, opinion is not unanimously in favour of imparting religious instruction.

(b) *Validity of the above objections*. In my humble opinion objection (1) carries little weight, though this is the one most generally urged in India; it altogether miscalculates the effects of religious instruction. Ignorance is the greatest and most dangerous ally of fanaticism; knowledge can never intensify intolerance. Neither does objection (3) count for much. Our very endeavour is to turn schools from second-rate brain-making factories into sacred shrines dedicated to the pursuit of learning and truth—as indeed they were regarded in ancient India. Not all is gold that glitters; neither everything saintly that is mitred. Again though example is better than precept, and righteous counsel

from evil lips no better than hypocrisy, yet the value of a good word is never altogether lost by whomsoever it may be uttered, any more than a torch declines to burn if borne on the tiny hand of a child. The earnest presentment of lofty ideals always appeals at least to young minds very forcibly, and not in strict proportion to the personality of the teacher, though by no means is this last factor to be ignored. And for the matter of it, as the world is at present circumstanced, marked and strong personalities are as rare among the clergy as among the laity; and we have to make the best use of the material that we do possess. With regard to objection (4) the comparison between India and any European country is not on all fours. The institution of public-school life does not obtain in India, and cannot be introduced in our present social and economic conditions. There are no churches in India systematically to exhort people, young and old, to lead clean and pure lives. In other words existing institutions in European countries do afford greater or less opportunities for the formation of character, as they do not at present afford in India. On the other hand Indians generally, it must be admitted, possess deeper spiritual cravings than perhaps any other peoples; they are less satisfied with purely material ideals; and a 'Godless' education has more pernicious influence upon the Indian mind than upon any other. Objection (2) alone now remains; but the difficulty pointed out there seems to me to be very real, though not altogether insuperable, and must be taken into account in formulating any scheme of non-secular instruction.

B. Shall we then try to secure our object by imparting moral instruction on a purely "scientific" basis? *Objections to purely moral in-*

struction:—(1) Morality divorced from religion (some would even say from special revelation) has no ultimate basis to stand upon. (2) Even if it be possible to draw up a purely agnostic system of morals, it cannot appeal to the vast majority of men and women, much less boys and girls, in any country; and does not therefore deserve to be incorporated into any educational curriculum. (3) Individuals are to be looked upon not as isolated units, but as members of a community that is the product of the past, and that follows a religion, which, even from the sceptic's standpoint, embodies the best traditions and highest aspirations of the community in question. The influence upon individuals of such past history and traditions is always profound, and must be utilised to the greatest possible advantage.

C. *Religio-Moral Instruction*: If then religious instruction in the strict sense of the term is attended with serious difficulties, and moral instruction on a purely "rational" basis does not promise to bear fruit commensurate with the trouble in imparting it, we are necessarily forced to consider if we can possibly hit upon a third scheme which will combine the good points of both the above two and at the same time be free from the risks and shortcomings of each. To such a combination, which I believe is possible and worth a trial, I would give the name of *Religio-Moral Instruction*, or moral instruction based upon the religious consciousness and ideals of each community, and illustrated from its sacred literature and past history. In other words boys cannot, as part of the regular curriculum of school-work, be taught the details of any religious philosophy, or the formulæ of any religious dogma. But every religion enjoins upon its followers a strict

observance of rules of morality; and the literature of each abounds in telling examples of men and women, nay boys and girls, of all ranks and conditions that have lived and died nobly. There is hardly any rule of conduct or ideal of character that cannot be vividly brought home to the minds of children from illustrations taken from such literature. For example the story of Job may be utilised to teach the virtue of patience irrespective of the question whether man can justify himself before God, or whether a sense of righteousness can co-exist with an attitude of repentance. Or again the sermon on the Mount, and a great deal more of the teachings of Jesus may well be drawn upon by the Moral instructor without his dabbling into the vexed question of the origin of sin or the theory of atonement. Similarly many beautiful lessons may be enforced from the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, and much of the priceless teaching of the Gita brought within the reach of children without our quarrelling as to the ultimate relation between the individual and the Supreme spirit, or as to how far phenomenal existence is an illusion.

D. *Advantages of Religio-Moral Instruction*. This has in fact been the method adopted by all great teachers of mankind since the world began. They have always based their teachings upon the past traditions of the community. They have always appealed through parables and stories. They have never talked to a mixed audience about abstract problems however logical might be the bearing of the latter upon their practical teachings. *Secondly*, Religio-Moral instruction would prepare the way for religious inquiry of a more abstruse nature, and must necessarily precede it. It would inculcate a reverence for things spiri-

tual; and such inculcation should be its most abiding and fruitful benefit; for it would be a powerful antidote against the cheap cynicism and the intellectual nihilism that unfortunately result from a purely materialistic scheme of education.

III. *How shall such instruction be imparted?* Perhaps it may be asked whether the difficulties noted against Religious teaching will not vitiate any scheme of Religio-Moral instruction as well. The answer is in the negative; and for the obvious reason that in the latter the moral element would so greatly preponderate that there will be little occasion for discussing problems of sectarian interest.

(a) *In public schools* arrangements will have to be made for instruction being imparted to at least the three great communities of Hindus, Mahomedans, and Christians. A syllabus will have of course to be carefully and judiciously drawn and published beforehand. The instruction will have to be treated as part of the ordinary work of the school, and two periods devoted to it per week. In any case "the conscience clause" will have to be inserted in the code; for it is possible to imagine a guardian objecting to his boy being placed in any of the existing divisions; but such guardian will have to undertake otherwise to provide for the moral training of his boy.

(b) *In institutions under private management* Managers cannot be obliged to observe an attitude of religious neutrality, and must be free to decide what form of Religious or Religio-Moral instruction will be imparted in their schools. Parents sending their children to schools managed by a different denomination do so of their free will, and are not entitled to the privilege of "the conscience clause." This is the attitude maintained by Christian missionaries; and I should think

they are right in their contention. Hindus and Mahomedans are at perfect liberty whether to send their children at all or not to a Mission School; but they cannot choose to send their children to attend only one portion of the school-work (*viz.*, the secular) and withdraw them from attending another portion which in the opinion of the Managers is the more essential portion, and that for which indeed the school actually exists. Nevertheless a compromise may be brought about in this way. In case any guardians belonging to a community or faith different from that of the Managers desire that their children should be given instruction according to their own beliefs, and undertake at their own cost to provide for such instruction, the Managers may be required by the Department, in fairness, to arrange for the imparting of such additional instruction under the school discipline, and upon its premises, but outside the regular class-hours.

(c) *By whom should the instruction be imparted?* A problem of greater difficulty is that regarding the qualifications of teachers who should be in charge of the subject. Shall they be from among the regular staff of the school, or shall they be Pandits, Maulvies, Catechists, and the like? On this point I am sure it will be admitted that the ideal moral instructor is the class-teacher himself, provided he possesses the necessary knowledge; for it is he that is brought most into contact with the boy, and can exercise adequate influence upon him. The class-teacher should easily be in charge of the boys at least of the same religious persuasion as himself. Over and above the class-teacher special tutors may be employed; but all must come within the general discipline of the school's corporate life. In this connection I

must admit that at present the majority of class-teachers are ill-qualified to undertake Religio-Moral teaching; nor are they to blame; for they have themselves not had adequate opportunities to learn what they are now required to teach. But with the demand the supply must come. What therefore I would suggest is that Government should be requested *first* to introduce moral instruction into the curriculum of training colleges and schools, and *secondly*, to arrange a special training course for Pandits and Maulvies to initiate them into modern methods of teaching and school-keeping. The paucity of qualified teachers has in fact been the plea on which many Managers justify their not introducing even those schemes of religious or moral instruction which they enthusiastically recommend to others! Until this want is remedied, existing facilities must remain practically unavailed of, as they have remained in the public schools of the Punjab and the United Provinces, and in almost all private institutions save those of Christian missionaries.

(d) Who should bear the cost of such instruction? If extra teachers are to be employed for imparting such instruction in public schools, from what funds are such teachers to be paid? I have heard this question raised; and it is urged that secondary education is already very costly, that, even as things are, subjects like Geography, Mathematics, and Science have not got the necessary appliances; and that it will be unwise to add another item of expenditure—on what perhaps is after all only a luxury, on what, at any rate, we have well got on without, for a pretty long time! Such an objection can emanate only from those who have not rightly gauged the value of moral training, and its proper place in the function of a school. If on the other hand, it is granted that character-formation is, or ought to be, the most essential part of a sound system of education, expenditure upon it would be the most appropriate and least objectionable item of public expenditure. But, after all, the objection is more or less of a formal character, for the burden, under this head, can never be great upon public funds.

(e) *How to make such instruction compul-*

sory in all schools ? This is perhaps the least difficult part of the business. Every school has necessarily to provide for physical training ; why should it not for moral also ? The School Final Scheme already requires the Headmaster to testify to the boy's conduct and character ; progress in moral instruction will naturally form part of the entry under this head. We can well imagine an alarm being raised here and there that this will be another weapon in the hands of a bad Headmaster against the unfortunate pupil ; but in the vast majority of cases such an alarm is sure to prove groundless. It may well be left to the Inspecting officer to see whether adequate provision is made in each school for healthy moral instruction, as well as to enquire into any exceptional case of abuse of authority by the Headmaster.

Conclusion. I have tried to discuss the problem in some of its most practical bearings. In conclusion I have only to make a passing reference to the apprehension, entertained unfortunately in some high quarters as well, that Religious or Religio-Moral teaching will incapacitate us for the struggles of modern life, and frustrate all attempts to establish national unity. But indications even as things stand at present, are not wanting to show that when the experiment comes to be tried on a larger scale, such apprehensions will prove to be thoroughly unfounded. Neither is the contention sound that if the State should maintain its attitude of strict neutrality, it should forbid religious teaching in all public schools. In the United Provinces and in the Punjab religious instruction if desired by any community, is permitted to be given in public schools under certain conditions; and such permission is in no way held to be inconsistent with the Government's policy of neutrality. Much less would it be incompatible with such policy to have Religio-Moral instruction imparted in public schools to the chief communities of the land. On the other hand the Government will only be discharging a sacred duty that it owes to the rising generation; and the people can only feel thankful to Government for trying to discharge it.

M. KRISHNAMACHARYA.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

An appreciation of Lord Morley by
Mr. George McLean Harper.

Mr. George McLean Harper writes an appreciation of Lord Morley in the *Atlantic Monthly*. Lord Morley as is well known has divided his life between politics and literature. He has also been a journalist of considerable renown. Like H.D. Trail he has won laurels in either way—both as a journalist and as a man of letters. Whatever may be the value of his work as a politician—and he is not the first figure in British politics—his claim as a great thinker and a powerful writer has seldom been denied. To us, he is a link with the past. After J. S. Mill he has been swaying the thought of his generation. In taking to politics rather than to literature in later life he has followed the dictum of Jeffrey's in preference to the vague yearnings of Macaulay. In 1837 Jeffrey wrote to his illustrious ally: "As to the tranquillity of an author's life, I have no sort of faith in it. And as to fame, if an author's is now and then more lasting, it is generally longer withheld, and except in a few rare cases it is of a less pervading or elevating description . . . Besides, I believe it is in the inward glow and pride of consciously influencing the destinies of mankind, much more than in the sense of personal reputation that the delight of either poet or statesman chiefly consists."

Mr. Harper compares Lord Morley to Sainte Beuve and writes : " Morley begins almost precisely where Sainte Beuve ended with a sure grasp of several elementary principles ; but apparently he has never entertained so many conflicting emotional sympathies." After St. Beuve it is enough to follow the course of two writers—Matthew Arnold and Morley to realise the progress of European thought. Well, all may not agree and many may demur. But his *Compromise* is a work of extraordinary value. " Not to have read it is to have missed a powerful stimulus to right living. It is the moral portrait of the author." Again his studies on the epoch of the French Illumination have sobered a good deal of acrimonious controversy and have thrown a flood of light where ignorance and prejudice were holding alternate ways. And yet the writer observes that " Lord Morley is no painter. He has few columns in his palette and they are ready mixed. There is no flavour of regret in Lord Morley's writings, no tone of renouncement, above all no sentimentality." But by far the most lasting and remarkable of his services to the world of letters are those beautiful monograms of the " Englishmen of Letters Series " which he has edited with such splendid success.

The value of Lectures by Sir J. J. Thomson,
F. R. S.

At the morning session of the Association of Public School Science Masters on January 11, Sir J. J. Thomson, F. R. S., delivered his presidential Address, in which he dealt with certain general aspects of the educational question.

He had few theories, he said, on education ; and those which he did form were being constantly upset by experience, till he had come to the conclusion that if you have intelligent masters and small classes it does not matter much what theory of education you adopt, and if you have not these well, it does not much matter either. He protested against the tendency to teach everything by lectures and to make the lecture, to a continually increasing extent, supply the place of text books ; and quoted Dr. Johnson :—" People have now-a-days got a strange opinion that everything should be taught by lectures. Now, I cannot see that lectures can do as much good as reading the books from which the lectures are taken. I know nothing that can be taught by lectures, except where experiments are to be shown. You may teach chemistry by lectures ; you might teach the making of shoes by lectures." Listening to a lecturer has not, the speaker thought the same educational value as when the pupil reads the matter in a book for himself. Of course a lecturer might be so good as to be better than any text-book ; but the student's knowledge of the lecture was ultimately derived in most cases from his own notes, and a text-book must be very bad indeed not to be better than the average student's notes. Nor, with the multiplicity of courses now-a-days, did a student often get the time to write up his notes properly afterwards. Nor did he agree with the view often expressed now-a-days that pupils should be examined by their own teachers, instead of by outside examiners, which, in his experience, generally led to the worst kind of cramming, the cramming of note books, and not always the boys' own note books.

He thought it most important that boys should get the habit of independent thought at school. Too much importance could not be attached to the early development of independence and self-reliance; there was always great danger of excessive organization. One gratifying thing on which he wished to comment was the great increase in the last few years of the amount of mathematical knowledge possessed by the students of science sent up from the schools and in conclusion thought he made the suggestion with great diffidence, he wished it could also be possible for such students to have enough German to be able to translate an ordinary text book.

Education and practical life by Sir Hugh Bell.

The subject for discussion at the morning session on the opening day of the annual North of England Education Conference was "Education and Practical Life," a paper read by Sir Hugh Bell.

In the course of his paper Sir Hugh Bell said it was evident that if the State was to charge itself more and more completely with the education of the people they should come to a clear understanding as to the precise object at which they were to aim. In his view education was not concerned with teachings on matters of opinion. At the same time it was not a teaching of mere facts. They might well ask what was a 'fact,' for in the flux of knowledge things which appeared to be fixed and self-evident facts had dropped into the region of opinion and had not infrequently fallen still lower into the region of ill-founded opinions. At no time had that been truer than to-day and, on that shifting sand they ought hardly to found their educational edifice. They might ask why it was they wanted to educate when everything seemed so uncertain. It was just because of that uncertainty that they wanted to train the mind which had to deal with the external world by education, to teach each one to use the implement he possessed better and better for the purpose for which it appeared to be destined. To cram it with 'facts' which might or might not be relevant would rather harm than help. Till comparatively recently education was little else than a march of theology. The Church in Western Europe, at all events, was the custodian of the mind of the people. The process of emancipation was hardly yet completed. If they turned to the debates in Parliament on an educational question they would be struck with the fact that all hinged on what should or should not be taught in the schools on a very abstruse metaphysical question about the answer to which the world was still hopelessly divided. He wished he could leave the politicians to discuss that question till doomsday. It might keep them out of mischief; but in the meantime they should be permitted to give the people a real education which would not try to make men into encyclopædias, but would send out alert-minded citizens fitted to bear their part in the complicated questions which thronged upon them for solution. It was perhaps a dream of Utopia to hope that some far-seeing statesman would raise the school age to 16. Could that be done he firmly believed that the productive capacity and with it, the physical well-being of the people, would within a generation be increased out of all proportion to the immediate loss which would be sustained.

Advice to students by H. E. Sir G. Clarke.

The annual Convocation of the Bombay University was characterised by the earnest Address by the Chancellor, the Governor of Bombay, this being his last Convocation. The Chancellor made no reference to the University policy and the questions which have engaged the Senate and the Government during the last year or two, but addressed himself wholly to the students. In the course of his advice to them His Excellency said:—My views of life are deeply tinged by my inheritance of western thought, while yours already take their complexion from eastern customs, religions and environment. That is no bar between us. It does not in the least diminish the warm interest that I feel in your welfare. It need not cause you to doubt my friendship or to feel that I cannot enter into your ideals and aspirations. The difference between the East and the West is capable of exaggeration. It may be suggested to you that in the special political conditions that prevail in India, your influence cannot count adequately, and that only complete self-Government would give opportunities for your talents and weight to your opinion. Such suggestions do not entirely accord with the facts. The influence of sound and reasoned Indian thought is very great, and is increasing. The extent to which the administration of India by Indians is now carried on can be better judged by a Governor than anybody else, and my experience among you has forced me to revise many opinions formed in England. If you are earnest workers and thinkers, you need have no fear that you can exercise no influence in the political sphere, while in all other spheres there are unbounded opportunities for work. The national idea is wholly foreign to India. It has been planted on the Eastern soil as one of the results of Western learning and the assimilation of Western thought which the Universities of India have promoted. It is a high aspiration which I hope all you young men will cherish. There is not one of you who cannot do something towards its realisation by setting an example of the spirit of brotherhood, by acting not as members of castes and communities, but as citizens of India and by putting the general good foremost in your aims, but remember that it is to the British rule that you owe alike the idea of a common nationhood, "the stirrings of new life" to which His Majesty referred and the possibilities of gradually welding your diverse peoples into an Indian Nation fit for Government.

English and Indian Universities by His Excellency the Viceroy.

In reply to a strong deputation against establishing the new University at Dacca, His Excellency the Viceroy emphasised the importance of having a number of Teaching Universities and drew a comparison between English and Indian Universities. "The Calcutta University controls 52 colleges with 13,375 students; has a jurisdiction extending over both Bengals, Assam, Behar, Orissa, Chota Nagpur and Burma; examines some 9,000 candidates for Matriculation alone and is responsible for the higher education of a population of more than a hundred millions. In the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland there are no less than 17 Universities for the needs of a population of 45 millions, i.e., one University for about every 2½ millions. I do not wish to attach too much importance to a mere numerical comparison between Universities in England and in India, but even allowing the variety of conditions, the difference of figures is remarkable. The Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh Universities each possess a total of between 3 and 4 thousand students. The Glasgow University has between 2 to 3 thousand, Manchester 1,550, the University of Wales 1,700. Other English Universities appear to have less than 1,000. The inadequacy of the then existing systems to meet local circumstances and the severe strain imposed by the increasing number of students upon the Calcutta University were urged as long ago as 1886 as the reasons for the establishment of a University at Allahabad. The argument of numbers is far stronger to-day. Can it be seriously contended that it is compatible with educational progress to face the steadily increasing burdens of the Calcutta University in a spirit of inaction? How can the huge numbers continue to be examined satisfactorily, and how can the distant colleges continue to be adequately inspected? Are we to be content for ever to have one University for the re-united province? In the light of experience in other countries I cannot believe it. The most noteworthy fact in the recent history of the English University development is the gradual abandonment of the federal University, of the University which examines but does not teach. The London University was itself re-organised in 1898, and a Royal Commission is now sitting to consider its further re-organisation. I cannot understand how anybody can pretend that the constitution of one or even two or more Universities in a single province can possibly lead to an internal partition or division any more than the existence of Universities in most of the large towns or the contemplated Hindu or the Mahomedan Universities, which many of you support, lead to partition or division.

Lord Rosebery on the Scottish School of Character.

Lord Rosebery in proposing the toast of the city of Edinburgh at the annual congress dinner of the Educational Institute of Scotland, spoke at length on the Scottish School of Character. "The old school system of Scotland had an enormous number of defects. It was staffed by the dominie. The dominie of fable, the dominie of Sir Walter Scott was a being who was provided with hardly enough to keep body and soul together. The classes over which they presided were composed of lads very much less well nourished than they are now. It was an education of poverty and oatmeal and the classics. But, on the whole, it did not turn out bad men, and now you are rearing a generation on tea and football—not mingling in football, but as spectators of football. Oatmeal is discarded as an inferior food. Education is undoubtedly higher in all the standards and all the subjects, and all that makes for grants. I sometimes wonder myself whether we are turning out better men than we turned out 40 years ago, better men morally, better men even physically, men of more self-denial, more energy, more industry, more capacity for the work which is before them. If there be any doubt permissible on that point, we must admit that the great Act of Lord Young has not been so great a success as we anticipated, and it is in the working of that Act, as conducted by you and those you represent, that we have to hope for a great amelioration in the population which inhabits this ancient kingdom and in the future as regards the population that is to inhabit this ancient kingdom. If you cannot prove that you are turning out a better, a wiser, a stronger, and, in the best sense, a more Imperial race, your task is only half done.

When I say this I mean no disparagement to the teachers of this country. I know of no body of men or women to whom I would sooner take my hat off and for whom I feel a more unbounded respect. The doubt which pervades my mind, and to which I have just given expression, must in the main arise from causes external to their influence and operations, and I do beg them to remember this—if they do not remember it already, and if they do not regard it as presumption for one outside their body to make the suggestion—their first task is not to turn out learned men and women, but men and women fitted for the duty of citizenship. Scotland is based on character. The success of the Scottish nation has always been based on character, and, if the schools of this country fail to produce the character that they did in old times, they have something yet wanting in their sphere of operations."

Defects in University education condemned by H. E. the Governor of Bombay.

At the College of Science, H. E. Sir George Clarke made an important speech, expounding his views on education. The following extracts are quoted from it:—When I came to India I hoped to be able to do something to improve the educational methods, and to increase the educational facilities. I did not know the difficulties to be encountered, but also I had no idea of the wonderful generosity of the wealthy class of Indians and of their readiness to supply great public needs. The difficulties have been disheartening at times. It has required $3\frac{1}{2}$ years to introduce mild and grievously necessary reforms in the University curriculum. The generosity, on the other hand, has not only been to me a source of the greatest encouragement but I regard it as full of hope for India. In Bombay the Institute of Science, on which His Imperial Majesty most graciously conferred the title 'Royal' on the day of his leaving India, is rising steadily from its foundations. The fine contributions from generous representatives of the four communities amounting to Rs. 24 $\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs, with the Government aid of Rs. 5 lakhs, are available for the buildings' equipment. In the near future, it will be possible not only to carry on advanced teaching in science in Bombay but to undertake research work, of which there is great need. It has been said that I have devoted myself too exclusively to the cause of science in this Presidency, and that I undertake or ignore the benefits of classical and general education. Nothing could be farther from the facts. This day I believe I owe more to classics than to any other branches of study, though they alone could not have satisfied the needs of my career. I am even inclined to agree with Professor Max Muller that "literary culture can far better dispense with physical science than physical science with literary culture, though nothing is more satisfactory than a perfect combination, of the two." But, unfortunately, literary

culture in the sense in which Professor Max Muller uses the words, is rarely attained in the University of Bombay. The Indian student generally matriculates at an age at which his contemporaries in Western countries are at school. He thus enters the University unprepared for the training which he ought to receive there and weak in the languages in which he must be taught. The attempt to give him in four years a smattering of too many subjects and a mastery of none has palpably failed. My own view after more than four years of careful observation, is that higher education is certainly not fulfilling present requirements, and that the progress of India industrially and administratively is being retarded by the poverty of the intellectual equipment provided by the University. I do not in the least doubt the capacity of Indians, of which I know excellent examples, but the output of the Universities is too largely composed of slenderly educated young men whose intellects have not been fully awakened, who have not learned thoroughness, who have no idea of prosecuting their studies further, and who sometimes cherish an exaggerated estimate of their acquirements. It was clear to me from the first that the teaching of science in India was miserably inadequate, and that, apart from the practical aspects of science training, the natural bent of the Indian mind needs the corrective which knowledge of the laws of nature can supply. Far from believing that the reform and extension of science teaching was the only need of Higher education in the Presidency, I gave a long and careful study to the Arts curriculum, and, after much consideration, I suggested changes which were imperatively required. These changes have not all been achieved, but I am thankful for the progress made, and I firmly believe that the courses, if worked not in the letter only but in the spirit of reform, will lead to marked improvement in the educational equipment of our young men. More is certainly needed, but my shaft has spent itself, and the future will be in other hands.

The 'Backward' School Boys and how to deal with them by Sir James Crichton Browne.

The treatment of "backward" children was the subject of an interesting address by Sir James Crichton Browne, presiding at the annual Conference of London County Council Teachers at Birkbeck College, Chancery Lane, on January 5.

Sir James said mental backwardness might be due to organic causes—an arrest in one of the later stages of cerebral evolution, or a failure in the linking up of the higher association centres in the cortex of the brain, but it might also be due to morbid blood states, to suppressed secretions, to toxic agents, to visceral diseases, to impaired nutrition, and, he must say it, to faulty teaching. It was this very multiplicity of possible roots of mental backwardness in the child that made the study of it of first importance, and called for the co-operation in that study of the teacher and the medical man.

Hitherto backwardness had been dealt with mainly by methods of education. He did not under-rate the value of those, but very often they were futile by themselves, and might have availed if they had been combined with medical treatment. It could not be too strongly impressed on teachers that they should be on the lookout for individual children who exhibited backwardness or any mental peculiarity, and should bring them specially under the notice of the medical officers; and it could not be too strongly impressed upon the school medical officers that all such children should be subjected to special examination so that their mental capacity might be gauged, and any morbid conditions associated with their mental abnormality discovered and treated. It was the backward children that chiefly deserved attention.

He did not hesitate to say that in the case of idiots there had been much wasteful expenditure

of educational energy. They might "gild" but could not expand the straitened forehead of the fools. He had witnessed with impatience accomplished men and women hammering away at an aborted brain to secure a merely mechanical response. For low type idiots and imbeciles what they should aim at was to please them so that they could involve no risk to the community now or hereafter, to correct their faulty habits, to make them comfortable and happy, and to teach them any simple industry of which they were capable.

One condition that was responsible for backwardness, by checking brain growth or degrading brain function, was impaired nutrition, which was a frequent cause of temporary backwardness, and which, if continued, might permanently dwarf and damage the brain. They would be sometimes told that the brain was the last organ to suffer from deprivation of food. They must not believe that. His own conviction was that it was the first to suffer. It might, under starvation, retain its plump contour and show less wasting than other organs, but what of its delicate machinery within?

He had been proclaiming for 30 years that feeding came before education. He was deeply convinced that it was culpable folly to require brain work to children that were under-fed, and that much backwardness in school children was attributable to insufficient nourishment during the school period. To tax the growing brain that was ill-nourished was a sure way to stir up into activity any inherited tendency to disease that might be latent in it, and to diminish its power of resistance to those pathogenic bacilli that were always prowling about seeking whom they might devour.

The teaching of Mathematics and the Development of the average boy by Professor E. W. Hobson.

Professor E. W. Hobson, President of the Mathematical Association, delivered the opening Address on January 11th last at the annual meeting held at the London Day Training College, Southampton Row.

Professor Hobson took as his subject "The Democratization of Mathematical Education." The modern tendency of educational policy was, he said, towards its democratization and by this he meant in the present instance not the expansion of education to wider classes of the community, but rather the progressive adaption of the methods and the matter of teaching so as to meet the needs of those who lacked any exceptional capacity. Progress in this sense had been, perhaps, more marked in mathematical instruction than in other departments of education. The notion of the old system was that mathematics should be in the main medicinal and corrective. Its advantages consisted largely in calling forth the use of the faculties which were the rarest in the average boy or girl, and were therefore thought to be in special need of development. The existence of the Mathematical Association was a warrant of the widespread dissatisfaction with those methods both in their results and aims.

It was not yet possible to form any precise estimate of the actual effects of the recent reform in mathematical teaching. But that in many quarters the gain had already been considerable he had no doubt. It was right, for instance, to proceed gradually from the practical and concrete to the more abstract and theoretical. But the adoption of more correct principles was only one; their actual translation into practice gave rise to many difficulties and dangers, some of which had certainly not been altogether avoided. Education in mathematics must be pronounced a failure if it did not rise beyond the purely practical aspect to the domain of principle. The most important educational aspect of the subject, was as an instrument for training boys and girls to think accurately and independently, and with this in view the more general and theoretical parts of the subject should not be entirely sacrificed to the exigency of providing useful tools for application in after-life or to the supposed need of sustaining interest in the subject by a too anxious adherence to its concrete and practical side.

Reviews and Notices.

A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC, BY W. E. HEITLAND. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 6s.

This book which is an abridgment of the author's larger work on the same subject comprising three volumes, is eminently suited as a text-book for our Intermediate students. Written in a plain narrative style, illustrated by a number of sketch-maps and beautiful plates of coins, with detailed explanations of technical terms and usages, it cannot but facilitate the easy apprehension of the broad outlines in the development and decay of the most glorious of ancient Empires. The arrangement of chapters and paragraphs is good and great care is taken by the author in avoiding congestion of proper names and unintelligible legal terms. The description of the early institutions of Rome is especially adapted for easy assimilation. One good feature of the work is the addition of a chapter towards the end about Literature and Jurisprudence during the Ciceronian Age. We have however to regret the massing of details in some parts, especially in those which deal with wars and campaigns.

A HAND-BOOK OF ENGLISH ECONOMIC HISTORY, BY V. RANGACHARIAR, M.A., L.T. (SARASVATI PUBLISHING HOUSE, MADRAS). Re. 1.

Intended to lighten the task of Intermediate students this short book gives in clear outline a summary of the Economic History of England. The description of epoch-making events is done in detail and the views of great authorities like Ashley and Cunningham are quoted and compared on debated questions. The early history of Britain especially up to the Conquest is dealt with on an elaborate scale. The introduction of brief surveys of important periods at the beginnings of chapters is a marked feature helping the student greatly. The arrangement of the work follows closely that of Townshend Warner. On the whole the book would serve as a good guide for examinations.

ARCADIA: SIDNEY. (THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 4s. 6d. net.

The only literary works of Sir Philip Sidney which command some popularity are probably his *Defence of Poesie* and his Sonnets. It is a pity that the *Arcadia* should almost remain unread except by a few advanced students of literature. It was an excellent idea of the Cambridge University to bring out the complete works of Sir Philip Sidney under the able editorship of Albert Feuillerat of the University of Rennes.

The original edition has been reprinted with great care and a few notes have been added wherever necessary. In view of the absence of good and complete editions of Sidney's works, we have no doubt the volumes will command extensive popularity.

We have however to note with regret that the editor has not any essay by way of introduction—it must be welcome to the ordinary reader, especially if it gave a biographical study of Sidney and a critical examination of his works. We look forward with pleasure to the succeeding two volumes which are to contain the other parts of his work.

THE ENGLISH JOURNAL: (THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS). Annual subscription 12s. 6d.

Nothing is more striking in the educational world of to-day than the extent of specialization that has been carried in all branches of knowledge. It must also have often been noticed that the teaching of English has never received the attention that has been bestowed on other subjects. While it was always considered that the teaching of the sciences required special methods and elaborate preparation of a particular type English was often left to itself. It is therefore with very great pleasure that we welcome this new attempt to deal with problems of English teaching in a thorough and practical manner. We believe this is the only Journal of its kind and its value is considerably enhanced by its being the organ of the American National Council of Teachers of English, edited by a board of distinguished educationists.

An examination of the contents of the first number must inspire with hopes of a very successful career for the Journal. Mr. Edwin Hopkins leads off with an article on 'Can good composition be done under present conditions?' The complaint is put forward that the teaching of English is consigned to a very subordinate position in the school curriculum and an enquiry into these conditions is suggested. Mr. W. D. Lewis of Philadelphia writes on the 'Aim of the English Course.' Quite an illuminating article is that of Mr. Herbert Bates on *The School and Current Fiction*. In view of the lamentable tendency in boys to develop a taste for the sensational novel with a morbid philosophy of life, the article must be of very general interest. *Financial Support of English Teaching* by Mr. Coulter is a plea for the employment of a larger number of teachers of English, to lessen the strain generally imposed on a teacher of the subject. We extend our hearty welcome to the

new Journal and wish it a long career of usefulness and prosperity.

THE DIRECT TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN INDIAN SCHOOLS, BY PERCIVAL WREN, M.A. (LONGMANS, GREEN & Co.) Rs. 3.

We have great pleasure in welcoming Professor Wren's book on the Direct Teaching of English in Indian Schools. The author has already made a reputation for himself as an educationist of considerable ability. Teachers of English in Southern India have been familiar with some forms of the Direct Method, but the most comprehensive and lucid treatment of the subject is now presented in Mr. Wren's book. The main characteristics of the volume under notice are emphasized by Mr. Wren in these words: 'A living language must be first *talked* and then *read* and then *written*. Consign its Grammar rules to the Bottomless Pit, together with all hand-books of Grammar, idioms, hints, answers, parsing and analysis, and definitions, until the pupil can talk and read and write the language.'

We desire to avoid drawing invidious distinctions between Mr. Wren's treatise and other attempts at expounding the subject which have come within our notice during the last some years. But we feel it our duty to draw attention to the superiority of Mr. Wren's book in two important directions. There is no exaggerated enthusiasm paid to the niceties of pronunciation as if they were an end by themselves. Accuracy of pronunciation is not carried to the absurd length as scientific analysis of sound and the application of laboratory methods to mar the music of words. We are glad to note that this book of guidance to teachers knows nothing of 'intonation curves,' 'initial plosive fricatives,' 'imperfectly devocalised nasalised consonants,' or 'diphthongised intermediate between open back-rounded and half-open back-rounded'—and all that grotesque jargon of the enthusiastic exponent of Phonetics.

Another point of superiority would seem to be in the author's successful attempt to present the method as far as possible, in Indian conditions. We are aware of a painfully artificial system that has been recently pressed on schools here with the prestige of official authority, which aims at imparting a knowledge of English in its native atmosphere—boring the students by details of *English Seasons* mentioning the *daisy* and the *cowslip*, the *robin*, and the *nightingale*. If Mr. Wren's book had no other qualification than an exclusion of this

absurdity we should have given it ample praise. But we perceive several aspects of positive excellence. Special attention is paid to composition; the conversation lessons can boast of naturalness; and every attempt has been made to render the book useful as a general guide to English teaching more than as the mere exposition of a technical method.

THE SMALLER CAMBRIDGE BIBLE FOR SCHOOLS: (Each 1 Shilling net):—

JUDGES, EDITED BY JOHN SUTHERLAND BLACH, LL. D.

RUTH, EDITED BY A. W. STREANE, D.D.

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE KINGS, EDITED BY T. H. HENNESSY, M.A.

PROVERBS, EDITED BY REV. J. R. COATES, B.A.

JOEL AND AMOS, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY J. C. H. HOW, M.A.

THE ACTS OF THE APOSTLES, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY H. C. O. LANCHESTER, M.A.

Of these little commentaries, two, 'on *Kings* and on *Acts*,' are new editions, the first editions having been published in 1891 and 1890 respectively; the others appear to be entirely new books. It is indeed almost misleading to speak of the book on *Acts* as being a new edition as it has been very largely re-written and full use has been made of the new light that has been shed on early Christian history by the researches of scholars such as Harnack and Ramsay. Each of the books is thoroughly up-to-date and contains very serviceable introductory matter and a useful index and map, in addition to the commentary on the text, which is almost, though not quite, identical with the authorised version, and is conveniently printed in paragraphs. The little volume on *Joel and Amos* is an admirable piece of work, containing in brief compass just such information as is necessary to make the Minor Prophets intelligible to young students, and to explain the place prophecy held in the life of Israel. The two commentaries on the historical books are also well suited for the class of students for which they are intended, and the Introduction to *Proverbs* gives very useful suggestions with regard to the Biblical view of wisdom, as well as summing up what needs to be known about the authorship and literary form of the book. In the book on *Acts* a particularly useful section of the Introduction gives a brief account of the more important persons mentioned in the *Acts*.

In the notes on all the books prominence is given to the renderings of the Revised Version by means of heavy type, and obscurities are carefully dealt with. It is of course inevitable that in many cases fuller treatment is very desirable, and

these books, admirable as they are for the pupil, must to a large extent be supplemented by the teacher. Reference is made in the books themselves to the larger series—"The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges"—and the teacher will certainly need some such more advanced text-book. But this is no disparagement to the "Smaller Cambridge Bible" which in the material it contains no less than in the neat and convenient form of its production is altogether worthy of the Cambridge University Press.

HAZELL'S ANNUAL FOR 1912, EDITED BY HAMMOND HALL. 27TH YEAR OF ISSUE. (HAZELL, WATSON AND VINEY, LTD., 52, LONG ACRE, W. C., LONDON). 3/6 net.

Hazell's Annual for 1912 is a helpful guide to the great political questions of the coming year. It furnishes as lucid an account as is possible of the world movements of 1911, of the National Insurance Bill, the Railway Crisis, and all the other domestic questions of the day, and it records every Ministerial indication of importance as to the scope of coming measures. Its interests, however, are by no means confined to politics nor even to the more serious phases of social and religious progress. Music, Art, Sport, and the Drama all have due space accorded them, and among new features we welcome a review of the Books of the Year, a map of the territorial changes in the French Congo, and a Diary—extending over eleven pages—of notable events. The mass of information contained in the volume is rendered readily available by a very full and clearly printed index. As showing the "up-to-dateness" of the book it may be mentioned that it contains a summary of Sir Edward Grey's Speech on the Morocco Crisis, the most important of the later amendments to the Insurance Bill, and the appointment of Mr. Anderson as Solicitor-General for Scotland. The *Annual* is an almanack and an encyclopædia in one, and while it is indispensable to the politician, the writer, and the preacher, it commends itself by the variety and authenticity of its information to everyone else who wishes to be well-informed.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Pachaiyappa's High School Literary Union Anniversary Meeting.—The anniversary of the above Union was celebrated on the 17th instant at the Pachaiyappa's College with the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundara Iyer in the Chair. The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Iyer delivered the Anniversary Address in the course of which he said:—

"I have lately been reading that excellent book of Sister Nivedita on 'The Civic and National Ideals' in which she says, in speaking of the whole world "yet there are in the world at any given moment so many evils that might be removed, so many sorrows that might be mitigated, so many tasks that need not be left undone." This statement applies with greater force to India than to any other country and young men ought to take it to heart. If every one of us is honest and selfless and works with earnestness and zeal for the cause of our country, then surely many evils might be removed, many sorrows mitigated, and many tasks accomplished. Never be afraid of making mistakes. But for some mistakes that men commit, there will be no real progress. Bear in mind, as Sister Nivedita says, that "there is not room for one moment of viciousness." Not only does viciousness spoil a man but it extends further and spoils a whole community.

"Another important lesson you should learn is that "the scavenger who serves well the civic ideal of cleanliness is a better citizen than a Brahmin if the latter serves only himself." The high veneration in which the Brahmin was held by all classes of the community was not due to his intellectuality but to his broad-mindedness and selflessness. If you want to restore India to its ancient glory, realise that caste exclusiveness begotten of selfishness cannot accomplish that task. Not only must the Brahmin but every true Indian be broad-minded and selfless."

The Chairman, in the course of his remarks, after thanking them for having given him the opportunity of presiding congratulated the Society on its good work during the past year. Just as the lecturer had pointed out, he would exhort the audience, to be strenuous in their work. Strenuousness, he said, was wanting in the people of oriental countries, though there was plenty of brains. That defect, he proceeded to say, applied as much to others. He quoted Sister Nivedita who said that there was absolutely no time which anybody could afford to waste.

The Chairman then gave some advice to the students to do their duties to themselves and to the country, to work strenuously and with determination, to respect elders and to listen to their advice and to consider before they decided to act, to make all knowledge their portion and to make it one of the canons of their lives to help each other and serve mankind as much as possible. He said, in conclusion, he would be delighted to hear that in the course of the next year the members of the Union would form themselves into a service corps, the members of which would try to serve others in some particular way by adopting some particular line of effort for unselfish service to mankind.

With a vote of thanks to the Chairman and to the lecturer, the proceedings were brought to a close.

A State Technical Scholarship.—After consulting the Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Association

and some of the leading commercial firms in Madras the Governor in Council considers that the State Technical Scholarship available for award in this Presidency in the current year may most advantageously be assigned for the study of "electrical engineering." The following notification has accordingly been published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* and in all the District Gazettes:—

A State Technical Scholarship will be awarded in this Presidency during the current year for the study of electrical engineering. Candidates desirous of prosecuting the technical study of electrical engineering should submit their applications for the scholarship to the Director of Public Instruction, so as to reach him on or before the 1st March 1912.

2. Other things being equal preference will be given to graduates in engineering or graduates in arts who have specialized in mathematics or physics.

3. Ordinarily the period for which these scholarships may be held is two years, but in special cases, it may be increased to three years or reduced below two years. The value of the scholarships has been fixed at £150 sterling a year, but if in any particular case this amount is found insufficient, the Government will be prepared on good grounds to consider its enhancement. The scholarships are tenable in Great Britain and, with the approval of the Secretary of State, in a foreign country.

4. The holder of the scholarship will not be bound by any engagement to serve the Government on the completion of his course, nor will the Government be bound to employ him. He must generally depend upon his own exertions to make his living on his return to India and must not ordinarily expect to be taken into Government service. In selecting candidates, the Governor in Council will be guided by considerations of capacity, character and practical interest in the industry selected, and the assurance that the candidate will continue to devote himself to that industry on his return to India. No age limit is laid down for scholars. The course of study to be followed as well as the place in which it is to be prosecuted will be settled by the Secretary of State when a scholar arrives in England. Other conditions under which the scholarships are held are—

(1) that the candidate is a native of India as defined in section 6 of the Government of India Act, 1870, viz., "a person born and domiciled within the dominions of His Majesty in India, of parents habitually resident in India, and not established there for temporary purposes only;"

(2) that he has the consent of his family (i.e. of his father or guardian) to proceed to Europe or America;

(3) that his character is good;

(4) that he has sufficient knowledge of the English language; and

(5) that he is physically fit to undergo the course of life and study that he will have to follow.

5. Special Rules have been framed by the Secretary of State for the guidance of Indian Government Technical Scholars in England.

Rules of admission for the Presidency College, Madras.

The following appears in the *Fort St. George Gazette*:—The attention of Principals of Second Grade Colleges, Headmasters of Secondary Schools, parents and students is drawn to the following rules of admission:—

FIRST YEAR CLASS.

Admission of Students holding Secondary School Leaving Certificates.

A very high standard of proficiency in English will invariably be required, and each student accepted for admission should have proved himself to be not below the average in Elementary Mathematics.

Students proposing to take Vernacular Composition under Part II of the course for the Intermediate Examination should have shown proficiency in Vernacular Composition under Group A of the School-Leaving Certificate Course, and those proposing to take Translation should have shown proficiency under Group C in the language which they will have to translate.

Students proposing to study the subjects of Intermediate Group (i) should have taken in the Public Examination at least two of the three following subjects under Group C, viz., Algebra and Geometry, Physics and Chemistry, and the marks gained therein and in Elementary Mathematics and in Elementary Science should have indicated aptitude for these subjects.

Students proposing to study the subjects of Intermediate Group (ii) should have taken two of the subjects, Physics, Chemistry and Botany, under Group C, and have shown aptitude for the subjects as well as for Mathematics as indicated by their marks in Algebra and Geometry or in Elementary Mathematics or in both. They should also have done well in Elementary Science under Group B.

Students proposing to take a History subject in Intermediate Group (iii) should have been examined in the History of England under Group C, and the results in that subject and in the History of India and Geography should have indicated aptitude for those subjects.

Students proposing to take a Classical, Vernacular or Foreign language in Intermediate Group (iii) should have taken that language under Group C, and have gained good marks.

Every student proposing to take Intermediate Group (iii) should have shown proficiency in at least two subjects in Group C.

Admission of Students holding other Certificates.

The principles of the above rules will as far as possible be applied, i.e., no student will be considered eligible for admission whose certificate does not show him to be proficient in English, Elementary Mathematics, Vernacular Composition (or Translation), and at least two of the subjects in the group which he proposes to take up.

The following contributions only in Group (iii) are provided for by the College:—

- (a) Ancient and Modern History and a Classical language.
- (b) Ancient and Modern History and Logic.
- (c) Two Languages and Logic.
- (d) Ancient History, a Classical Language and Logic.

Religious and Moral Instruction.—The Government have appointed a committee consisting of the following gentlemen to consider and report upon the question of religious and moral instruction in schools:—

- The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, *President*.
 The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P. R. Sundara Aiyar.
 The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar.
 The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Muhammad Habibullah Sahib Bahadur.
 Diwan Bahadur P. Rajaratna Mudaliyar, C.I.E.
 Rao Bahadur M. Rangachariyar, Professor of Sanskrit, Presidency College.
 Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatartihara Aiyar, Inspector of Schools, Fourth Circle.
 Mr. T. R. Ramachandra Aiyar, High Court Vakil.
 Mr. M. Krishnamachariyar, Headmaster, Hinpur Secondary School.
 Mr. A. Panchapakasa Aiyar, Headmaster, P. S. High School, Mylapore.
 The Rev. W. Maston, Madras Christian College.
 The Rev. J. S. M. Hooper, Principal, Wesleyan Mission High School, Triplicane.
 The Rev. Father Bertram, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly.
 The Rev. H. Pakenham-Walsh, Bishop Cotton Boys' School, Bangalore.
 The Rev. Canon G. Herbert Smith, representing the Missionary Council on Aided Education.
 Diwan Bahadur K. Krishnaswami Rao, C.I.E., representing the Council of Native Education.
 Mr. K. B. Ramanatha Aiyar, representing the Madras Teachers' Guild.
 The report of the Committee should be submitted to Government through the Director of Public Instruction.

BOMBAY.

College of Commerce for Bombay—Endowment of a Chair. The following correspondence is published for general information:—

'Westfield,' Warden Road,
 Bombay, 30th January, 1912.

To

HIS EXCELLENCY BREVET-COLONEL
 THE HONOURABLE SIR GEORGE SYDENHAM
 CLARKE, G.C.M.G., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., F.R.S., etc.,
 Governor of Bombay.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

The public of Bombay cannot be too grateful to Your Excellency for the keen and lively interest

you take in the welfare of the people committed to your charge and for the zeal and ardour with which you have been endeavouring ever since you took charge of the exalted office of Governor of Bombay to initiate and promote schemes calculated to secure the advancement of the people. As I strongly feel that it is the duty of every citizen to offer your Excellency every possible help in the realization of those schemes, I venture to approach your Excellency with the following proposal which, I am sure, will appeal to your Excellency's most favourable consideration.

I belong to a characteristically commercial community and am, therefore, deeply interested in the imparting of commercial education to the rising generation. It is my firm belief that India's salvation lies in the promotion of industry and commerce. But I am sorry to have to say that there are no facilities afforded to such of our youths as are desirous of going in for commercial education. If your Excellency's Government establishes a College of Commerce, I am ready to place at your Excellency's disposal a sum of Rs. two lakhs which should be invested to form a permanent fund to endow a Chair in some branch or branches of Commerce study to bear my name in perpetuity.

I beg to remain,
 Your Excellency's most obedient servant,
 JUGMOHANDAS VURJEEVANDAS.

4th February 1912.

DEAR MR. JUGMOHANDAS VURJEEVANDAS,

I thank you warmly for the most generous offer contained in your letter of the 30th ultimo. It is, as you are aware, my earnest wish that a College of Commerce should be fairly launched before I leave India. I have long thought that the development of commerce and industry is essential to the progress and prosperity of India, and that such development could be greatly aided if we were able to provide a sound commercial education in all its branches.

I am very glad to find that you, with your far greater practical experience, hold the same views.

If, as I believe, Government will soon be in a position with the help of the commercial and industrial bodies to take steps to create a College of Commerce, I shall most gratefully accept your most generous offer to endow a Chair to bear your name in perpetuity. Meanwhile, I warmly thank you for the promised help which, following upon the splendid donations which have been made to the cause of science teaching, fills me with encouragement and shows the fine public spirit which animates the wealthy citizens of Bombay.

With all best thanks

Believe me,
 Yours truly,
 G. S. CLARKE.

Prof. Sohrab R. Davar, F. S. S.—The progress of commercial education in India has no more enthusiastic advocate than Prof. Davar. In 1900 he established Davar's College in Bombay, an institution which has done yeoman service in India and is known throughout the world. The College is officially recognised for State scholarships by the Governments of H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore, H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda, H. H. the Begum Sahiba of Bhopal, and is affiliated with the Presidency College, Calcutta. Professor Davar has made repeated journeys to the principal European cities in order to obtain the latest information, and keep himself constantly in touch with the most recent schemes of commercial education. In August last he was for the eighth time in London, investigating the newest methods of imparting commercial knowledge and making himself acquainted with the various systems and arrangements in force in our universities and leading institutions of commerce.

Professor Davar is a Barrister, entitled to practise both at the English and Indian Bars, and has passed the Final Examination of the Society of Incorporated Accountants and Auditors, and also that of the Chartered Institute of Secretaries. He is also Hon. Secretary for India for the Examination Boards of the Midland Union of Institutes and represents the Central Association of Accountants, and his College has this year been made a centre for the examination of the Institute of Bankers. He is the author of a very useful work, "Ad Referendum of Accounting" published by Messrs. Gee & Co., London. The examination successes of students of Davar's College have broken all records in the history of commercial education in India, as many as 221 passes having been secured in one year. Professor Davar may well feel proud of the unexampled success which has followed his efforts, and which cannot but be acknowledged to be thoroughly well deserved.—*Commercial Education (London)*.

CALCUTTA.

Post-Graduate Research Scholarships, 1912.—The following Notification has been issued by the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal:—

Two 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 1912.

No candidate will be considered who has not passed the M.A., the M.Sc., the M.D., the D.L. or the Master in Engineering Examination of the Calcutta University in 1909, 1910 or 1911. No candidate will be considered who is not possessed of high qualifications, and who cannot show that he has a capacity for original research.

One of the scholarships will be awarded to a candidate who proposes to carry on original research in some scientific subject, such as Natural and Physical Science, Chemistry, Mathematical Science,

etc. The other may be awarded to a candidate who undertakes research in some literary subject, such as a Language, Comparative Philology, Palæography, Epigraphy, Philosophy, History, Archaeology, Anthropology, etc.; but no application for a scholarship for research in a literary subject will be considered unless a candidate presents himself who not only shows that he has the capacity for undertaking the research proposed, but also makes it clear, by the programme which he submits that he has thought out a definite course of enquiry. In the event of no suitable candidate for a literary research scholarship being forthcoming, both the scholarships may be awarded for scientific research.

Sanskrit College.—The annual distribution of prizes to the students of the Sanskrit College took place at the College premises in the presence of a notable gathering of European and Indian ladies and gentlemen. The Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., presided and Lady Butler gave away the prizes.

After the distribution of prizes, the President made a speech in the course of which he said:

Gentlemen,—I am glad to have the opportunity of meeting you this afternoon. The history and traditions of your College are not unfamiliar to me and it is a real pleasure to make your acquaintance on the scene of your successful labours. The report to which we have listened is a story of growth and ever-widening activity. The Board of Sanskrit Examinations, which is intimately connected with the College, now controls some 1,300 tols and examines some 8,000 candidates, and you desire that its operations should be still further extended. You also feel the need of a hostel. I understand that your requests on these matters have been laid before the local Government. I am sure that I am voicing the opinions of all present in offering congratulations to the Principal and Staff on the results of the year's work. May I add my assurance that no institution over whose governing body my friend Sir Ashutosh Mukherji presides, is likely to stand still?

Department of Education.—The Governor-General in Council is pleased to re-appoint the Hon'ble Justice Sir Ashutosh Mukherji, Kt., C. S. I., M. A., D. L., D. Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E., to be Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta, with effect from the 31st March 1912.

Mr. S. K. Murphy, I. S. O., Superintendent of the 1st grade in the Department of Education, is permitted to retire from the service, with effect from the 16th January 1912.

The Annual Meeting of the Calcutta University.—At the Annual Meeting of the Calcutta University certain important matters were decided upon. Dr. G. Thibaut was re-appointed Registrar of the University and Dr. P. K. Ray as the University Inspector of Colleges, for a further term of five

years. Professor B. C. Ghosh was appointed University Lecturer in Philosophy of Religion and Comparative Religion. The annual report contained the usual statistics of the year from which we learn that the total number of candidates who appeared at this year's Examination was 14,481 against 9,972 in the previous year. The number of candidates registered for the Matriculation Examination held in March, 1911, was 6,117, of whom 4,334 passed, 1,794 failed, 37 were absent and 2 disallowed. Of the successful candidates 2,518 were placed in the First Division, 1,610 in the Second, and 213 in the Third. Of the 1,794 candidates who failed, 1,421 were rejected in English, 324 in Compulsory Mathematics, and 190 in Additional Mathematics, 646 in Compulsory Classical Languages and 152 in Additional Classical Languages, 143 in the Vernacular Composition, 1,114 in History, 163 in Geography, 36 in Mechanics, and 95 for not obtaining the minimum aggregate. So many as fourteen High Schools which have failed, on the average of the three preceding examinations held in 1909, 1910 and 1911, to pass 33 per cent. of the candidates sent up for examination, were warned that if they failed to show better results at the next examination, they would be removed from the list of recognised institutions qualified to send up candidates to the Matriculation Examination.

PUNJAB.

New Technical Scholarships.—The *Punjab Gazette* announces the establishment of new Technical Scholarships for the Punjab bearing the name of Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Dunlop Smith, whose Indian admirers have raised a fund to commemorate his services to India after providing for a portrait in the Lawrence Hall, Lahore. The residue of the fund Rs. 34,200 has been invested to provide four scholarships of Rs. 25 each per mensem tenable for four years at the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay. They will be awarded at the rate of one annually to a student belonging to the Punjab or to any Native State under the Punjab Government. In case of any Technical Institute being started in the Punjab the scholarships would be transferred to that institution.

ALLAHABAD.

London Mission High School, Benares.—The prize distribution of the London Mission High School, Benares, was held before a fairly large attendance of Indian and European ladies and gentlemen. Mr. C. H. C. Streatfeild, the Collector, presided. The proceedings opened with a prayer by the Rev. Mr. Cutting. There were Urdu, Hindi and English recitations. The last was from the 'Merchant of Venice.' It was exceedingly well done. The Head Master, Mr. N. K. Ghosh, then delivered his speech and said in conclusion:—'I shall thank you for your kindly presiding on this occasion, knowing very well

COCHIN.

how you may be growing weary of this sort of function. But then we, as a public school, have a right to have the Collector of the district in our midst for an hour or so, once a year. I can assure you that your presence has been greatly appreciated by all of us, but mostly by my boys, in whose young minds, you form a link between them and the sovereign power in the country's Government, to whom they are ever ready to affirm allegiance as loyal citizens in perspective.'

Mr. Streatfeild in his closing remarks after the distribution of prizes, referred to the good work the school had been doing for more than half a century. He paid a well merited tribute to the Principal and the Head Master. He expressed his satisfaction at the work of the classes, which, he said, contributed to the popularity and efficiency of the school. He hoped that the school would in the near future have a decent hostel.

The Head Master proposed a vote of thanks to the Chair and the proceedings terminated with enthusiastic cheers for the Collector.

Edward Memorial School, Bareilly.—Bareilly witnessed an interesting ceremony at Tehri when Mr. Allen, Collector, laid the foundation stone of the Edward Memorial School building in the presence of a large gathering of local gentry. The weather was threatening all day long, but all apprehensions vanished at the time of the meeting when the sun emerged from the clouds and shone on the popular Collector as he proceeded to lay the foundation stone. The proceedings commenced with hymns and prayers. Grisidas recited poems in Persian, Urdu and Hindi. Then the Secretary, Babu Prithinath, Subordinate Judge, read the report explaining how the school came into existence. Mr. Allen in reply expressed great satisfaction that so many gentlemen had, notwithstanding the inclemency of the weather, responded to the invitation of the promoters of the school. During the six years of his incumbency as Collector two middle schools had been raised to high schools, and that new school had been founded. All that, he said showed that the citizens of Bareilly took great interest in educational matters and promised the success of the venture. He then laid the foundation stone amidst loud and prolonged cheers and the proceedings came to a happy close.

The Hindu University Meeting at Benares.—At the Hindu University Meeting, Benares, Rupees two lakhs eighty-four thousand and twelve were announced as promised, out of which about Rs. 6,000 were realised. Amongst the principal donors were H. E. the Maharajah of Benares Rs. 1 lakh, Babu Motichand Rs. 1 lakh, a humble Hindu Rs. 25,000, Rai Krishna Chund Rs. 10,000, Rai Shiamkrishna Raogopal Dass, Vajaynath Dass and Babu Govindas Rs. 5,000 each.

The Cochin Inter-School Sports—Prizes distributed by the Rajah.—The Cochin Inter-School Sports held on the 2nd instant in conjunction with the Annual Exhibition and Show have become a regular event, and as usual were held in the Residency grounds. The weather was fine, and the attendance fair. The enthusiasm evinced by the competitors from as many as eighteen institutions in the State showed that the organization has become more popular as the years roll by. The arrangements made by Mr. Glyn Barlow, Principal of the Ernakulam College and President of the Sports Committee, assisted, of course, by a committee, left nothing to be desired. Amongst the Judges were:—Captain Brown, R. E., Messrs. Brown, McGuire, Wilkie, Plowden, Reid, Shanguney Menon, Atchuta Menon, Ramunny Menon, Govinda Menon, Raghavan Nambiar and Chakko. The Cochin State Band was in attendance and played choice selections at intervals. Mr. A. R. Bannerji, the Dewan, arrived first and His Highness the Rajah accompanied by two Princes of the Royal family arrived shortly after.

The following are the events:—Long Jump; Three-legged Race; Hundred Yards' Race; Shooting at Goal; Throwing the Cricket Ball; Half a Mile Race; Sack-Race; High Jump; Hurdles; Putting the Shot; Quarter-Mile Race; Obstacle Race; Tug-of-War between the Masters on the one side and the Judges on the other, and another Tug-of-War between the Department and the public.

The prize winners assembled in front of the mosque and Mr. Barlow, in a brief felicitous speech, requested His Highness the Rajah to distribute the prizes, Cups and Shields, which were many. His Highness very graciously presented the awards with a kind word to each of the recipients.

His Highness the Rajah's Shield, Mr. Bannerji's Cup, Mr. Pathappan's Tug-of-War Shield, Mr. Davies' Tug-of-War Cup, and the Trichur Sirkar High School Old Boys' Cup were all won and carried away by the District High School, Trichur.

At the conclusion of the distribution of prizes Mr. Bannerji, on behalf of His Highness made a short speech and expressed His Highness' great gratification that the sports were year after year attracting a larger number of schools to take part in them. Those who had attended the previous year would agree with him when he said that there had been no abatement of interest. On the other hand, there had been a noticeable increase of interest in every direction. He congratulated the Trichur High School on having won all the trophies, but warned them that their success should not turn their heads, but should continue to make them improve. He at the same time exhorted those who had not won any prizes not to be disheartened but to work harder with a view to

gaining them at the next contest. The Dewan announced that Paliath Vatha Achan had offered a foot ball challenge cup to be competed for from next year. He also thanked the Judges and the Sports Committee for the assistance they had rendered to make the sports a success.

TRAVANCORE.

The Travancore Education Directorate.—A correspondent writes to the *Hindu*: Dr. A. C. Mitchell, Director of Public Instruction in Travancore, is retiring from the service of the State on the 23rd of February 1912 after a long career of over 22 years in the Education Department as Professor of Pure and Applied Mathematics and Principal of H. H. the Maharajah's College and recently as Director of Public Instruction. It is admitted on all hands that Dr. Mitchell has left his impress indelibly on the institutions over which he presided during his tenure of office, although there is a very strong public opinion that there is considerable room for two opinions as to whether his work was a success. With all that, it must be said that Dr. Mitchell has always been able to get on well with the Government and after he was installed as Director and had succeeded in raising a howl of protest from all parts of the country, even the very strong administration of Dewan Bahadur P. Rajagopalachari, could come out with commendatory G. O.'s full of praises for their redoubtable Director! It is a relief that at last they have found their way to bid him farewell, although they will find life heavy with them after he is gone—so much has he become a *sine qua non* of their existence.

As successor to Dr. Mitchell the Government have pitched upon Dr. A. W. Bishop, Principal of the College, as in all fairness they should. Dr. Bishop entered the service 18 years ago as Professor of Chemistry and has continued in that appointment ever since discharging the additional duties of the permanent Principal also during the past 3 years.

Generous, sympathetic and well-meaning, Dr. Bishop has from the beginning endeared himself to all who had had anything to do with him. He has also acted as Director for 3 months during the absence, on furlough, of Dr. Mitchell. His career has throughout remained unsullied by any wanton act of oppression. No feat of intellect, no high and mighty project of originality or reconstruction claims him as its author; but he has always done his work honestly and sincerely. We have every confidence in Dr. Bishop's qualities of heart and as for his qualities of the head we have to wait and judge. But for one thing, Dr. Bishop is placed in a position peculiarly unfortunate for, there are high expectations formed, grave and difficult questions are awaiting solution, and a formidable crisis has to be tided. Dr. Mitchell's work lies incomplete and there yet remains much to be done by way of weeding and manuring for it to bring in a plentiful harvest.

Dr. Bishop is now on deputation at the Director's Office and it is said that before Dr. Mitchell leaves the land for good he will leave no stone unturned to give us a successor worthy of him.

In the light of these facts it behoves the Government who have the best interests of education at heart, to think betimes of introducing a new element altogether into the *personnel* of the Directorate. It would appear that the question of appointing a Deputy Director of Public Instruction is hanging fire, and we hope and believe the Government will rise to the occasion and justify this additional item in the Budget. A Deputy Director is now indispensable in the interests of the Department, but he must be one, who will be able to supplement the Director's work. He should also be a gentleman of high intellectual abilities and unimpeachable moral calibre. The Education Department has already forfeited the popular sympathy and unless and until it is thoroughly restored the work of reconstruction and reform will be hampered at every turn. It will add considerably to the strength of the new Director's position if his Deputy be one of approved merits and one acceptable to all classes of the people; while any wrong judgment on the part of the Government which might give an occasion for even a false alarm that the traditions and policy of the outgoing Director will be maintained and perpetuated, will be fatal, pernicious and disastrous, an apprehension in which direction is already in the air, caused apparently by the deputation of the new nominee to apprentice under Dr. Mitchell. It may also be mentioned that the popular feeling threatens to manifest itself if any policy of 'make shift' to palm off mediocrities or unavoidable encumbrances in the new office finds favour with the powers that be. The people of Travancore have, however, placed their full reliance in the wisdom, foresight and statesmanship of H. H. the Maharajah and of his talented Minister.

Public Lecture Committee.—The Government "Gazette" of Travancore contains the Review of administration of the various departments of the State from which we take the following:—Mr. R. S. Lepper having resigned, Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Aiyangar, M.A., Professor of History, H. H. the Maharaja's College, was appointed Honorary Secretary of the Committee. Twenty-one lectures were delivered during the year as against thirteen in 1905. Thirteen of these were delivered in mofussil stations, seventeen lectures were illustrated with the help of lantern slides, and four by practical demonstrations. All the lectures were on subjects of practical utility, and most of them were in Malayalam. In concluding the Review the Government observes:—"It is gratifying to observe that the lectures attracted larger numbers of the agricultural and industrial population, the total attendance at them having risen from 6,100 in 1905 to 11,150 in 1906. The Government note that more of the mofussil lectures were followed by informal discus-

sions to clear the difficulties of the audience on the subject matters of the lectures."

INDIA (GENERAL).

Proposed Indian Association for the Advancement of Science.—Messrs. P. S. MacMahon, M. Sc. (Man.), B. Sc. (Oxon), Professor of Chemistry, Canning College, Lucknow, and J. L. Simonsen, D. Sc. (Oxon), Professor of Chemistry, Presidency College, Madras, write to the *"Hindu"*:—

The rapid expansion, during recent years, of the teaching of science throughout India as well as the multiplication of laboratories in colleges and institutions designed for research purposes has disclosed a lack of scientific organisation which calls for the attention of all those engaged upon education and research work in the country. The isolated worker in India is, for the most part, deprived of the help afforded by scientific reference libraries and his difficulties are enhanced by the fact that he is removed from the European environment whence he draws in a large measure his inspiration.

We feel that the disabilities under which science suffers in India would be in part ameliorated and that an impetus would be given to research work by the establishment of some central organisation after the manner of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, whereby different workers throughout the country might be brought into touch with one another more closely. The attention of the Society might be directed to every field of enquiry and to every aspect of scientific activity whether purely theoretical or applied to those numerous special problems offered by the Indian Empire and peculiar to its natural and economic conditions. The study of endemic diseases, of the conditions governing agriculture and forestry, of engineering problems in the tropics and sub-tropics, of the natural products of plants and of the mineral resources of the country, all these subjects call for extensive and systematic research in the laboratories with which India is now equipped. Behind this there is the larger educational problem that of presenting to the minds of the people the aims of science, its purpose and ideals, its value as an instrument of social and economic improvement.

The objects of the proposed society are similar to those of the British Association and they cannot be stated better than in the words which form the preamble to the constitution of that body: "to give a stronger impulse and a more systematic direction to scientific enquiry; to promote the intercourse of societies and individuals interested in science in different parts of the country; to obtain a more general attention to the objects of pure and applied science and the removal of any disadvantages of public kind which may impede its progress."

It is to be noticed that co-operation with the activities of the society would not preclude the publication of results in European periodicals nor in departmental journals dealing with particular branches of research; its primary aim is to afford a

medium of communication between workers in different parts of India. Accordingly, it is proposed to establish an Association which shall hold an Annual Meeting (sectional or otherwise) in the more populous Indian towns where papers might be read and discussed, the proceedings to be published in the form of an Annual Report. We invite your opinion as to the expediency of founding a society of this kind and would be glad to know whether, in the event of its successful inauguration, you would be glad to support it on the general lines indicated above. The success of the scheme naturally depends upon the extent and representativeness of the support accorded to it. We hope to arrange an early meeting in Calcutta where the details might take practical shape.

In conclusion, attention may be drawn to a most important aspect of the scheme, namely, that concerning the co-operation of Indians. We realise that the future of science in India depends upon the adequacy of the practical training which students receive in College laboratories, and furthermore that nothing is better calculated to increase its efficiency than the inculcation of research as the ultimate purpose of all scientific knowledge. It is unnecessary to point out how many and varied are the problems awaiting solution and how intimately the social and economic future of India is bound up with the successful application of scientific methods to all the activities, whether agrarian or industrial, of the community. We cordially invite the participation of Indian scientists convinced in the belief that in such measure as it is accorded the objects of the society shall more nearly approach fulfilment and its usefulness and permanence be assured.

We, in response to a public demand for action, are undertaking the task of arranging an informal plebiscite on the question, would be glad of the favour of your opinion, and request that replies be sent to either of the addresses indicated.

The Guru Govind Singh Sahib Educational Scholarships.

We are asked to publish the following:—

The undersigned, being desirous of helping deserving Indian students of both sexes to receive liberal and professional education in foreign countries, begs to offer six Scholarships, tenable for three years, and invites applications for the same.

The conditions for the award are as follows:—

I. The scholarships will be known as the "Guru Govind Singh Sahib Educational Scholarships."
II. All properly qualified Indian ladies and gentlemen, without distinction of race, caste or creed, will be eligible for election to the scholarships.

III. Each scholarship will be tenable for three years, commencing August, 1912.

NOTE.—The period may be extended in the case of able industrious scholars, who finish the three years' course of study with marked success and credit.

IV. The scholarships will not be given in money. Each scholarship will include free board and lodging, all expenses for clothes, books, stationery, medicine, postage and other requisites of student-life, all college fees, and a small amount of pocket money during a period of three years.

NOTE.—Medical students will pay their own college and laboratory fees, which amount to about \$ 175 (Rs. 525) per annum.

V. All scholars will come from India to Berkeley (Cal.), U. S. A., at their own expense.

Each scholar will receive third-class fare (second class in the case of ladies) for the return voyage to India on the successful completion of the three years' course of study.

VI. All scholars will reside at a hostel to be called the "Guru Nanak Dava Vidyarthi Ashram," Berkeley (Cal.), and lead a simple and abstemious life. Scholars will not smoke or use alcoholic beverages.

VII. (a) Each scholar will study, at his or her choice, at least one of the following subjects at the University of California, Berkeley (Cal.):—History, Economics, English Literature, French Literature, German Literature, Spanish Literature, Japanese Literature, Civil, Mechanical or Mining Engineering, Commerce, Music, Medicine.

(b) Each scholar will qualify himself or herself for one of the following degrees at the University, M.A., M.L., M. Sc., Ph. D., M. D.

VIII. A scholar, who is not diligent in study or who fails to maintain a good moral character, shall forfeit the scholarship and the return passage money.

IX. Candidates should supply information with regard to the following points in their applications: Sex, Age, Religion, Caste, Married or Unmarried, Present Occupation, Qualifications, References. Subject or Subjects of Study (selected from the list given above).

X. All applications, with full testimonials and references, must reach Mrs. Bertha L. C. Pope, 2708, Virginia St., Berkeley (Cal.), U. S. A., before May 15, 1912.

SIRDAR JAWALA SINGH.

MOORLAND, (Cal.), U. S. A. }
January 1.

Educational Progress in India.—A statement is published in the *Gazette of India* showing the educational progress in India and in several Provinces. It shows that the total number of scholars in public institutes were 49,30,084 males, and 793,646 females in 1910-11. The total expenditure was Rs. 71,868 in 1910-11 against 55,904 in 1906-07.

In the Madras Presidency the number of Primary Schools for males were 23,426 and 900 for females in 1910-11. The total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions were 1,215,725. The total expenditure was Rs. 12,768 in 1910-11, against 9,764 in 1906-07.

In the Bombay Presidency the number of public institutions for males were 11,267 and for females 1,121 in 1910-11, and the total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions were 868,535 in 1910-11 against 720,547 in 1906-07. The total expenditure was Rs. 12,400 against 10,643 in 1906-07.

In Bengal there were 35,437 Primary Schools and the total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions were 1,518,239, and the total expenditure was Rs. 16,071 in 1910-11 against 11,663 in 1906-07.

In Eastern Bengal and Assam the number of Primary Schools were 17,292 in 1910-11, and the number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 984,213 in 1910-11, against 815,599. The total expenditure was Rs. 7,305 in 1910-11, against Rs. 5,124 in 1906-07.

In the United Provinces the number of Primary Schools was 9,067 in 1910-11, against 9,545 in 1906-07. The total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 645,787 in 1910-11, against 606,174 in 1906-07. The total expenditure was Rs. 9,339 in 1910-11, against Rs. 7,490 in 1906-07.

In the Punjab the number of Primary Schools was 3,321 in 1910-11, and the total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 356,940 and the total expenditure was Rs. 6,057 in 1910-11, against 5,197 in 1906-07.

In Burma the number of Primary Schools was 4,895 in 1910-11, against 4,950 in 1906-07. The total number of scholars in all institutions for male and female was 429,992 in 1910-11, against 398,598, and the total expenditure was Rs. 4,363 in 1910-11, against 3,487 in 1906-07.

In the Central Provinces and Behar the number of Primary Schools was 3,094 in 1910-11, and the number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 297,620, and the total expenditure was Rs. 3,085 in 1910-11, against Rs. 2,248 in 1906-07.

In the North-Western Frontier Provinces the number of Primary Schools was 264 in 1910-11, and the total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 31,891 in 1910-11, against 29,017 in 1906-07. The total expenditure was Rs. 388 in 1910-11, against Rs. 236 in 1906-07.

In Coorg the number of Primary Schools was 81 in 1910-11, and the total number of scholars, both male and female, in all institutions was 6,640 in 1910-11, against 4,865 in 1906-07. The total expenditure was Rs. 92 in 1910-11 against Rs. 49 in 1906-07.

The expenditures are calculated in thousands of rupees. Besides these details are also published regarding the number of High Schools and Arts Colleges and Public Institutions for males and females in all these provinces.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The Association of Headmasters.—The 21st annual general meeting of the Incorporated Association of Headmasters was opened at the Guildhall. The delegates were welcomed on behalf of the Corporation by the Lord Mayor (Sir Thomas Crosby), and in reply Dr. H. J. Spencer, Headmaster of the University College School and President of the Conference, said that there was a tradition that while the British parent loved his minister and feared his doctor he hated his schoolmaster, but he was glad to think that in the march of time they had arrived at a better understanding.

Various papers were read, and resolutions were passed urging the inspection of all private and proprietary schools and other educational institutions, and drawing attention to the widespread evil of the premature withdrawal of boys from the secondary schools.

School of Oriental Languages.—The Board of the London Institution has issued a circular to the proprietors submitting a scheme which will obtain the Imperial Government's approval for the adaptation of the institution as a school of Oriental languages. The Imperial Government undertakes to grant from £20,000 to £30,000 for rebuilding and an annual endowment of £4,000 with which to cover domestic expenditure. When the sanction of the proprietors is obtained a Bill will be introduced in Parliament to legalise the project.

The *Morning Post* says that the city magistrates who will be left to find the balance of £10,100, the estimated cost of the salaries of the Director and the teaching staff, have already promised considerable support. Lords Curzon and Cromer are taking an active interest in the scheme, and will probably take part in the management of the financial side. The scheme provides that the entire control be vested in the city men and that a strong body of governors be appointed.

Death of the Rev. A. M. Fairbairn.—We deeply regret to learn of the death of the Rev. A. M. Fairbairn, Principal-Emeritus of Mansfield College, Oxford, and a noted educationist, ecclesiastic and philosopher. Principal Fairbairn, it will be remembered,

visited India in the winter of 1898-99 as Barrows-Haskell lecturer, and his learned discourses created a profound and sympathetic interest among educated Indians who cared for the things that are eternal. He was first introduced to our countrymen by the greatest Indian thinker of the last century, the late Mr. Justice Ranade, who presided over Dr. Fairbairn's first meeting at Bombay. Andrew Martin Fairbairn was born near Edinburgh in November 1838 and was thus 73 years old at the time of death. He received his education at Edinburgh and Berlin Universities and the Evangelical Union Theological Academy of Glasgow. He received the M. A. degree of Oxford by decree of Convocation, the D. D. of Edinburgh and Yale, the LL. D. of Aberdeen, the D. Litt. of Oxford and the D. Theol. of Göttingen. Dr. Fairbairn held various distinguished positions as follows:—He was Minister of the Evangelical Union Congregational Church at Bathgate, West Lothian, from 1860 to 72; of the Evangelical Union Congregational Church at St. Paul Street, Aberdeen, from 1872 to 77; Principal of Airedale College from 1877 to 86, and of Mansfield College, Oxford, from its foundation in 1886 to 1909. Dr. Fairbairn was Muir Lecturer in Edinburgh University from 1878 to 82, Gifford Lecturer in Aberdeen University from 1892 to 94; Lyman Beecher Lecturer, University of Yale, 1891-92; Chairman of Congregational Union of England and Wales, 1883; member of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, 1894-95; Barrows-Haskell Lecturer in India, 1898-9; member of the Theological Board and Theological examiner in the University of Wales, 1895-1904; member of the Advisory Committee to the Theological Faculty in the University of Manchester, 1904, and member of the Royal Commission on the Endowments of the Welsh Church, 1906. His publications were 'Studies in the Philosophy of Religion and History,' 1876; 'Studies in the Life of Christ,' 1881; 'The City of God,' 1882; 'Religion in History and in Modern Life,' 1884, of which a revised and enlarged edition was issued in 1893; 'Christ in Modern Theology,' 1893; 'Christ in the Centuries,' 1893; 'Catholicism, Roman and Anglican,' 1899; 'Philosophy of the Christian Religion,' 1902, etc. While Dr. Fairbairn's recreations were golf and cycling, he was a believer in the excellence of the good old constitutional walk. It needs no saying how serious is the loss sustained by learning and religion by the passing away of Dr. Fairbairn.

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The Educational Review.

In the first number of the Journal of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics for the South-eastern Part of England is contained the very interesting address of Dr. A. N. Whitehead of Cambridge, who is the President of the Association, on "The place of Elementary Mathematics in a liberal education." The address deserves the attention of all teachers of mathematics. The following are a few of the remarks in the address which seem like paradoxes but truly brimful of truth. "What we want is one hour of the Caliph Omar, to burn up and utterly destroy all the silly mathematical problems which cumber our text-books." "I would utterly sweep away all prolonged multiplications and divisions, and the theories of the greatest common measure and least common multiple, and complicated forms of linear and quadratic equations." Dr. Whitehead considers that the abolition of Euclid as a text-book has led to a lamentable deficiency in logical vigour coupled with entirely bad effects on the scholastic value of the subject. Rightly regarding the quantitative study of social forces by statistical methods as the proper method of studying history, as this alone can furnish the true foundation of the knowledge of nations, Dr. Whitehead suggests that, "half of the teaching of modern history should be handed over to the mathematicians." The gist of the whole address of Dr. Whitehead is contained in the following summary in his own words: "It is that the elements of mathematics should be treated as the study of a set of fundamental ideas, the importance of which the student can immediately appreciate; that every proposition and

method which can not pass this test, however important for a more advanced study, should be ruthlessly cut out; that with the time thus gained the fundamental ideas placed before the pupils can be considerably enlarged so as to include what in essence is the method of co-ordinate geometry, the fundamental idea of the differential calculus in relation to rates of increase, and the geometrical notion of similarity. Also, lastly, it has been insisted that important systematic applications of these ideas to the concrete world should be simultaneously studied—for example, some sets of social or scientific statistics and the use of the polygon of forces in the graphical solution of mechanical problems. Again, this rough summary can be better abbreviated into one essential principle, namely, simplify the details and emphasize the important principles and applications."

We might in this connection refer also to the address of Prof. E. W. Hobson to the Mathematical Association on "The Democratisation of Mathematical Education." Prof. Hobson pointed out how the progressive adaptation of the methods and the matter of teaching to meet the needs of the average pupil has resulted in considerable gain. But at the same time he deprecated the undue emphasis laid on the purely practical side of mathematics. "The study of mathematics must be pronounced to be a relative failure as an educational instrument if it fails to rise beyond the purely practical aspect of the subject to the domain of principle.....Such practical work is only educational when it precedes, and leads up to, a grasp of general principles, and when it is employed to illustrate such principles.....If mathematics is degraded to the level of a set of practical rules, of which the grounds are

not understood, for dealing with practical problems of special types, the unscientific character of such a study will avenge itself even on the practical side of life."

If, as alleged by Dr. Whitehead, the whole scheme of mathematical education in England needs to be reconstituted, would it be far from the truth to say that mathematical teaching in India is in a chaotic condition?

At the College of Science, Poona, His Excellency Sir George Clarke, Governor of Bombay, made an important speech expounding his views on education. Sir George Clarke was right in saying that the application of sound and sane *swadeshî* principles is essential to the progress of India, and that the scientific problems of this vast country can be, and ought to be, best solved by trained Indian brains on Indian soil. If this is admitted, there can be no two opinions on the kind of education India needs. Sir George Clarke has been unjustly criticised in certain quarters for his attempts to improve the curriculum of studies in the University of Bombay, and he has made use of the present occasion to offer an explanation. "It has been said that I have devoted myself too exclusively to the cause of science in this Presidency, and that I underrate or ignore the benefits of classical and general education. Nothing could be farther from the facts. This day I believe I owe more to classics than to any other branches of study, though they alone could not have satisfied the needs of my career. I am even inclined to agree with Professor Max Muller that literary culture can far better dispense with physical science than physical science with literary culture,

though nothing is more satisfactory than a perfect combination of the two. But, unfortunately literary culture in the sense in which Professor Max Muller uses the words, is rarely attained in the University of Bombay. The Indian student generally matriculates at an age at which his contemporaries in western countries are at school. He thus enters the university unprepared for the training which he ought to receive there and weak in the languages in which he must be taught. The attempt to give him in four years a smattering of too many subjects and a mastery of none has palpably failed. My own view after more than four years of careful observation, for which a Governor has exceptional facilities, is that higher education is not fulfilling the present requirements, and that the progress of India industrially and administratively is being retarded by the poverty of the intellectual equipment provided by the university. I do not in the least doubt the capacity of Indians, of which I know excellent examples, but the output of the universities is too largely composed of slenderly educated young men, whose intellects have not been fully awakened, who have not learned thoroughness, who have no idea of prosecuting their studies further, and who sometimes cherish an exaggerated estimate of their acquirements. It was clear to me from the first that the teaching of science in India was miserably inadequate and that, apart from the practical aspects of science training, the natural bent of the Indian mind needs the corrective which knowledge of the laws of nature can supply." Sir George Clarke has rightly hit the mark. It is scientific and practical training alone that can supply the corrective needed for the natural bent of the Indian mind.

The annual Convocation of the Bombay University was celebrated on the evening of the 20th instant. Two addresses were delivered to the graduates, one by the Chancellor and the other by the Vice-Chancellor. The Chancellor spoke at length in a very sympathetic way on the responsibilities of educated Indians. "If you are earnest workers and thinkers," he said, "you need have no fear that you can exercise no influence in the political sphere, while in all other spheres there are unbounded opportunities for work. The national idea is wholly foreign to India. It has been planted on the Eastern soil as one of the results of Western learning and the assimilation of western thought which the Universities of India have promoted. Its is a high aspiration which I hope all you young men will cherish. There is not one of you who cannot do something towards its realization by setting an example of the spirit of brotherhood, by acting not as members of castes and communities, but as citizens of India and by putting the general good foremost in your aims, but remember that it is to the British rule that you owe alike the idea of a common nationhood, "the stirrings of new life," to which His Imperial Majesty referred and the possibilities of gradually welding your diverse peoples into an Indian nation fit for self-government." There can be no doubt that education is the greatest blessing that the British rule has bestowed on India, and to it are really due all the benefits that have resulted from the British domination of India.

The Vice-Chancellor, after dealing with the recent changes in the University curriculum, dwelt at length on the scope and aim of university education. "The true end of

University education," he said, "is to liberalise the mind, to enable it to observe and collect facts with care, to think well, to reason with clearness, and to generalise wisely. Its object is a broad outlook on life, not cramped by the narrowness of race or creed." We are not sure that this definition covers all aspects of university education. The ideal of a university has not always been the same; it has varied with time, place and men. Much liberal culture has gone to the universities from the world outside. A study of the history of European universities shows clearly what amount of narrowness sometimes reigned supreme in the universities. As Carlyle has said, the true university is a good library of books and we may add a good laboratory for research and men who can infuse the spirit of research. The rest is merely ancillary. It is the work of the college and not the university to lay the foundations for good character and liberal culture.

Sir J. J. Thomson, F.R.S., delivered last month the presidential address to the Association of Public School Science Masters. The subject of his address was "the functions of lectures and text-books in science teaching." The practice of attempting to teach every thing by lectures, of making the lecture supply the place of the text-book, is in the opinion of the great scientist, mischievous. "I object to the lecture usurping so largely the function of the text-book, because I think when this is done the study of a subject has not the same educational value, as when a student reads it for himself. This is especially true when a student is new to the subject; with a book he can confine himself to the considera-

tion of the new ideas, and can take his own time, while in a lecture he has to take in these ideas at the pace presented by the lecturer, and, in addition, has to put them in writing as fast as his pen can travel; as a matter of fact, in many cases he takes little trouble to understand, but confines himself to taking down as many of the words of the lecturer as is possible in the time, and trusts to finding out later on what they mean." No professor will deny this charge; none the less we cannot afford to do away with lectures. The living voice produces a more lasting effect on the attentive mind than the voiceless text-book. But the art of printing has rendered very many lectures unnecessary. The lectures should aim more to rouse enthusiasm and to stimulate reflection than to give information. Many of the so-called lectures in Madras Colleges are merely refurbished scraps of information culled from printed books, whose names are often kept concealed from the students. Worse than these are the lectures on the so-called subjects of non-detailed study, which have been prescribed for the Intermediate Examination. Worse still is the system of dictating notes which obtains in several institutions.

We are perfectly at one with Professor Thomson in his view concerning teachers as examiners. He says: "The view is often expressed nowadays that students should be examined by their teachers, and not by outside examiners. I cannot agree with this; so far as my experience goes, the practice leads to one of the worst kinds of cramming—the cramming of notebooks—and not always the students own note-book. I think the teacher ought to have the fullest power over the syllabus, and not to have his method of teaching hampered by external

authority; but when he is given this freedom I think he may be expected to produce results which need not fear the tests imposed by any sensible examiner."

As Carlyle has said, the true function of a university is to teach students how to learn for themselves. If that is the case, then an excessive reliance on lectures will make students learn almost everything except how to learn.

It is a well-known fact that the London University has in recent years so thoroughly changed its constitution as to be transformed into a teaching university, although there is still an external side to it. Further, many of the University Colleges, formerly affiliated to the University of London, have by the acquisition of the necessary funds, been able to raise themselves to the rank of independent universities by obtaining the royal charter. The beneficial results of a teaching university are recognised on all hands. The German Universities, to which Germany owes its present greatness, are all teaching universities. The existing Indian Universities cannot be spoken as teaching universities. No doubt attempts are being made in some of these universities to give them the appearance of a teaching university by the institution of the so-called university lectureships. Still they are in no sense real teaching universities like those of Germany or America or Scotland. The attempts of the Hindus and the Mahomedans to have denominational Universities of their own seem to have inspired the Government of India with the desire to establish teaching universities in India. The proposed University of Dacca in Eastern Bengal will be the first of this class established by the Govern-

ment, and we hope the Government would before long see their way to transform the existing universities also into teaching universities and establish more universities all over India to relieve the congestion in the work of the present universities. The Government University of Dacca and the private Universities of Benares and Aligarh will show in a few years what real benefits teaching universities could confer on the country. The opposition to the establishment of the proposed denominational universities at Benares and Aligarh does not appear to us to be sound.

The Government of Madras has arranged for a conference of teachers and managers to discuss and report on the advisability of introducing the teaching of morality and religion in schools. Those that have given their attention to the subject of religious education in schools may be said to be unanimous in the opinion that any religious education that may be imparted in schools should not be given during the regular school hours. We doubt whether religion can accommodate itself to any form of true education. As regards morality any attempt to teach it by precept is not likely to be productive of any beneficial results. The experiments made in France in this direction do not inspire any hope of successful results. For the development of moral character in students what is wanted is not precept but example. The moral atmosphere of the school will tell more in the development of moral character than the teaching of moral precepts by teachers, of whose character the pupils have no high opinion. As a recent writer remarks, the very attempt to train the moral character by means of lessons included in the time table will defeat itself, as such training

will lose its force by its very regularity. Occasional talks on moral ideals and moral aspirations will no doubt be effective when they are in close touch with the life of the school, but the necessity for them does not arise regularly at the same hour every week. Something done in the way of creating a corporate life among all the members of a school will prove beneficial in the development of character, but the difficulties in the way of doing this are enormous in a caste-ridden country like India.

The Consultative Committee on Examinations in Secondary Schools has brought out a report of great importance. While furnishing a detailed picture of the examination system as it exists in secondary education at present, the report gives a comprehensive diagnosis of the evil of external examinations on secondary education. As the report says, "the real life of education lies in the ability and character of the teachers and in the spirit of the schools, not in the machinery for their supervision or in arrangements for testing their result." If real education begins and ends with the relation of the teacher to the pupil, it must be said that external examinations have tended to dwarf the aims and initiative of teachers. The report says that "it is the pressure of economic rivalry which gives its sting to competitive examinations for the pupil," but the remark applies equally to the teacher, as in his attempts to show off by bright results by way of competition the teacher has to narrow himself down. As a remedy the committee proposes that the examinations should be reduced in number and unified. One examination is suggested for all pupils who have been for three years since the age of twelve in secondary schools recog-

nised as efficient, and who have reached a class the average of which is not below sixteen. The examination is to be in all subjects of the curriculum studied during the two previous years, and the standard is to be that of the average pupil at sixteen years of age. Only one other examination is to be allowed which may be taken at the age of eighteen or nineteen, in which scope should be given for specialization. A certificate is to be given to one who reaches a passing standard in certain principal subjects and obtains a certain number of marks on the whole. This latter examination is to serve as the preliminary for all professions. To remedy the defects of external examinations, there is to be a combination of inspection with examination. An inspector or interview examiner, as he is also styled in the report, will assess the work submitted in such subjects as are not fitted for written examination, examine laboratory note-books, at his discretion hold practical examinations in science subjects, and also conduct oral tests in languages. The

interview examiner, when discharging his duties in the school, is to abstain entirely from advice and suggestion, confining himself to the valuation of the work done. He is to take into account the school record kept by the teacher for each of his pupils. To give the teacher a voice in the final decision as to the work of his pupils, he will be represented on the body which controls the examinations; he is to submit his syllabus to the examining body; he is to be free to make representations to the examiners as to the suitability or otherwise of any paper set to his pupils, and finally he is to submit a list of his pupils, giving his own estimate of their relative merit, and no pupil is to be failed before the results of the external examiners are compared with this list. All this reminds us of our school final examination, with the sad difference that in the latter the teacher is to a large extent ignored. The similarity between the two is largely due to both being based on the Scotch leaving certificate examination.

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The teaching of English Composition needs systematising at once. It is useless to expect either good speech or good writing from boys whose "teaching" has consisted in hearing stories and reproducing them while hot in the memory, and in learning essays by heart.....

This book endeavours to show the teacher the proper method of teaching English Composition from the beginning, and to provide him with copious examples for oral practice in the earlier stages, and for written practice in the later ones. It is class-book and teacher's book in one, and if properly used will leave the pupil an intelligible speaker and writer of plain English, and likely to be successful in English at the Matriculation or School Final Examination if such be his ambition.....*Extract from the Preface.*

The call for a second edition of this book within a few weeks of its appearance is an interesting proof that the teaching of English as a living language (through speech and composition) is gaining ground.....*Extract from the Preface to Second Edition.*

OPINION.

"This deals progressively with many English difficulties. Part of it is concerned with methods of forming sentences, (such as the change from the Positive to the Negative form), and part with the principles of story and essay writing. The author shows great skill in providing suitable exercises at every stage, and whatever form of work a teacher prefers in connection with these subjects he will find his wants anticipated."—*Indian Education* (January, 1912.)

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ANCIENT INDIA*

BY

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(*Mysore Educational Service*).

WE have the greatest pleasure in drawing the attention of our readers to the volume on *Ancient India* by Mr. S. Krishnaswami Iyengar of Mysore. It is the first original historical work by a native of Southern India, which is not merely a compilation of matter extracted from other people's labours. We have however to point out that the book is misnamed. Almost all the book except Chapter I deals with the history of South India; yet the book is called *Ancient India*, simply because the first chapter which is in length about one-fourteenth of the whole book contains a brief sketch of the early history of North India. And this first chapter is one of the weakest in the whole book. For one thing, it does not contain anything connected with the author's own wide field of original research. And again it is too brief either to be of use to any kind of reader or to admit of adequate treatment of any of the numerous matters referred to. Chapter II gives a good skeleton outline of the history of South India. The next chapter gives a brief but lucid account of how various dynasties struggled for supremacy in Southern India from the age of the Pallavas to the invasion of Malik Kafar. Chapters IV and VI are not epitomes but detailed studies of India at the dawn of the Christian era, and of the

Chola Empire, in which is focussed information regarding these subjects drawn from literary and epigraphical sources. The latter is work done practically in a virgin field and reflects very great credit on the patriotism and critical instincts of the author. Chapter VI is a model of historical research; other chapters deal with the history of Mysore and represent, we believe, work done by the author in his official capacity as State Archaeologist.

We do not admire Chapter VII, on Sri Ramanujacharya, his life and times. It is professedly based on *Yatirāja Vaibhavam* said to be by one Vaduhanambi and the author regards that it contains "the most authoritative tradition," though he does not assign the reasons which led him to form the opinion. We hope that the author will excuse us if we make the rather ungenerous remark that his high opinion of the work is in part due to the fact that he unearthed it and published it to the world. In our opinion, the *Yatirāja Vaibhavam* is as good or as bad as its better-known predecessor, *Divyasūri Charitam*. The account of Ramanuja is coloured by the ideal characteristics of a religious teacher current a thousand years ago—characteristics which a modern man is not likely to admire, e.g., desertion of a wife on pretexts of disobedience for seeking sanyasa, running away from danger leaving disciples to undergo persecution. Of course there is no evidence that Ramanuja behaved in these ways; such conduct was attributed to him by later followers for glorifying him according to their lights. These and similar stories, like that

* A book published by S.P.O.K. Dep. Price Rs. 4.

of Ramanuja going to Delhi, which was scarcely a Mussulman capital in the days of Ramanuja are narrated in this chapter without the least attempt at historical criticism. Ramanuja's teaching is called in this chapter "qualified monism" which is a very incorrect translation of *Viśiṣṭādvaitam*. This word does not mean as many people think advaita with a difference, but it means *Viśiṣṭayoh Advaitam*, the non-difference between two Viśiṣṭa beings, two substantives, that which has subtle chit and achit as attribute and that which has gross chit and achit as attribute, in other words of the Kārya Brahma and Kāraṇa Brahma. This is the special point of interpretation of the advaita texts that Ramanuja taught. In *Tat tvam asi*, as Ramanuja clearly explains in his *Vedārtha Sangraha* as well as in his *Sri Bāṣhya*, *Tat* is the Kāryavastha Brahma and *Tvam* is the Kāryavastha Brahma and all advaita texts teach the identity of these two. How absurd then is the common translation of *Viśiṣṭādvaitam* as qualified (how qualified?) *advaitam*. Another phrase we object to is the initiation of Ramanuja "into the mysteries of the hidden lore of the Vedānta." We deny that there was any "hidden" lore of the Vedānta in the 11th Century A.D. What was hidden was the Āgama which is quite a different thing.

The chapters on Tamil literature contain much that is interesting and original, especially the discussion of the age of some Vaishnava Ālvars. Many of the points raised are controversial but they are discussed in an admirably impartial spirit. Now that the Government of India is anxious to train Indians in Archaeological work, we are proud that an Indian scholar of the eminence of Mr. Krishnaswami Iyengar has proved to the world how much Indian talent can do if touched with the spirit of scientific investigation.

P. T. SRINIVAS AYYANGAR.

MODERN TELUGU.

(G. V. RAMAMURTI, B.A., PARLAKIMEDI.)

EVERY English scholar knows that the English language has changed and that the English spoken in the eleventh century is quite different from the English of to-day. Almost every Telugu Pandit, on the other hand, thinks that Telugu has remained unchanged and that the language he now speaks is the same as the language of Nannaya's *Bharata*. But nothing is farther from truth than this belief. Telugu, like every other language, is the product of the evolution of a community of human beings; and its life, like that of every other language is regulated by the same general laws. Though the history of Telugu has not yet been written it has nevertheless a history of its own. Those that have their eyes open cannot fail to see that Telugu has gone through a series of changes no less extensive than those that English has undergone, though these changes are on different lines varying with the character peculiar to each language.

The object of reducing anything to writing is to help one's own memory or to communicate one's knowledge or wishes to those whose ears one cannot reach. Though the operations of the human mind follow general laws each community has its own peculiar psychological point of view and its mental attitude is indicated by the peculiar structure of its language.

When the views of the society change, these changes are inevitably reflected in the changes which the language undergoes. The changes in the accent, in the pronunciation, in the use of post-positions or prepositions, in the ways of expressing the relations of the noun and the adjective, the verb and the object and a hundred other things like these are not

mere physical changes which affect the sounds of the language; they reflect the essential changes in the mental attitude of the community to their environment. Nature works silently in producing these changes. Those communities that have obeyed the laws of nature have made rapid progress. The laws of nature are inexorable. Many have come to grief who have not followed the dictates of nature. Parliaments and Academies, Kings and Pandits cannot control these laws except by studying them minutely and following them implicitly. The community as a whole is swayed by nature, more so in language than in anything else.

The pronunciation of the Telugu vowels has changed and the position of the accent in a word has shifted and thus the process of assimilation in modern Telugu is not at all what it used to be in Nannaya's time. The people of that time used to pronounce the last syllable with considerable stress and the terminations were entire; now we slur the last syllable and the termination disappears wholly or in part. The scheme of declension is now almost wholly different to what it was in the eleventh century; few of the forms in the conjugational system of the past age are in current use. Several verbal forms, independent once, are now reduced to the position of auxiliaries or adverbs or prepositions or conjunctions. The interrogative, the emphatic, the negative forms and other important features have entirely changed. Thousands of words have changed their meaning; thousands of other words have become obsolete. What does this mean? The people of Rajahmundry do not now speak the same language that their ancestors in the eleventh century spoke. This is a fact which

no one can deny who knows what language is, and how language changes.

All graduates have studied the history of the English language. They know that scholars who have made a special study of that language have traced minutely most of the changes that have, from time to time, come upon the English language until our own times. No English writer of any period ever committed the blunder of using the words and forms of a previous period, though they had been used by a great author, if these words and forms were not also used by the people of his own time. There were several scholars like Milton, Jeremy Taylor, Sir T. Brown, who introduced or coined new words; but until they were accepted by the people they were never regarded as part and parcel of the living language. In fact many of their words were rejected. There are dictionaries of obsolete words and phrases as well as dictionaries of words and forms in current use. During each period in the history of the language we have a separate popular version of the Bible or parts of the Bible re-written in the language of the period. The Anglo-Saxon version of 1000 A.D. became obsolete in later times. Wycliff translated the Bible into the English of his time, about 1380. There is Purvey's recension of it. Tyndall's New Testament was written about 1526. Then there was the Revised Version; we have now the Twentieth Century Bible. Thus the language of the books has always approximated to the living spoken language of the people in its changed form.

Now, regarding the Telugu language, the ideal and the literary tradition are both unnatural and false and have produced most

deplorable consequences. What is the ideal literary Telugu language? It is taken for granted that the whole Sanskrit language, not only words but entire compounds (some of which are as long as a whole stanza of four lines) may be used in the Telugu language. Then, thousands of Prākṛit words are treated as Telugu words; as also all the foreign words that the poets have used at one period or another in their metrical performances. None of the words or grammatical forms are *recognised* as *obsolete*. It is a sin to say that any word or form used by a dead versifier is *obsolete*. There is nothing obsolete in the conception of the standard literary Telugu. Some writers who could not resist the influence of natural linguistic laws, consciously or unconsciously used a current form in one place and an older form in another place or the same word in different senses; and all are right in the so-called 'standard Telugu.' The one test of the purity or the propriety of the form or the meaning of a word is, not whether the word is used in the living language of the period, but whether it is found in the Sanskrit language or the Prākṛit languages or in the writings of any Telugu poets from the time of Nannaya up to—I don't know how to define this limit—say, the poet that died yesterday. The absurdity and unnaturalness of this conception of language needs no demonstration. Telugu words, I mean not those in the living language, but those of the literary language are, like the Gods, always young. Nay, their position and rank are more secure than those of the Gods, who are said to drop down from heaven at the end of the period allotted to them for the enjoyment of the celestial pleasures as a reward for their good deeds in the previous

birth. Once a word finds a place in a Telugu poem, however obscure, it forthwith attains to the rank of the "eternal immortals" of *Brahma loka* from which no one can be ejected or degraded.

As in every organised society, so in the language of every organised community, there are various distinctions; but these distinctions are not permanent. They are relative, not absolute. The distinction between good and bad endures; so also the distinction between "upper classes" and "lower classes." The conception, however, of what is good and what is bad does change. A living society is in a state of flux; so are its conceptions, so also its language. This needs no proof. Purists have, at every period, tried to label, as good or bad, words as well as men; but in spite of their efforts, many words that were at one time 'gentlemanly' became at another time slang and the slangy words of one period were elevated at another period and admitted into good society.

Telugu tradition distinguishes between *grāmya*, the language of the vulgar classes and *nāgarika*, the urbane, or polite language. But, owing to a perverse mode of applying the canons of literary or linguistic criticism the language of the best gentleman and the most refined scholar is now stigmatized as vulgar. It is most shocking to my feelings and I am astonished to see that the politest Telugu gentleman and the most learned Telugu Pandit are indifferent when their language is called 'vulgar'; nay, they themselves, and without a blush, admit that their language is vulgar; and 'enter a strong, emphatic protest' if you dare to deny it. There is the pathos of the situation. I do not know if one is to laugh at this perversity of intellect or cry. I beg these Telugu gentlemen and Telugu

Pandits to reconsider what they are saying. I hope they do not mean what they say. The distinction between *grāmya* and *nāgarika* is not one of time. At every period in the history of the society, there is distinction between the "upper classes" and the "lower classes" and the language of the latter is *grāmya* in comparison with that of the former. *Kētana* in his Telugu grammar refers to some words which he thought were used only in the vulgar speech, but some of those words do occur in the work of *Nannaya* and *Peddana*. *Appakavi* mentions some words which in his view should not be used in polite literature; but most of them are, in fact, found in classical Telugu poetry. Thus the purists are borne down by the masses. So during this period as well as at every other period in the history of the Telugus, in the Telugu community as well as in every other civilised community, it is the language of the lower classes that is called *grāmya*, not of the upper classes. If the language of the Telugu Rajahs, Telugu Judges, Telugu Munsiffs, Telugu Lawyers, Telugu Pandits be vulgar, where are the civilised, cultured and refined members of the Telugu community whose language is not *grāmya* but *nāgarika*, not vulgar but polite and refined? It is unthinkable—the existence of the one without the other. The fallacy the argument of the conservative scholars consists in confusing two kinds of distinction; one is based on the difference in point of time and the other is based on the difference in point of position in society at one particular period. Tennyson held in reverence the memory of the "Morning star of song" and always admired

".....Those melodious bursts that fill
The spacious times of great Elizabeth
With sounds that echo still."

Chaucer and Shakespeare are regarded as classical poets and their language as chaste and vigorous. Abbot says that "though modern English may perhaps claim some superiority," in point of "completeness and perspicuity" still it is a "sleepy language" compared with the language of Shakespeare. But neither Tennyson nor Abbot would think of instituting a comparison between their own language and Chaucer's or Shakespeare's in point of *refinement, culture, politeness* or *dignity* as expressed in language, any more than they would compare their dress and their manners with those of Chaucer and of Shakespeare.

The misuse of the term *grāmya* by the Pandit is most deplorable: it has tended to confuse important issues. With his blind reverence for the past the Pandit has come to hold most illogical notions regarding literary art. That reverence for the past which is best kept within wholesome bounds has produced in the modern conservative Pandit who is apt to carry things to absurd lengths, a perverse notion that the literary excellence of the older poets depended solely on the *language* they used. Failing to see how the artist used the materials and the tools he had at hand in order to produce the effect so much admired, the modern imitator thinks that if he should have the same materials and tools, he could paint a masterpiece too. This misconception has led to an astounding degree of blind zeal and blind reverence for the mere language of the older poets. Its effects, too, on Telugu literature are such that the term literature is hardly applicable to what the conservative school call by that name. For almost all the works of the last fifty years, some of which have *really* enriched the language and literature, are not, in the view of the Pandits.

considered worthy to be placed in the same list with the ancient writers. In their view prose works do not form literature. Their ideal prose as defined in the poetics has no parallel in any language. Lyly's Euphuism pales before it. It is intended like poetry to please the ear by its own peculiar rhythm. The communities in which prose evolved consisted of practical men, who used prose for communicating thought to some practical end. The life of those communities was such that every aspect of it related to the interests, not of one but of all the sections of the people. The masses had first to be informed and convinced before their approval and co-operation could be won for anything that the leaders intended to do for the benefit of the community. Hence simple, intelligible, ordinary, everyday speech was employed by speakers and writers. What they most cared for were the ideas and the arrangement of the ideas and they studied the art of presenting them in the most effectual way, by observing how in ordinary life men's emotions are swayed by language. Thus developed prose in Greece, Rome, France and England.

In the Telugu country, the poets that wrote in Telugu were Sanskrit Pandits, who thought nothing worth studying or cultivating or doing which was not enjoined in Sanskrit books. They studied the Sanskrit language and literature and adopted the tradition and ideals of Sanskrit scholars when they made their experiments in Telugu literature. The aim of the writers may be seen from the subject-matter and the language of the works. Religious merit is the chief consideration. The Rajah or other patron to whom a poem is dedicated acquires *punya* which helps him to attain salvation and the author receives a

reward in the form of an *Agrahāra*. In a few cases the author who is not worldly-minded dedicates his work to some deity. Excepting the translations of the *Rāmāyana* and the *Mahābhārata* and a few *Purānas*, which helped to promulgate the theology of the Brahmans, the bulk of what is called Telugu literature is made up of erotic works. Only those that are possessed of eroto-mani can appreciate the merits of this species of literature. Thanks to the obscurity of language and sentiment and to the oddities of rhetorical display, intelligible only to those favoured few who are initiated into those mysteries, these works which were manufactured to order, or to win applause at the Courts of Rajahs like Charles II, were confined to such circles, and their obscenities have scarcely contaminated the masses. The so-called Telugu literature does not at all reflect the life of the Telugu people.

The language of these literary works is more than half Sanskrit and the rest is artificial Telugu made of obsolete words and coined phrases. The little of the living language which is found in it is unavoidably dialectic and is stifled by the mass of dead matter heaped on it. No one who has critically examined the language of the Telugu poets will fail to notice two things: (a) the author of every classical poem must have possessed a sound knowledge of the Sanskrit language and of Sanskrit grammar besides a close acquaintance with the Telugu words and expressions used in the works written previous to his time; (b) none can understand such a classical poem, who has not a knowledge of the Sanskrit language and all the obsolete Telugu words. A lawyer's preparatory labours are much lighter

than those of a Telugu student. It is enough if the lawyer is acquainted with the laws *in force* and the the decisions of the High Courts. A knowledge of the Foreign laws and the laws that have been repealed will no doubt produce legal acumen; but for practical purposes they are not essential. Neither need he carry in his head all the laws in force. A Telugu student, however, has to remember all the Sanskrit words and the compounds in addition to the Telugu words that have been used since the beginning. The works of several modern writers of repute are condemned by the orthodox Pandit on the ground that the rules of Sanskrit grammar and of the grammar of old Telugu were violated here and there. It is no exaggeration to say that a Telugu boy will find it much easier to learn Sanskrit than literary Telugu. Most of the "Telugu" Pandits are only "Sanskrit" Pandits who have but a nodding acquaintance with literary Telugu. A Telugu student has to learn two dead languages and what is more difficult, to resist the temptation of using the living language. The Sanskrit student has, a colossal grammar to help him which defines almost all the phenomena of the Sanskrit language. Obsolete Telugu has a grammar which is a hundred times worse than a traveller's guide to a foreign language. It serves to beguile rather than guide the student. Let it be borne in mind that the author of that Telugu grammar whoever he was, wrote it in the Sanskrit language, a fact which indicates the purpose which it was intended to serve.

An Englishman would realise the difficulties of a student of Telugu (foreign or native) if he could imagine the English literary language to mean a language in which it is allowable

to use every Latin word, phrase and even entire sentences and all the words and grammatical forms occurring in all the English books written, say, from the time of Alfred till the time of Johnson, French or Spanish, Arabic or Persian, Indian or Chinese, but in which no word of the living language should be used.

It is evident both from the subject-matter of the literary works and the language in which they were written that they were never intended for the enlightenment or amusement of masses. *Purānas* were indeed expounded to the masses, as they still are, by the learned Brahmans. It is impossible to think that the authors ever meant that these works should be read by the masses when almost every stanza contains difficult Sanskrit words or compounds.

It is an anachronism to talk of schools and a system of popular education at a period when even Brahmans were not all "literate." Learning was confined to very few and it meant Sanskrit learning and nothing else. It is pedantic. A few of the children of the upper classes learnt by rote, dictionaries and grammars and the classics. Other things like history, geography, science—all that 'stuff' was simply non-existent. Arithmetic and the mother-tongue were learnt by the children of the officials who turned their minds only to mundane affairs. Such a problem as the one now under discussion could not have agitated the public mind during the time of Rajah Rajah Narendra or of Krishna Deva Raya. The question of using modern Telugu as a medium of instruction and of cultivating it as a literary language relates to one of the most important of *social* reforms. In the next article I shall discuss it from that point of view.

PEDAGOGIC OUTFIT.

AN eminent writer very felicitously observes regarding the teaching profession thus:—"To help the young soul, add energy, inspire hope and blow the coals into a useful flame, to redeem defeat by a new thought, by a firm action; that is not easy, that is the work of divine men." So then the humble vocation of schoolmasters—a class of overworked but ill-paid employees—looms large in the eyes of all people, nay, even of those supercilious demi-gods that talk flippantly of them as "Dannas." If the weal or woe of an individual in his after-life is determined by his progress or lethargy during his pupilage; if the happiness of a family or a community is the direct outcome of the healthy ideas imbibed by its members at school; if there is a better understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizens now than before—the fruition of these ideas is largely due to the sagacious gardener that undertakes the work of rearing human plants. It will be seen that, apart from the highly onerous nature of the calling, there is abundant scope for a full play of the several faculties that man is endowed with. I will summarise here a few of the essential characteristics the possession of which will enrich a teacher and exalt him above his brothers in the field but in the absence of the same he is likely to be handicapped in the race.

Intellectual equipment.—A person that pursues the profession of teaching must assiduously treasure up a mine of knowledge and information in order to discharge his own duties very efficiently to the satisfaction of his superiors and also to the advance of the young minds committed to his care. Of him it should be said, as it was said of Chaucer's

clerk, 'Gladly wolde he learn and gladly teache.' He must endeavour to keep abreast of his times by learning new methods of instruction and by adapting himself to the changing environment. Beside having a fair acquaintance with every branch of knowledge, he must focus his mind in some special study. His memory must be strong and unfailing that his classes may be lively and his instruction valuable. Above all, he must be a level-headed man, capable of forming sound judgments and he must possess a judiciously cultivated imagination and will.

Moral equipment.—It is admitted on all hands that cleanliness of person and dress is no small adjunct to a teacher. While the presence of this feature in him enables him to exercise a persistent influence for good by radiating a spirit of liveliness and purity, the lack of it indubitably tends to belittle him in the eyes of pupils whose transparent intellect never fails to perceive singularities in men and especially in teachers that come under their observation. The essential factors of a teacher's charm may be said to be (i) gravity of appearance, (ii) sympathetic attitude. A young enthusiastic teacher may have the delusion that, for success in teaching, one must acquire a fund of well-organised, accurate knowledge only and that other accessories of the sort mentioned, count absolutely for nothing. On the contrary, it should never escape the notice of any teacher that he can command very little respect from his students and parents if all his words, thoughts, and actions are not characterised by seriousness. A man of levity may, of course, be the source of ephemeral delight to unthinking minds. So in the interest of the juveniles, the flashy and the trivial natures should be eschewed from all contact with the young. No less

valuable a quality is *sympathy*. A hasty teacher will be chagrined when he finds that his pupils do not follow him, being totally unmindful of his own defect. He is apt to ignore entirely the age, the power of comprehension and the fidgety nature of the juveniles, not to speak of the inner workings of their hearts. Any instruction that is imparted by a teacher that is oblivious of the mental constitution of tender souls under his guidance must necessarily prove fruitless. The egregious blunder very often made is that the same rigorous standard of judgment is applied in the case of boys as is adopted in the case of adults. The poet's dictum as to the treatment of a wife may with slight variations be applied to the mode of judging a pupil:—

Be to her faults a little blind,
And to her virtues a little kind.

Thus then, the more is the sympathy between the teachers and the taught, the larger is the sphere of the teacher's action and the enduring good work he can accomplish. Closely akin to this is *regard for others*. The utter absence of this is due to the wrong adjustment of the mental balance in relation to the outside world. Some self-obtrusive natures act ungraciously being actuated by motives of self-exaltation. They become warped upon the subject of self-analysis, wondering how they look, how they appear, what others will think of them, how they can enhance their own interests. In other words every thought and every effort seems to focus upon self; nothing radiates from them. The sacred calling of a teacher is the preparation of the young in whose minds perennial flow of goodness is to well forth in after-life. Appropriately, therefore, it is desirable that teachers if not others, should live up to the moral ideal crystallised in the following, viz.,

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"a good heart, a kindly disposition, a frank, cordial, open, generous nature are riches beside which the fortune of a multi-millionaire shrinks into insignificance as the former may do as much good as the latter, if not more." Again, strictness in the enforcement of the disciplinary rules is another noteworthy trait of a good teacher, and he rises or falls according as he is rigid or slack in the maintenance of order in his classes. There is ample scope for the display of his sense of proportion and justice in awarding punishment to the offender as he is likely to err by making it far too lenient or too cruel. Here more than in anything else a teacher's individuality—his prejudices and partiality, his freaks and fancies—becomes conspicuously plain and striking.

Physical equipment. Perfection of limbs and organs and symmetry of form are very important factors that go to adorn a teacher's personality. Do we not know of imps that ridicule and dub teachers with titles on account of congenital or acquired deformities of theirs? As far as in him lies, a teacher must cultivate bodily strength and beauty by vigorous and healthy exercise. It is quite incumbent on him to do so; for, what with the varied responsibilities of his life, and what with the nervous strain teaching work considerably demands, the teacher must burn out his life's candle quickly if he fails to husband it by systematic bodily exercise. If he be an ardent lover of games, he seeks not only his own good but also the good of his boys. He is the best fitted to foster in the young a love of field-sports, and thereby implant lofty ideals of manhood and fame.

To conclude: In trying to specify a few of the requisites of the teaching profession, I have dilated on some strong points in connec-

tion therewith as they do not seem to receive sufficient cognisance now. But, above all, it should be remembered that the *sine qua non* of a teacher's avocation is a *highly contented mental state*. Otherwise the teacher has mistaken his calling and therefore is doomed to die a languishing death by continuance in it, as the shibboleth of his service 'overwork and underpay' is rending the very air with loud cries of workers far and near.

M. K.

EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

INTRODUCTION.

EDUCATION is a vast subject and of the many sided subjects, according to J. S. Mill, education has the greatest number of sides. But I shall confine myself to one aspect of it—education in our schools. Even this aspect of the subject is too large for an article to a review and in this issue I shall deal with (i) the old and the new Matriculation examinations by way of introduction, (ii) the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme—its general scope and practicability and in the next I shall offer my remarks on (iii) the teachers of our schools and their disabilities (iv) the Headmaster and his position and (v) the pupils and their work.

THE OLD MATRICULATION.

Till a few years back the condition of education in our schools was quite different from that of the education of to-day. That condition was attained through a system that existed for nearly half a century and which has now become 'old.' Under the old system those who had a successful school career—for it was possible and it is still possible to pass through a school and to be an utter failure—had a considerable knowledge of

subjects connected with secondary education. The complaint was that they did not possess an intelligent knowledge and were ignorant of its practical application. This was demanding perfection at every step. If secondary education was to be preparatory to higher education this blame was very much undeserved. A student of political science, a true science and a perfected knowledge of history, must be beforehand in possession of historical facts though tediously acquired and imperfectly understood. A student of mathematics must have mastered the machinery of the subject, i.e., the elementary facts and formulæ connected with the subject, before he learns their applications. The knowledge of the mere facts gives, in a reasonable time, an insight into the subject which enables the student to learn their application, with clearer perception, with greater facility, and so with keener interest. To tack the rationale and too much of the practical application of the principles of a subject with its elementary knowledge is to bewilder the student and to present confounding obstacles in his way of easy progress. Our University examiners—generally none of them teachers in our Secondary schools—wanted to have secondary education perfect in itself. Of course the acquirements of students in our schools fell short of their expectations and hence the numerous failures. The absence of definite checks in the matter of admission and promotion of students also largely contributed to the number of failures. These defects might have been remedied without any radical change in the system of education.

THE NEW MATRICULATION.

But such a change was thought desirable and the New Matriculation scheme was the

result. Under this scheme syllabuses were published demanding from the pupils greater knowledge and greater perfection than could be acquired in schools moderately equipped. But the system presented a few advantages. It appeared to be a development on the old and demanded only gradual changes and so there was little fear of dislocation or confusion in school work. The University lectures which followed the publication of the new scheme promised some sort of mutual understanding between the teachers of schools and the examiners of the University. The system had some definiteness about it, apart from its difficulty, which was a decided advantage both to the teacher and the taught. Anyhow the scheme was not given a fair trial, in 1909 the teachers prepared their students for an examination which was neither old nor new, questions were asked which neither the old nor the new set of pupils could satisfactorily answer—and no wonder there were boys who neither passed nor failed.

THE S. S. L. C. SCHEME AND ITS GENERAL SCOPE.

And we have now the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme.

The following are claimed as the special features of the scheme which make it an improvement on the Matriculation :—

Firstly it gives prominence to the study of English and Elementary Mathematics by including them in the compulsory group and by making it possible for greater time and attention being devoted to them by relegating the subjects of the old general knowledge group into a position of comparative unimportance. Vernacular Translation is another compulsory subject. It is not time enough to forget the fuss made about the direct method of teaching English and the disappearance of the translation paper in the new Matriculation Examination. But an examination which is a

passport for entering public service must include the translation test. In this connection it must be said a scheme such as the New Matriculation examination which is for preparing the students for a University course will aim at a higher standard of education and a more rational method of imparting such education than a scheme such as the Government Upper Secondary Examination which is a test for entering Government service. Our present S. S. L. C. scheme which is, to a great extent, a combination of the two schemes must necessarily fall short of either. Vernacular composition is compulsory but curiously enough vernacular is included in the optional group. The important groups for the Intermediate Examination do not include the vernacular and those who intend entering the University do not trouble themselves about Tamil or Sanskrit while at school. How boys who do not read classical prose and poetry of a language can write good composition in that language is a mystery to many and must be intelligible only to those who think that vernacular composition can be taught better by English knowing teachers with a smattering of the vernacular than by the Pandits.

Secondly it leaves it to the discretion of the Headmaster and teachers of a school subject to the supervision of the inspecting authorities to impart instruction to pupils in such subjects as I. History, Geography, Elementary Science etc., without subjecting them to a public examination in these subjects thus avoiding too many examinations. In the Matriculation these subjects formed the so-called general knowledge group. The examination in these subjects—it was believed—to have been the cause of so much cramming and of so many failures. Under the Matriculation scheme History and Geography occupied a prominent place in the curriculum, expert teachers were appointed, up-to-date appliances and text-

books were sent for and special University lectures were arranged. But now we hear very little about these subjects. In the time-table the minimum number of periods is assigned to them and the teaching of these subjects is entrusted to whomsoever who can spare a period or two in the adjustment of the time-table. The teacher of History naturally devotes most of his time and energy in the preparation and teaching of optional History. Historical and Geographical map-drawing is very frequently resorted to in the class-room, as graphic methods of teaching these subjects and a large number of these maps gives at once rest to the teacher and satisfaction to the inspecting authorities. The same tale cannot be told of Elementary Science in the B group. This subject profits by the considerable attention now paid to Optional Physics and Chemistry and has acquired a degree of importance by the fact that admission into the Intermediate class in group I in the case of those who have taken up either Physics or Chemistry as an optional subject, depends upon their proficiency in Elementary Science.

Thirdly it provides for the student specializing in a particular subject or subjects, while at school. This is altogether a new feature of the scheme. This specialization saves the pupil the time and labour which he wasted under the old system in drudging through a subject for which he had neither taste nor aptitude. On the other hand it enables him to acquire a detailed knowledge of subjects the study of which he was to continue at college. It also enables one who is good in English, Elementary Mathematics and his Vernacular to qualify himself for public service without troubling himself with the advanced portions of Mathematics and Science for which he has no aptitude and without which he can be an efficient and successful clerk in the Court of a Divisional

Officer or a District Munsiff or a successful student in a technical school or college.

Fourthly, it has introduced the marking system which gives importance to the work done in the class room. This is one of the decided advantages of the scheme in as much as the work of the teacher and the taught is not to be judged solely by the results of a single examination. According to this scheme it is left entirely to the Headmaster and his assistants to select pupils to appear for the public examination. To appear for the examination means to get a certificate, however shabby the marks obtained may be. The results of the S. S. L. C. Examination published shows that sufficient discretion has not been exercised in selecting pupils to appear for the public examination. Pupils who appeared for the public examination, not a few of them obtained one digit marks in English and subjects they had selected for special study and some of them got actual zero.

INFERENCE FROM THE LATE S. S. L. C.

EXAMINATION RESULTS AS TO THE WORKING OF THE SCHEME.

This is the general scope of the scheme and though it is barely a year the scheme has been working it is possible to make certain statements about its practicability. From the results published last year it is easily seen that most of the schools prepare pupils only for the University Course, Geometry and Algebra, Physics or Chemistry or English History and a Vernacular being the only optional subjects taught. Some small schools have confined themselves only to English History and a Vernacular. The Mrs. A. V. N. College, Vizagapatam, which sent up 145 pupils to the public examination of last year is the only institution where the scheme is fully worked up as many as nine optional subjects being taught in that college.

Commercial Practice and Geography, Precise Writing and Correspondence and other technical subjects are taught only in very few High Schools.—The High Schools of Trichinopoly, Tinnevely, Palamcottah, Guntur, Coimbatore, Conjeevaram and Cuddalore. Excepting the High Schools at Coimbatore the other High Schools contain more than two or three sections in the VI Form and can form a separate section of students taking up these technical subjects.

In small schools with one section in each form it is very difficult to introduce more than four subjects of the C group. As at least two years course is necessary to enable one to appear for the public examination in these subjects and Vernacular comprises at least two languages, the 5th and the 6th Forms go into 6 groups of generally not more than a dozen boys in each. This means additional accommodation, increased staff and expensive equipment which many schools are unable to provide. The framing of the time-table becomes really a problem. The small schools must therefore prepare their students either for the University course, or for the public service or for a technical or commercial study. It is not clear that any school has declared itself for the latter work. Even in large schools it is not possible ordinarily to introduce more than six subjects of the C group, Geometry and Algebra, English History, Physics or Chemistry and a vernacular being the constant four. Thus unless the schools of one particular area, divide the working among themselves it is not practicable to derive the full benefit of the scheme.

S. CHINNASAMI AIYER.

(To be continued.)

DRAWING IN THE KINDERGARTEN.*

- (1) The Educational value of Drawing to young children.
- (2) The qualification of the teacher.
- (3) Methods of Drawing.
- (4) Conclusion.

1. Of all the various subjects in the Kindergarten that which mostly improves the children's faculties all round is Drawing.

It improves their power of observation, imagination and trains their sense of sight and touch and also gives them a fair idea of the sense of proportion.

The educational value of Drawing depends upon the facts that children are led early to observe the relative size of lines, figures and objects and also to observe the minute differences of detail.

It improves their imaginative power inasmuch as they are trained to illustrate stories and as they are given sufficient scope for word-painting and lastly the acquisition of the sense of proportion affords ample opportunities to discipline their own lives.

It works upon the mind of the child, aids him in perceiving the beautiful forms of nature, leads him on to the habit of modelling his own life to correspond with the orderly system in the universe, in short it makes his soul vibrate and re-arrange so as to harmonise his inner music with the music of the world. The child is enabled to shape his actions to fit with the regularity of the external world, his æsthetic sense is developed and habits of order, regularity, neatness and kindred nobler virtues are very early acquired.

As the formation of character is one of the chief aims of education and as it is developed

* Paper read recently at the Educational Conference held at Irinjalakuda, by S. S. Venkataramana Iyer, Artist and Drawing Master, Govt. High School, Irinjalakuda, Cochin.

only in a well disciplined life, the disciplinary value of Drawing displays itself most. Hence it will be seen the Drawing is an important acquisition to children especially in the impressionable periods of youth.

2. The teacher who gives lessons on Kindergarten Drawing need not be an expert but must be one who understands the difficulties of children, one who is able to recall his younger days when his idea of proportion was very meagre, one who will work conjointly with the children in their little attempts, in short, one who will be a child among children. With careful study and sufficient attention any teacher can become a good Kindergarten teacher of Drawing. Nor is Drawing to be taught as is generally done in High Schools. For children's Drawing is only their expression of ideas and images translated into the language of figures. Hence the teacher's aim must be to draw out of the child's mind his own perspective which under proper guidance is bound to be fully developed. The child's mental vision is enlarged in comprehending forms and images as wholes. Hence success in the teaching of Drawing will be attained better by one who understands the child's mind than by one who knows the art alone well.

3. The various heads under which Drawing may be classified in the Kindergarten are: (1) Free-Hand Outline Drawing; (2) Free-Arm Drawing; (3) Memory Drawing; (4) Word-painting; (5) Brush-Drawing; (6) Chalk-Drawing; (7) Drawing from Nature.

Free-Hand Outline Drawing.

The object of free-hand is to train the muscles of the children's fingers and to enable them to acquire ease and facility in the work. With this purpose in view it has been recommended that children should draw models and figures with chalk on brown paper. The use of lead pencils, or other hard substances very early must be strictly avoided.

Simple models, not necessarily geometrical models, but objects with which they come into

contact in the story lesson or the nature lesson are to be placed before children. The teacher should never give them before-hand an idea of perspective but should gradually guide them on to find it out for themselves. The position of the children is a thing to be carefully attended to. The child should sit upright.

Free-Arm Drawing.

This is done preferably on wall boards or easel boards or varnished card boards. The children are arranged circularly. The chalk is held at arms-length and the figures are drawn with one sweep of the hand. For the purpose the boys are made to imitate the teacher's Drawing by waving their hands to form imaginary figures in the air a number of times before they actually do it on board. No shake of the hands nor stoppages are to be allowed, neither the use of the towel nor patch work is to be encouraged. This form of Drawing affords ample scope for the execution of movements of hands, whereby in addition to the training of the eye the child's sense of touch is also trained.

We grown-up may not be able to appreciate the educational value of this kind of Drawing, but the child's interest is kindled and love of free movements is aided.

Memory Drawing and Word-Painting.

The object of these exercises is to develop the reasoning and the imaginative power of children. It requires a great amount of sympathy and insight into the ways of children to appreciate their little attempts in their illustrative power. The teacher will sometimes be surprised to see extraordinary touches in their figures. This is specially the case in word-painting. Children are given words and asked to draw anything connected with them. For example, we shall suppose that the children are required to illustrate what comes uppermost in their minds in connection with the word fire.

On a particular occasion when the word was given to a class of children one of the boys sketched a house on fire. Another boy who prob-

ably was in the habit of warming his body by the side of a heap of withered leaves on the roadside sketched it. While a third drew the forge of the blacksmith. Many other illustrations of this sort were given. The advantages of this system of Drawing cannot be over-estimated.

Chalk Drawing and Brush-Work.

Both coloured chalks and brush work are methods by which children are enabled to discriminate the various colours and get an idea as to how solidity of figures can be represented. This is important as a trainer of the eye and much should not be expected from the children at the outset.

The educational value is not apparent at first, but it is of great importance in the school syllabus.

Drawing from Nature.

This is one of the most important branches of the Drawing work in the Kindergarten and can never be dispensed with. The child is very early introduced into contact with nature and herein begins his first step in his admiration on the works of creation. This lesson can be very easily correlated with the nature lesson and the story lesson. In fact it can be correlated with most of the Kindergarten occupations.

Conclusion.

From what has been said above it will be observed how essential it is that a child should at the very outset have an acquaintance with the fine art, how it develops the faculties of the children in an interesting way, how it gives a child an aesthetic taste, how in short it prepares the child for a further realization of his happiness. Useless is the Kindergarten which does not set apart sufficient time for this important subject and useless is the teacher who complains that he has no "taste" for this art. For it is presumed that every teacher in the Primary Department must handle his own class in Drawing and no Drawing-master is to be employed for the purpose. It can be easily imagined how happy the children feel when they have made

their own little attempts at the production of the figures. They jump up and down, run from corner to corner, displaying their works admiring the little touches which they have involuntarily given and expecting to be congratulated for their unaided attempts. It is the teacher's business to encourage them every now and then and sympathise with them in their difficulties. Happy are the children who find such a teacher and happy is the teacher who with a knowledge of the child's mind works among them.

THE SRI MARTHANDA I. A. E. EXHIBITION OF 1911, PUDUKKOTTAI.

The Sri Marthanda Exhibition of 1911 lasted from the 12th of December 1911 to the 8th of January 1912. It stood apart from previous Exhibitions of its kind here, in that it has linked itself in the memory of the people of this State with two august personages near and dear to them, viz. His Majesty the Emperor, and H. H. The Maharajah of Pudukkottai. It was opened by G. T. H. Bracken, Esq., I. C. S., Superintendent of State, in a neat little speech on the day of the Imperial Coronation Durbar at Delhi and assumed the aspect of a boon conferred upon his subjects by His Highness as part of the local celebration of the unique event at the Imperial capital of the Empire; and it had further the honour of being formally closed and of having the prizes awarded by His Highness in person.

The Exhibition under review differed from its local predecessors in more points than one. In previous years, the Exhibitions were purely educational and were confined to interschool competitions, and the display of exhibits from teachers and pupils. The teachers visiting them had also the benefit of the lectures that were delivered for their edification. But the present Exhibition underwent considerable

modification and expansion by the inclusion of Industrial and Agricultural sections. More light streamed from the outside, or in other words a decidedly larger number of exhibits were received from British India, which, while generally serving the purposes of comparison, in some cases eloquently testified to the high state of development of some of the local industries—notably carpet-weaving.

All Exhibitions are but a means of visual instruction, and a series of practical demonstrations in arts, industries and educational methods is certainly a useful adjunct, nay a vital component of exhibitions. Among the various departures in a new and wholesome direction, which the Durbar introduced this Exhibition year, perhaps the most noteworthy was the institution of several demonstrations calculated to be of benefit to the teacher, the ryot, and the artisan. In special tents put up in the premises, hand-looms, pit-looms, and agricultural machinery like the winnower, the chaff-cutter, disc-pump, and cane and coffee-mills were exhibited and worked. Small industries like rattan-plaiting, embroidery, and the manufacture of hollow aluminium ware were conducted every day, as long as the Exhibition lasted.

There were also other points of difference between the present Exhibition and the previous ones. A decent number of medals—decent for a beginning, in silver and bronze—were given away, in addition to money-prizes to the value of Rs. 173. This was an advance upon previous years, because in past years, merit was recognised merely by the award of certificates. The Durbar sanctioned a grant which was half as much again as previous grants, and the amount went a long way as they cordially and readily directed the other departments of the State to render what assistance the managers of the Exhibition may require. Thus materials for the con-

struction of Exhibition stalls, tents, lights, furniture, and constabular guard came from the respective departments. Another unique feature was the personal interest that the ministers of His Highness, Mr. Bracken and the Dewan took not only by making frequent visits and rendering the help they gave as soon as asked for, but also by sending exhibits of their own for display.

The Exhibition was kept open for nearly a month, and throughout this pretty long while, visitors continued to pour in and the interest was unabated till the close. The number went up to 21,000, which was nearly the population of the town within the municipal limits. A good many thousands of these were ladies. Among the distinguished visitors that inspected and took a keen interest may be mentioned Col. Boddie, the Rev. Mr. Gardiner, the Principal of the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, the Asst. Director of Agriculture, Southern Division, and the Deputy Collector of Tinnevely.

The administration of the affairs of the Exhibition was placed in the hands of a committee presided over by M.R.Ry. J. Dharmaranga Raju Garu, Rao Bahadur, Dewan Peishkar. The Superintendent of Schools was the Vice-President of the educational section, and the present writer, as Secretary, was in charge of the executive. It is no exaggeration to say that the far-seeing, sympathetic and able supervision of the Dewan Peishkar contributed not a little to the success of the Exhibition. A man of resources and will, he knew when to take the lead of, and when to be led by a committee whose co-operation and anxiety to fulfil its obligations and duties was a noteworthy feature. The Dewan Peishkar was not only the President, but one of the foremost exhibitors in the agricultural section, the deliverer of a number of interesting lectures on Agriculture,

and demonstrator in the State Farm of the use of modern agricultural implements and of the advantages of the scientific treatment of soil, and cultivation of plants. The Superintendent of Schools, though only a year old in his office worked as arduously and successfully as men of longer service, and great credit is due to him for the major portion of the educational exhibits that came from elementary schools, and which in the opinion of the Judges were decidedly an improvement upon those of last year in quality, though it is difficult to say in point of quantity as well. In this place I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to Mr. N. Rangachariar, my Assistant, who, as an *alter ego* of mine worked, to say the least of it, arduously and single-mindedly.

The usual ways of advertising the Exhibition were resorted to; copies of the prospectus in English and the Vernacular were distributed broadcast. Information was conveyed to British India and the Native States by the publication of the Durbar Notification or an extract thereof in State Gazettes, dailies, and journals, of which the Educational Review was one. The exhibits that amounted to nearly 7,000 were all staged on tiers in amphitheatrical fashion, so as to give one a panoramic view of the entire collection. From floor to ceiling there was not an inch of empty space in that large and spacious Town Hall where the Exhibition was held. The staging of valuable specimens of fine arts in conspicuous positions, of large portraits of His Highness executed by local artists, the display of design carpets, bed-sheets, and silk saris in the railings of the gallery which ran all round over the ground-floor and the grouping together of exhibits coming under sections and sub-sections, all tended to enhance the spectacular value of the Exhibition. On entering the Exhibition premises, the

visitor was greeted by a line of tents in which machines and looms were busy at work and found himself occasionally under a shower from the spray-end of the fire-engine, or hearkening in the midst of ploughs and harrows to the whirl of the winnower or the rat-tat-tat of the chain-pump. As one ascended into the Hall, the rattan-plaiter on the right, and the embroidery specialist on the left, claimed his attention, and farther up, the attender in charge of the rare collections of paddy, cotton, and manure from the Government College at Coimbatore, and the agent in charge of the school books, charts, and pictures of Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co., fastened themselves upon the sight-seer, and communicated somewhat of their enthusiasm. No sooner off the hands of these, than the visitor found himself taken charge of by student volunteers who conducted him to the respective sections, and had the exhibits carefully pointed out and explained by the Exhibition officers who were mostly recruited from the Department of General Education.

I shall review below the exhibits according to sections.

The educational exhibits were twice as many as those sent in the name of agriculture and industries. Though it is true that every bit of drawing, or paper sloyd counted as an exhibit, and thus tended to swell up the number, yet it should be conceded that the exhibits were on the whole of superior quality. The historical charts prepared under the supervision of the Principal of the College, as aids to the teaching of History were super-fine, and though a year old had lost none of their value. The physiological charts from the State Training School were so good in artistic finish as to occupy a place in the picture gallery of the Exhibition. The drawings and charts from the Tirumayam Lower Secondary School came quite close upon the

heels of the very best in this section, and were among the premier exhibits from the mofussil. By far the most interesting, because the most indicative of the elevation of the "untouchable" classes were the maps and charts from Panchama teachers and pupils, who in this manner, showed that the trouble which the State took in educating and training the Panchama teachers some years ago had not proved in vain. Quite a large number of State maps, and village plans came from rural schools and a complete wing was occupied by the historical maps and drawings of the students of the College. A novel feature of this year's Exhibition was the active part that the school-mistresses evinced by sending a number of lovely crayon and brush-drawings, and this is proof positive that they are falling in line with the trend of modern educational ideas; and they should also be congratulated on the excellent specimens of fancy and needle-work that they sent or trained their pupils to make and exhibit.

The scientific appliances were fine though few. Among these a lantern for bromide enlargement, an appliance for illustrating planetary perturbations and a chemical balance were worthy of special mention.

The natural History section was well in evidence on account of the rich variety of bird, insect, and butterfly collections that came from the State Museum but these however tended to eclipse some poor collections that had been sent by teachers.

In the historical section, inscriptions, copper-plates, coins, and stamps were conspicuous and engaged the attention of the historically curious.

It would take too long to exhaust the sections or take them up in detail as many

of them deserve. But passing mention should be made of the high quality of clay and sloyd models from schools of which it may be said with confidence that the pupils of these parts may well compete with their brothers elsewhere. The colouring and shaping of the first of these, and the mathematical accuracy, finish and neatness of the second were well worthy of commendation. Limits of space alone forbid any detailed reference to the numerous notes of lessons, syllabuses, time-tables, and school-records that were exhibited.

Before passing over to the remaining sections it would be well to notice the book-stalls of Messrs. Longmans, Green and Co., as well as the exhibits from Mysore. It is needless to expatiate upon the merits of the first since they are well-known to the educational world as one of the pioneer and successful publishers of books written with a knowledge of Indian requirements and conditions. The books that were exhibited here won the warmest praises from Mr. S. Radhakrishnaiyar, Principal, and the Superintendent of Schools, who, among others, were appointed to judge them. The exhibits that came from Mysore included many from English schools. They showed in the first place the marked improvement that Mysore youths have made in wood-sloyd. The English exhibits were really an eye-opener. The systematic study of, and painting from, nature, the collateral practice of outline drawing, mass-drawing, and brush-work, the excellent organisation, and the well-ordered arrangement of school-rooms as was evident from an inspection of the photographs of the inside of English schools were a few among those matters which could be learnt from these English exhibits, and were well-worth the

careful study of every one who believes in an art of education, and of progress in it as in other departments of human activity and organisation.

Though no trouble was spared in bringing the Exhibition to the cognisance of various schools in Southern India, it is regrettable to note that very few schools responded to the appeal that was made. It can only mean that the full value of Exhibitions has yet to be realised in our country, and that such spirit of healthy rivalry among schools and scholars as may be evinced in an Exhibition has yet to be stirred up in our midst. And it is earnestly hoped that those of the teaching profession who may chance to read this journal—and they must be many—may bestow a moment's attention upon the utility and the desideratum of inter-school Exhibitions. It is from considerations of this kind as well as for their merit that I mention in this place the exhibits that came from Mavalikara in Cochin, and through the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Karur Range.

The Agricultural and Industrial sections were equally interesting. I have already adverted to the rich and various collections of paddy, etc., exhibited by the Dewan Peishkar, and in this he competed along with the local Agricultural Association. Sugar-cane, ground-nut, vegetables, green and chemical manures, and medicinal roots were in evidence. A remarkably fine botanical collection of leaves and fibres was exhibited by Mr. P. V. Jagannatha Rao, a local resident. Of the valuable collections of medicinal roots that were displayed on the stalls, those of a student were numerically the largest. The fine modellings in clay of Mr. Venkataranga Raju, and the glass bangles from the village of Vaithur showed how in one case there were talents in

Pudukkottai for the sculptor's art, and in the other case, there were industries awaiting development, encouragement and capital. Inks, rubber-stamps, engravings in wood and metal, rattan and reed articles were quantitatively as much as could be desired. The exhibits from the Government College at Coimbatore, and the Cochin State made up in quality what they lacked in quantity. Among them were specimens of exotic paddy like the banku, of Combodia cotton, and of rich ear-heads of maize and other cereals, and these contained as much of suggestive information as a farmer could well digest and act upon for a couple of years.

It is difficult to say whether the finest exhibits in the Industrial section were the paintings or the weaving goods. Life-size portraits and landscapes in oil, water-colours from a student in Madras, and crayon sketches from a local artist in whose case nature has been so cruel as to deprive him of an eye, tended to make this section a modest picture gallery. On the other hand the artistic adjustment of colour, the originality of design and the high finish of the carpets from Erode and the State Training School tended to give a gay and lively effect to the Exhibition scene.

The hardware section was also commendable. The pumps and agricultural machinery of Messrs. Burn & Co. of Calcutta were of course the best of the group. The safes and camp furniture from a local workshop competed closely with the hollow aluminium-ware from the State Jail. Bed-sheets, purses, hammocks, towels, and weaving sundries were as many as could be desired.

Readers of this Review may be interested to know that even in the Industrial section the student element was largely preponderant

as some of the best specimens of hardware, and textile fabrics had come from local Industrial schools.

Among contributions to the Industrial section from the outside may be mentioned tiles and terra-cotta toys from Shoranur, the towels of Dodaballapur in Mysore, and the metal engravings from Tiruvadi.

Exhibitions in Pudukkottai connote lectures largely, and these were delivered even in larger numbers than last year. I quite recollect that a correspondent of your journal writing of the Pudukkottai Exhibition of 1910 remarked on the plethora of lectures, and complained of fits of indigestion consequent upon a heavy though rich bill of fare. I do not know what he thinks of this year's menu which was really twice as long as that of last year's. But I feel bound to put down one or two circumstances which if not entirely convincing would appear to be at least extenuatory. In the first place, Pudukkottai is situated in a corner where the whistle of the steam engine is not heard, and educational lectures are as rare as the visits of Halley's comet. The Exhibition is therefore the only occasion when the teachers of the Elementary department have the benefit of addresses on educational topics. Moreover the lectures were divided into three groups according as they were intended for school-masters, school-mistresses, and ryots. It would be invidious to single out lecturers in a case where everyone tried his best to make his address instructive and interesting. A large ground was covered, and the subjects were such as to satisfy local needs. The Principal of the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, the Assistant Director of Agriculture, Southern Division, and the Manager of the Palur Farm were so obliging as to come and deliver lectures. The Agricultural addresses, like those on 'General

Agriculture,' and 'Green leaf manure' were exhaustive, and stimulating. The educational lectures like those on geography, archaeology, civics, graphs, rural libraries, and elementary science were instructive and useful.

A few model and demonstration lessons were given. Of these may be mentioned the demonstration lesson with action song given at the State Agricultural Farm, and those on porosity of bodies, and wood-sloyd. The last which was conducted by the present writer may be specially noticed in consequence of the novelty of the subject. A young Brahmin lad of 10 years went successfully through the operations of sawing, planing and joining involved in the construction of a cash-box, and it was satisfactory to infer from his work that what was possible, with only a week's training, for a boy in whose blood carpentry certainly did not run, should be possible with the large majority of school-going boys, and that the introduction of this wholesome occupation in schools would tend towards the formation of 'grit' in character, and the investment of the school with an atmosphere of practicalness.

To conclude: The history of exhibitions in Pudukkottai has been one of progress. The quality of educational exhibits has increased with years, and quantity has kept pace with quality. Even the untrained pial school-master in the odd nooks and corners of the State has become instinct with a new life like the Biblical bones in the valley. He too finds it necessary to send an exhibit or two; and when he visits the Exhibition (thanks to the Darbar for the provision of a special batta for the same) he compares notes with his brethren and returns to his village filled with new ideas and aspirations. The Exhibition under review amply demonstrated that it was something

more than a mere show costing the State hundreds of Rupees, and the honorary officers a world of worry and trouble, and that it was on the other hand a very good means of taking stock of work done, as well as an arena for healthy competition and rivalry, in addition to being a common meeting ground for the general body of teachers—a place, indeed, to rub shoulders with, and get one's angularities rubbed off.

Exhibitions are more than spectacles as teaching is more than talking. As in modern Elementary education, manual occupations are pushed more and more to the forefront, the value of Exhibitions will come more and more to be realised. Schools that stand apathetically outside the pale may rue in the long run, and the State will find that the work of free elementary education which H. H. the Maharajah was pleased to grant the other day as a Coronation boon to his subjects, will be considerably lightened and expedited by annual Exhibitions of this kind, which in fact form a sort of educational bureau.

What is true of education is true of industries and agriculture. The concerned classes have yet to understand the utility of these exhibitions, and I believe that the work of educating the ryot and the artisan in this direction is the work mainly of the Revenue Department, and the mofussil officers.

Was the Exhibition under review a success? If the visitors came in thousands, and their interest continued unabated during the entire period of the Exhibition; if the teachers attended the lectures in hundreds, and took precious care to make note of rare exhibits and valuable observations of the lecturers; if the exhibits were numbered in thousands, and their quality was generally fine; if hundreds of officers from the highest to the lowest

heartily co-operated with the committee of management as judges and helpers, there seems to be no reason to doubt the success of this year's Exhibition; and it is only a prejudiced mind and a bleared vision that may chance to differ.

N. THIAGARAJAN.

THE VICEROY'S ADDRESS.

The following is H. E. the Viceroy's Address at the Convocation of the Calcutta University held on the 16th instant:—

Vice-Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen:—Of all the positions which it falls to a Viceroy to fill there is none that I value more highly than the Chancellorship of the Calcutta University, and that because, as Chancellor, I come into direct relation with the rising generation on whose sound education the future of India so greatly depends. I am glad by my presence here this afternoon to show the interest which I take in your progress, and to have the opportunity of addressing a few words to the graduates and students assembled in this hall. It is all the more a satisfaction to me to be present here to-day, in view of the possibility that circumstances may prevent me from being present next year at a similar Convocation. I am anxious, moreover, to declare to you all, that, although separated by space and distance, I shall, so long as I remain in this country, proudly value the post that I hold of the Chancellor of this University and that it will be to me a source of pride that I am able to maintain a close connection with the intellectual side of Calcutta. I need hardly say that it will be my constant aim and endeavour to watch over and to assist the intellectual development of this great University and the moral and material welfare of its students. Whatever may be the political changes of the present or of the future, I have absolute confidence in the power of this University to hold its own and to lead the way in the development of Higher Education to a much

higher plane than exists at present either in this or any other University in India. I should like also to take this opportunity of conveying to the Vice-Chancellor of this University the warm congratulations of us all on the high honour that has been bestowed upon him recently by our King-Emperor, together with an expression of our earnest hope that he may long be spared to enjoy his well earned and well merited honour.

Since we met at the last Convocation we have lost some good friends and supporters. I may mention, in particular, the retirement of Mr. Hugh Melville Percival and Mr. Lamb and the lamented death of Mr. John Arthur Cunningham. It will not be easy to fill the place vacated by Mr. Percival. For more than 31 years he was a Professor in the Presidency College giving of his best in knowledge and care to successive generations of students, while as a member of the Syndicate and member of various Boards of Studies he rendered service of exceptional value and brought to bear a judgment which was never swayed by any other than academic considerations. Mr. Lamb, Principal of the Scottish Churches College, worked assiduously for the University as a member of the Syndicate and of various Boards of Studies. He was keenly interested in the moral and intellectual welfare of his students who valued his sympathy in their difficulties. The early death of Mr. Cunningham has deprived us of a brilliant and enthusiastic worker whose ideals and sympathy for Indian students early won him respect and affection in many quarters. And there are others too whose loss the University has to mourn or who have left India never to return to their places. We know them no more, but their influence and example live after them and inspire those who follow in their footsteps to carry on the great work which they in their time and according to their opportunity helped forward.

TEACHING AND RESIDENTIAL UNIVERSITIES.

Were I asked, Gentlemen, in what direction the currents of opinion and activity in our Univer-

sities are setting at the present time, I should reply unhesitatingly that they are converging on the fuller realisation of the idea of a teaching and residential University. In saying this I would not wish to imply in any way, failure on the part of this University in its task of coping with the provision of adequate facilities for the entire body of students under its jurisdiction, but with Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee I would say that both the teaching in the College and the residential arrangements are capable of very great development and improvement, especially upon the lines which he has indicated in the very interesting and instructive speech to which we have just listened. We are not blind to the good work which the existing Universities have done in their day. We are justly proud of their achievements. But we cannot be insensible to the change that has come through the atmosphere. Distance has been reduced by improved communications, centres of population have grown up pulsing and throbbing with new aspirations, some appearances to the contrary notwithstanding. The old dividing barriers are breaking down and we feel the need for greater union and closer co-operation. We want to develop an identity and a character of our own. The modern Universities of Europe have well been described as the nurseries and workshops of intellectual life. We want all that this description implies in India. At the present time the Universities Act of 1904 has prepared the way. That measure was keenly debated at the time, but few people are insensible to its beneficent character. Now it imposed as an obligation the systematic inspection of Colleges, and it facilitated the creation of University Professors and Lecturers for the cultivation of higher studies. Indirectly, also it foreshadowed the beginnings of a residential system. It is difficult to exaggerate the importance of inspection by maintaining continuity of standard on the one hand, and disclosing the needs of the Colleges on the other. It draws together the Universities and the Colleges and invigorates them both.

WHAT HAS BEEN ACCOMPLISHED IN CALCUTTA.

The future historian of India will assuredly ascribe to the Universities Act a strong dynamic and vitalising influence on our system of higher education under the able and effective guidance of our Vice-Chancellor Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, whose reappointment has, I know, given widespread satisfaction, and on whose expert assistance we shall rely in the forthcoming revision of the Regulations. Under his guidance the Calcutta University has made considerable progress in the directions indicated by the Act. For inspection we have a whole-time salaried officer, and we have been able to associate with him, Professors of different Colleges, to whom we owe a great debt of gratitude for the invaluable services which they have rendered, without remuneration and often at much personal inconvenience. There had been marked improvement, especially in the teaching of science, thanks largely to the liberal grants made by the Government of India, to the University and to Colleges. The Colleges are, however, still deficient in accommodation, equipment, apparatus and libraries. All these are deserving and important objects on which expenditure must increase in the near future, if we are to maintain a rising standard of education. The proper housing of the students has also received consideration. This is a matter in which I am personally much interested. I have lately made public reference to the subject, and I need not repeat here my observations. Last year the Government of India made liberal grants for this object, and in this year also further liberal provision has been made. The cost of land is a serious difficulty in Calcutta, but some progress has already been achieved. Again, the University has commenced to teach, although at present on a modest scale. In the University Law College, which the Senate determined to establish in 1908, and which was opened in June 1909, we have a teaching Faculty of Law. The College has now a whole-time Principal, and a staff of 22 Professors. The Vice-Chancellor himself

presides at most Courts. The College will shortly be located in the new University buildings, which we owe to the munificence of the Maharaja of Durbhanga. Here the students will have access to a fine Law Library, and the University Library will be housed in the same building. I think that we have every reason to congratulate ourselves on the striking success which the University Law College has achieved hitherto. Then we have the Minto Professor of Economics who is a whole-time University Professor. We have also maintained lecturers on Comparative Philology, Sanskrit, Pali, English and Mathematics for the benefit of a student in other branches, such as History, Philosophy and Economics. We have been assisted in our efforts by distinguished Professors of affiliated Colleges who, in addition to their regular work, have voluntarily undertaken to impart instruction to M.A. students during the last four years. Also the University has from time to time appointed readers on special subjects to foster investigations of important branches of learning amongst our advanced students. One of these readers, Mr. Sen, embodied his lectures on the History of the Bengal Language and Literature from the earliest times to the middle of the 18th century in a volume of considerable merit, which he is about to supplement by another original contribution to the history of one of the most important vernaculars of this country. May I express the hope that this example will be followed elsewhere and that critical schools may be established for the vernacular languages of India, which have not as yet received the attention that they deserve. During the last year also the University has published the readership lectures delivered by Professor Schuster and Dr. Walker which have been acclaimed in Europe as works of great value and merit.

NEED FOR FURTHER PROGRESS.

I cannot, however, regard the present facilities for higher studies as at all sufficient when not a few students who wish to take the degree of

Master of Arts have to be turned away for want of accommodation. That our students are capable of higher work I have no doubt. I am informed that three research studentships on the Premchand Foundation have recently been awarded on Mathematics, Chemistry and Indian Antiquities, all of which were pronounced by the examiners to evince special merit. The awards which have been made of the Coates Memorial Prize and the Durbhanga Memorial Scholarship indicate that there are capable men able and willing in the Medical Faculty to carry on research work. In addition to this, the large number of essays submitted for the Griffith Memorial Prize makes it patent that many of our graduates are engaged in advanced study and research work. It is very important that we should turn out good M.A.'s in sufficient numbers. Otherwise it will be difficult to find capable lecturers for our Colleges or to provide adequately for research. Impressed by these considerations which are not peculiar to the Calcutta University and remembering the stirring words which His Imperial Majesty addressed to the members of our Senate, the Government of India have decided to make a solid advance in the direction of teaching and residential Universities. They have allotted a recurring grant of Rs. 3 lakhs a year, of which the Calcutta University will receive Rs. 65,000 a year for the appointment of University Professors and Lecturers in special subjects, and for the encouragement in other ways of higher studies and research. They have allotted non-recurring grants amounting to Rs. 16 lakhs of which the Calcutta University will receive Rs. 4 lakhs for the provision of University buildings, libraries and equipment. In addition, a special grant of Rs. 10 lakhs has been reserved for Hostel accommodation in Calcutta, which will be non-collegiate in character. Another sum of Rs. 10 lakhs has been allotted for the development of accommodation in Dacca and the buildings required for the New University in that place. I hope that the liberality of Government will be supplemented by private liberality and

that before many years have passed efficient teaching Universities will take the place of the examining and federal Universities which we have to-day. I also hope, as I have already said, that teaching and residential Universities may be multiplied throughout India, for I believe that they will do great things for the improvement of Higher Education. I trust that I have said enough to convince you how closely at heart the Government of India have the development of the Indian Universities on modern sound lines.

AN ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE AT DELHI.

We have also drawn up a scheme for the creation of an Oriental Research Institute at Delhi, which will, it is hoped, give new life to the critical study of Orientalia and train up a class of teachers who will carry to the highest point possible the study of Indian antiquities and the classical languages of India. At the same time we are considering measures for the preservation and encouragement of the indigenous learning of the country. In time I hope that it will be possible to develop very considerably the Oriental Faculties in Universities, but the opinion of the distinguished Orientalists who came to Simla last year was almost unanimous that a commencement should be made, in the first instance, with a central Research Institute, and this, indeed, is supported by experience in other countries.

IMPROVEMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

In his Address to the Convocation last year the Vice-Chancellor impressed upon us the need for better preparation of our students in the Secondary English schools. This is a matter which has long engaged the attention of the Government of India. It is obvious that, if our students come up to College inadequately trained, an undue burden is thrown upon the Colleges, and progress is retarded, at any rate, for the first two years of the College course. Definite schemes of improvement are already under consideration, and a recurring grant of Rs. 6 lakhs a year has been allotted from Imperial revenues for the improve-

ment of education in aided Secondary Schools. I hope earnestly that funds may be hereafter available to push forward this most necessary reform. When we have our higher studies provided in the schools housed in comfort and decency and in sanitary surroundings, under conditions of discipline and with helpful guidance at hand, we may look forward to the future, with some assurance and stout of heart. I sometimes notice in the press and on the platform statements indicative of impatience at the rate of progress or at the selection of the particular line of advance that has been chosen at any moment. I can only assure you that we have in view a policy which embraces every branch of education, technical education, primary education, and female education, and which as schemes mature and funds become available, we desire to carry through in consultation with local Governments. I would ask you to be patient for a while. It is not possible to accomplish everything at once, but I think you will agree that we have made a substantial beginning this year. Before I conclude I am glad to be able to announce that Babu Ananthnath Deb, a scion of a well-known family in Calcutta, has just given the University a sum of Rs. 30,000, the interest of which is to be devoted to a Research Prize in Law, and two Gold Medals for the best Bengali poem and the best Bengali essay written by the lady graduates of the University. On behalf of the University, I thank him and I trust that others will follow his enlightened example.

ADVICE TO RECIPIENTS OF DEGREES.

It only remains for me to address a few words to those who have received their degrees to-day,

amongst whom I am glad to notice no fewer than 13 ladies. Remember that your education does not end with a degree. Your education hitherto has only been preparatory for the larger and sterner education of life and contact with your fellowmen. It is my earnest desire that you may be useful and loyal citizens leading prosperous and happy lives. And to you students who are working for your future degrees I would say be assiduous in your studies, remembering always that it is not by brilliant flashes but by sustained effort that success in life is attained. Lead healthy and vigorous lives seeking after the best and highest ideals, and eschewing all that is decadent and corrupt. Let the message of hope left by our King-Emperor inspire you to make greater efforts in the future for your own intellectual, moral and physical improvement, never forgetting the debt of duty that you owe to your own country. In this way you will fit yourselves for the high responsibilities of citizenship, which is the corner-stone of the great edifice upon which this Empire is based. My concluding words to you are be true to your God, true to your Emperor, true to your country, and to yourselves. Follow these precepts and have no fear for the future of your country or of yourselves.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

"The Teaching of History in Elementary Schools:" Discussion on the subject at the Manchester Historical Association.

The concluding sitting of the sixth annual meeting of the Historical Association was held at Manchester University, Professor Tout, of Manchester, presiding, and the teaching of history in elementary schools was discussed.

The Chairman, in his introductory remarks, said the problem on which the Association asked the practical co-operation of teachers in schools was how to give boys and girls leaving school at the age of 13 or 14 such a general knowledge of national history and such an historic sense as would help them when they grew up to discharge their duties of citizenship.

Mr. F. J. Adkins, President of the Sheffield branch of the Association, opened the discussion by reading a paper on significant history for the upper standards, and he moved, 'That a course of history instruction sufficient to give children as significant an idea as their age will permit of the growth and nature of the British State should be a first charge upon the time of elementary schools for older children.'

Professor Pollard (London) assured the meeting that the educational authorities were friendly disposed to increased specialization and regarded with friendly eyes the proposal made by the Historical Association a year ago that there should be in every school, primary or secondary, at least one person specially qualified to teach history. The great obstacle to carrying the idea into effect was offered by the teachers themselves. In order to assist the supply of competent teachers of history the University of London had started a diploma in history, and teaching for that diploma was given entirely in the evening at such times as it was possible for the teachers to attend. It was a four years' course, and already developments were contemplated. He commended the example of London in this matter to Manchester and other Universities.

Professor Leonard (Bristol) said the Association must soon take up the question of teaching history to working men and women. Classes for this purpose were successfully at work in Bristol.

Professor Unwin (Manchester), Mr. J. L. Paton (High Master of Manchester Grammar School), and others continued the discussion, and the proposition moved by Mr. Adkins was adopted.

Lord Haldane on Universities.

Lord Haldane in responding to the toast of the visitors at the annual dinner of the Court of the University of Leeds said:—There is no wish which comes closer to the bottom of my heart than to say a great deal about Berlin.

I had cause to be grateful to my University life when I went to Berlin. There I met men of the highest standing permeated with the spirit of University life, and I was grateful to my own University life because it enabled me to enter into conversation with them of a highly miscellaneous character, and these were greatly assisted by the fact that we were all of us permeated with the spirit of the Universities. We were able to take a detached vision, surveying matters somewhat in the spirit of a Plato, in a way which prevented all friction. We did not look at things merely from the point of view of Germany and England. We looked at them from the point of view of what is more important—the world at large. And I feel that I was grateful for nothing more than for my University life—not confined to the Universities of this country, but extended in part of the Universities of Germany—which gave me at any rate some power of seeing things through German spectacles—spectacles made in Germany as well as spectacles made in England—and of realizing how matters struck them, as well as how matters struck us. Our conversations were not only very full but very frank. I do not think there was much that we omitted and pervading the whole was the spirit of these big men—and they were very big men—who tried to look at things from something higher, from a point of view wider than that of a mere controversy between nations, and who sought to realize the standpoint of humanity. You cannot get these things unless you are prepared by the training which University life, and University life alone, can give.

He had been, he continued, for many years a profound admirer of German literature and learning, and never did he realize so much as in that week the truth that there is a point to be reached at which these things become cosmopolitan. The summing up of Browning's "The Ring and the Book" was, briefly that art, which rose above individual points of view, enabled things to be said obliquely which could not be said directly. So it was with science and literature, which were also cosmopolitan, and the influence of the Universities made a wider point of view possible, and it was for that spirit that he was grateful in dealing with those large minded men with whom he had had to speak.

Women and French Literature: Lecture by M. Deschamps.

M. Gaston Deschamps, literary critic of the *Temps*, delivered a lecture recently, before a large audience in the Steinway Hall on "Femmes de Lettres de Paris." The lecture was given under the auspices of the British Federation of l'Alliance Francaise. The chair was taken by the President (Professor A. V. Salmon), and among those present were the French Ambassador, M. de Fleuriau, M. de Coppet (French Consul-General), and Sir Walter Phillimore.

M. Deschamps said he entertained the deepest respect and felt the most deferential sympathy for the noble effort which enlisted female genius in the perilous and painful career of letters—even when that effort, justly rewarded by fame, was capable of discouraging by triumphant competition the ambition of writers who had the misfortune not to be women. It was with genuine regret that French critics, belonging to a nation known, he believed, for its scruples in point of chivalrous gallantry, were sometimes obliged to tell the truth, the whole truth, to charming people who, in spite of natural privileges and the social prerogatives of their delightful sex, wanted to be treated as men. They approached all styles, in prose and in verse; they triumphed in all domains with a light step and easy grace; they traversed the whole range of modern ideas, from the furious intellectualism of Nietzsche to the very distinguished sentimentalism of M. Bergson. They could employ the dictionary of the French language as if it were a keyboard of innumerable tones. They wished to gather flowers in every garden, to pluck the fruit of all the orchards of the earth, and sometimes they exacted, with our praises, the wondering tribute of our astonishment. We loved to find on their countenance the reflection of the passing hours. We found it sweet to seize, in the *nuances* of their voice, changeable as the course of human passions, the most profound and the most subtle vibrations of the female heart.

Mr. S. S. Thorburn disliking the Gokhale scheme of Compulsory Education.

Mr. S. S. Thorburn gave his reasons, at a recent meeting of the East India Association, for disliking the Gokhale scheme of compulsory education. His main contention was that Mr. Gokhale's avowed goal—free and compulsory universal education—could never be reached because of its prohibitive costliness, and he advocated in lieu thereof a scheme of "agricultural scholarships"—to be maintained by the liberal bestowal from public funds of small cash allowances for the most successful peasant pupils in village schools.

The lecturer expressed the opinion that what may suit town-dwellers in the matter of education may not suit agriculturists. Much that has been devised for the good of all India has only harmed the rural masses. Since the creation of the new representative Councils, agricultural India is vaguely expectant of betterment, yet fearful that, in competition for educational favours, towns will benefit more than villages.

He did not dispute Mr. Gokhale's general proposition that, were money available, "elementary education should be gradually made compulsory throughout the Indian Empire," but the antecedent postulate—provision of funds—was hopeless of fulfilment. He went into this point at some length and demonstrated (to his own satisfaction) that the financial difficulties were insuperable. It could, at best, only be a patchwork system.

Though the first duty of the State was to make education possible and attractive to the agricultural masses, it should also help those urban and other classes who were willing and able to help themselves by supplementing receipts from their self-imposed cesses and fees to the extent of about 10 per cent. on collections.

Lord Reay, who was in the chair, took a more favourable view of Mr. Gokhale's Bill. There could be no doubt, he said, as to the reality of the demand for primary compulsory education on the part not only of educated Hindus, but also of their Mahomedan brethren. The educational needs of the rural districts no doubt required special stimulus, but that did not absolve us from the obligation to press forward education in the larger towns. If, however, we went too fast in the direction of compulsion, we might create a reaction.

Education in Japan.

There is a great deal in the Japanese system of education which is well worth study by the Indian educational authorities. Mr. Sawayanagi, Director of the Bureau of General School Affairs in Japan, states that the spirit of loyalty, filial piety and bravery which constitute the fundamental character of the nation have been fostered and cultivated from time immemorial. Prior to 1867 education was restricted to a narrow scope, only a certain class enjoying its benefits. In 1871 a Department of Education was constituted whose head is the Minister of State for Education and a Member of the Cabinet. This department made it obligatory on every municipal or rural community to maintain one or more primary ordinary schools sufficient in equipment to admit children of school-going age (6 to 14 years) in its jurisdiction and the result is that in 1910-11 there were over 27,000 primary schools in Japan with about 5,400,000 pupils. To fill these schools elementary education has been made compulsory. In every school in Japan morals form a principal subject, but the moral lessons imparted are not founded upon any religious doctrine, but are purely secular. Japan has had a popular system of moral education devised and imparted in her schools since 1871, and the result has been the uplifting of the nation as a whole. Even the lower classes there, are imbued with high ideals, and the dignity of labour is nowhere better understood than in Japan; the code of honour enters in a real way even amongst the labouring and servant classes. Japanese men and women of the servant classes are ready to render, in return for wages no greater than those in India, services which prove thoroughly satisfactory, clean, honest and faithful. Even the Japanese soldiers are sufficiently educated to understand the following precepts which they are bound to recite every morning:—

1. To be loyal and sincere and guard against untruthfulness;
2. To respect superiors, keep true to comrades and guard against lawlessness and insolence;
3. To obey the command of superiors irrespective of its nature, and never to resist or disregard it;
4. To prize bravery and courage and be diligent in the performance of duties and guard against cowardice and timidity;
5. To boast not of brutal courage, and neither quarrel with nor insult others which incite general hatred;
6. To cultivate virtue and frugality and guard against extravagance and effeminacy;
7. To prize reputation and honour and guard against vulgarity and greed.

Reviews and Notices.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDLECRAFT, BY MARGARET SWANSON AND ANN MACBETH.

The women who have produced this beautiful study in needlework believe in their art and have therefore sent it out to their readers with the best kind of recommendation. Indian women should give the book a very genuine welcome. The art teachers in girls' schools, zenana teachers, and the leaders of ladies' clubs should find in it valuable suggestions for the improvement and enriching of home-needlework. The writers enjoyed writing their book, and the readers will enjoy reading it and following out the course it lays before them.

What captivates teachers of needlework, and what must captivate thoughtful mothers of young daughters is that this book points out a way by which energetic little people may use their energy to beautify common necessities. The mother can in this course of needlework help her daughter's creative faculties to develop healthily, and train her to discover and enjoy what is beautiful. Not often can one enjoy a book on needlecraft as one can enjoy this.

The book is divided into three parts; the first a study of elementary stitches, the second of different fundamental types in garment-making, and the third a study of the first two applied to complete and varying garments and to household articles.

There is here none of the drudgery most of us women underwent in our first sewing lessons. The first exercise here suggested for the little girl is a tray-cloth tacked round in the child's own way and with colours of her own choice, and the next is that tray-cloth turned into a pretty little bag or sachet. Towards the end of the course the student will find herself studying a poem in needlework, "Travellers' Joy, a panel on Satin by Ann Macbeth." Throughout, every new stitch and every first attempt is wedded with simple service and simple beauty, and the educator rejoices that the spirit of poetry has been lovingly laid hands upon that it may express itself in wools, and cottons, and silks.

Kindergartners too may use its plan for their little boys who may wear their football and cricket badges all the more gleefully since they have stitched the simple pattern with their own fingers in their own gay yellows, reds, and blues, and may pack their books away for the day in a thick brown paper pocket, stitched prettily round its borders.

But to come back to the beginning, one's pleasure in this book is not merely in what it teaches but in what it is. One rejoices in it, because it is in itself a new, delightful and beautiful work of art uttering the spirit of the artists, and inviting women to express their thoughts in a fresh and rich form.

CELTIC STORIES, BY EDWARD THOMAS (OXFORD: CLARENDON PRESS). 2s.

One of the most interesting aspects of the world of Romance that has found expression in English Poetry is the contribution from Celtic sources. Celtic Romance has had a great fascination for several English poets and an appreciation of their work relating to the subject cannot be complete without a knowledge of the originals. The Clarendon Press has therefore supplied a real need in bringing together a collection of Celtic tales, for the use of pupils at school. It might even be maintained that serious students of literature are sure to benefit themselves by the work. The author has used Lady Charlotte Guest's well-known *Mabinogion*, but has invested his tales with a peculiar simplicity and charm which must be specially appealing to young minds. It is an attraction indeed to have the tales told in the early mediæval manner, without any of the 'improvements' which have been made upon them by recent writers. We desire to congratulate the author on the poetic spirit he has been able to preserve in these prose versions. The following paragraph will testify to his merit in this direction:—

'One maiden sang about the hosts of fairy, They carry white shields with devices of silver, glittering swords and mighty blue-horns. Their bands of pale, curly-headed warriors march amid blue spears before their fair chieftain. They scatter their enemies, and every land they invade, they leave desolate. It is no wonder their strength is great, for they are all sons of queens and kings; they have manes of beautiful golden-yellow upon their heads, smooth, comely bodies, teeth like crystal and fine, red lips. They are good at slaughter; they make good songs, and sing them sweetly; and they are clever at games of skill.'

NINETEENTH CENTURY ESSAYS: BY GEORGE SAMPSON. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 2s.

It is of the utmost importance that in any well-ordered system of education there must be special attention bestowed on the acquirement of a good style. Nothing is more likely to subserve

the end than the study of the best models available in the prose-literature of the language. In connection with English literature it is hardly necessary to point out that the study of nineteenth century prose is quite the best form of discipline for the development of a good style. Mr. Sampson's book is of very great use in this line as it comprises specimens from the greatest masters of the century, the selection displaying a real, critical taste. The judicious notes at the end are quite necessary for the class of readers to whom they are intended. Carlyle, Macaulay, Bagehot, Newman, Ruskin, Arnold and Stevenson have been represented but we have no hesitation in saying that it is a serious drawback, not to have specimens of Froude, DeQuincey, Hazlitt and Lamb, the difficulties of copyright could have affected only the first case. We might also be allowed to doubt the wisdom of assigning to Bagehot the place of a great master of style. It is however with great pleasure that we recommend the extensive use of this book in Indian Colleges, especially in view of the exaggerated attention that has often been paid to the earlier periods of literature.

INDIAN MONETARY PROBLEMS, BY S. K. SARMA. (LAW PRINTING HOUSE). Rs. 2s.

The Indian graduate has often been accused of want of originality and has even been denied the faculty of applying the principles of Western sciences to the peculiar conditions of his own country. An effective refutation of this charge is furnished by Mr. S. K. Sarma's scholarly and brilliant discussion of some of the most pressing questions in Indian Economics in the volume under review. The essays had originally appeared as articles in *Reviews* and we feel it is a circumstance that has in a way enhanced the value of the book—there is a delightful rapidity and keen point in the arguments advanced. We commend the book heartily to students of Economics in our Colleges.

PLANTS AND THEIR WAYS BY ERNEST EVANS.

Professor Ernest Evans, the author of that nice little book, "Botany for beginners," which is so much appreciated by all students of Botany, has brought out another small book on elementary Botany, "Plants and their Ways." The book is written on the model of the present day nature study books, but deals solely with plants. The book is full of good suggestions and will be found very helpful to the teacher teaching elementary Botany to young pupils. It is intended to give the veriest beginner also a taste for and a know-

ledge of the subject. The author, in addition to giving the beginner an elementary notion of the subject, introduces him in a simple way to some of its broader questions also, such as the struggle for existence, natural selection, evolution, etc. He also deals with the study of plants in their natural surroundings. A small chapter on the colours of plants is very interesting. The young student naturally is much confused by the presence of similar tints in very young as well as very old leaves. The author explains the significance of these tints and then gives a short account of the colours of flowers. The book is well got up, the matter being printed in bold type on good thick paper with a number of illustrations. It is published by Messrs. J. M. Dent & Co. at a very moderate cost (1s. 4d.). We are sure it will be very much appreciated by teachers as well as students who have to do with the School Final and Intermediate Courses.

PRACTICAL BOTANY, BY PROFESSOR F. CAVERS.

Professor Cavers' "Practical Botany" forms yet another of the University Tutorial Series of Text-books on Botany. The book is intended to form a complete laboratory manual for students preparing for the higher examinations in Botany and we are sure will be highly appreciated by them. The author begins by giving the student an idea of the nature and methods of the handling of the microscope, reagents and other instruments necessary for a botanical laboratory. Next he guides the student in histological work giving him proper instruction on the choice of the materials and on the methods of treating them. A series of very good physiological experiments is next given. The author avoids the use of unnecessary costly apparatuses, though he rightly does not believe in the exclusive use of makeshift apparatuses as they in some cases cause much waste of time. In the later chapters he gives very good advice in the matter of studying the lower forms of vegetation such as Algæ, Fungi, etc. He guides the student as to the methods of studying their life-histories by means of cultures. The book is published by the University Tutorial Press. The get-up of the book is very good. The student of Botany studying for the B.A. or B.A. Honours Courses will find it of very great help in preparing him for his examination.

GLIMPSES INTO THE LIFE OF INDIAN PLANTS: BY I. PFLEIDERER.

Rev. I. Pfeleiderer has brought out a second edition of his "Glimpses into the Life of Indian

Plants." The book has been largely added to and thoroughly revised. The Indian student of Botany is largely at a disadvantage having to acquire his knowledge of the subject from English books dealing mainly with English plants. But this little book deals with very common Indian plants which one can very easily procure. And it is written in very simple language free from unnecessary technical terms. The Indian student of Botany will certainly hail the book with joy. Much care has been bestowed on the choice of the type plants for the different Natural Orders and of the Natural Orders themselves. In the first part the author describes the type plants in an attractive way and while doing so quietly introduces the student to many interesting phases of the subject. The second part deals with the structure and life of plants.

In addition to using mostly Indian plants in his book the author has enhanced its value very much by giving the vernacular names of almost all of them. The book is well got up with a large number of illustrations which include some good coloured plates. It is published by the Basel Mission Book and Tract Depository, Mangalore, at a very moderate cost (Re. 1-8-0). We are sure it will be found very useful both to the student and the teacher, especially to those who have to do with the School Final and the Intermediate courses.

JUNIOR MATHEMATICS, BY DAVID B. MAIR (CLARENDON PRESS). 2s.

It is an introduction to Geometry and Algebra; these subjects are treated together as forming parts of one subject, viz. 'Mathematics.' In these days of unification of Mathematics and correlation of subjects, such a book is a welcome addition to the existing books on Elementary Mathematics. Further, the examples chosen are of a practical kind taken from the life around of the pupils.

In the case of many propositions, the student is not provided with set proofs to commit to memory; but he is asked to reason for himself and supply the proof. This is a good feature which, we hope, will be adopted by our teachers in class teaching.

However, the book cannot be recommended as a regular text-book; for, it does not cover the syllabus framed by the School Leaving Certificate Board in Madras.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The English Association (The South Indian Branch, Madras).—The first annual meeting of the above Association was celebrated on the 22nd instant in the Presidency College. There was a large and influential gathering of both ladies and gentlemen. Among those present were:—The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Wallis, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Benson, Lady Benson, Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A.; Mr. E. W. Middlemast, M.A.; The Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A.; Messrs. Mark Hunter, M.A.; R. G. Grieve, M.A.; J. C. Rollo, M.A.; H. S. Duncan, M.A.; T. V. Seshagiri Iyer, B.A., B.L.; C. P. Ramasami Iyer, B.A., B.L.; P. Seshadri, M.A.; K. B. Ramanatha Iyer, M.A., L.T.; V. Masilamani Pillai, B.A., B.L.; V. V. Srinivasa Iyengar, B.A., B.L.; J. M. Craig, M.A.; J. H. Mackintosh, B.A.; Miss C. M. Lynch; Mr. C. Srinivasachari and others.

Mr. C. P. Ramasami Iyer was *At Home* to the members of the meeting at 5 P.M. Then Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., one of the Hon. Secretaries, read the report of the Association for the last year which was unanimously adopted. The members then proceeded to make election of office-bearers with the following result:

President: The Hon'ble Mr. Justice J. E. P. Wallis, M.A., Bar-at-law. **Vice-Presidents:** The Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, C.I.E., B.A., B.L.; Sir Ralph Benson; The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A.; The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar, B.A., B.L.; E. W. Middlemast, Esq., M.A.; The Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A.; Mark Hunter, Esq., M.A. **General Committee:** H. S. Duncan, Esq., M.A.; The Rev. A. F. Gardiner, M.A.; W. E. Hoare, Esq., M.A.; L. C. Hodgson, Esq., M.A.; Miss C. M. Lynch; A. C. Pranatharthahari Iyer, Esq., B.A.; The Rev. Father Quinn, S.J., D.D.; K. B. Ramanathan, Esq., M.A., B.L., L.T.; C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar, Esq., B.A., B.L.; P. T. Srinivasa Sastri, Esq., B.A., L.T., M.A., L.T.; V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, Esq., M.A.; J. G. Tait, Esq., M.A.; J. A. Yates, Esq., M.A.; R. G. Grieve, Esq., M.A.; J. C. Rollo, Esq., M.A.; F. E. Corley, Esq., M.A.; V. V. Srinivasan, Esq., B.A., B.L.; S. E. Ranganathan, Esq., B.A., B.L.; H. Y. Necker, Esq., B.A.; S. Srinivasa Iyengar, Esq., B.A., B.L. **Honorary Secretaries:** W. F. Grahame, Esq., I. C. S. (Retired); P. Seshadri, Esq., M.A. **Pachaiyappa's College. Honorary Treasurer:** J. H. Mackintosh, Esq., B.A., Presidency College.

Mr. A. I. Mayhew, B.A., was elected representative of the Branch on the Committee of the Central Body in London.

The meeting has also passed the draft rules submitted by the Committee for the conduct of the business of the Association.

Mr. Mark Hunter then read a most interesting, instructive and learned paper on "The Substance to Shakespearean Comedy." The Chairman in well-chosen words thanked Mr. Mark Hunter for the valuable intellectual treat which he gave to the members, and brought the meeting to a close.

Educational activity in Tranquebar.—Last month, the Teachers' Association attached to the Nadar's High School, Porayar, met to express their joy at the appointment of the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer, C.I.E., to the Madras Executive Council. Mr. R. Kalyanasundaram Iyer, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, dwelt upon the many good qualities of head and heart of the Hon'ble gentleman and his deep and abiding interest in the sacred cause of education and said that the appointment was a real source of pride to them. The following resolutions were then unanimously passed:—

(1) That a congratulatory message be sent, in the name of the Association, to the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer, C.I.E., on his elevation to the Executive Council.

(2) That a telegram conveying the thanks of the Teachers' Association to His Imperial Majesty be sent to His Excellency Lord Gibson-Carmichael, Governor of Madras for the selection.

The Coronation of His Imperial Majesty in December last may truly be regarded as one of the epoch-making events in the History of India and it marks an era of 'Hope and Progress.' The truth of this is nowhere more apparent than in this ancient city of Tranquebar. This town shows the stirrings of a new life and there is a many-sided activity in the public life of Tranquebar. Even in the field of education the awakening is noticeable. Of late the teachers have begun to realise that they belong to a noble profession and that it is essential to raise their status and that something must be done to promote the *esprit de corps*. Accordingly on the 24th ultimo, the teachers employed in the Secondary and Training Schools of Porayar and Tranquebar met and an Association under the name of Porayar-Tranquebar Teachers' Association was ushered into existence with the object of promoting the best interests of the profession. Then Mr. R. Kalyanasundaram Iyer, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the Nadar's High School, was unanimously elected President of the Association and Mr. A. Pakianatham Pillai, Vice-President. The members then chose Mr. J. D. Asirvadam Pillai, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the E. L. M. Training School, as Secretary of the said Association. The starting of the Association was mainly due to the exertions of Mr. A. Pakianatham Pillai, Headmaster E. L. M. Secondary School, whose zeal and energy have made it a success. It is hoped that the Association started under such happy augury will long continue to do useful work and achieve its object.

Free Elementary education in Pudukottah:—We are glad to note that H. H. the Maharajah of Pudukottah, has been pleased to grant, the other day, as a Coronation boon to his subjects, free elementary education, in the State.

Pachaiyappa's College Literary Society.—Under the auspices of the above Society, Mr. J. C. Rollo, M.A., Principal of the College, delivered a lecture on the *Agamemnon* of *Æschylus*, in Pachaiyappa's Hall.

Mr. Mark Hunter, M.A., of the Presidency College, was in the chair, and there was a large audience of Professors, teachers and students.

The lecturer began by giving a graphic account of the impressive back-ground of the Greek Drama, giving the audience an idea of the Greek Stage, the Audience and the Chorus. He then went through the tragedy with special attention to the development of tragic feeling, making references constantly to the points of contrast and resemblance with the Romantic Tragedy. The lecture was illustrated by a number of passages delivered with great elquence and power and closed with a discussion of the characters of Clytemnestra and Lady Macbeth. Mr. Hunter complimented the lecturer on the eloquence and clearness of his exposition but ventured to dissent strongly from the too enthusiastic appreciation of Greek Tragedy. He doubted the wisdom of the principle that no violence was to be shown on the stage and thought that Athenian audiences were not so intelligent and lofty as the lecturer has had stated them to be.

With a vote of thanks to the lecturer and Chairman, proposed by Professor K. B. Ramanathan, the meeting came to a close.

Prize distribution in Madanapalle School.—The Hindu High School, Madanapalle, was the scene of much *eclat* and enthusiasm, when the *elite* of the town, several European ladies and gentlemen resident in the town inclusive, were present on the occasion of the 23rd anniversary and prize-giving.

The chair was occupied by Mr. J. G. D. Partridge, I. C. S., Collector of Cuddapah. Chiefly through the exertions of Mr. Partridge, the life-patron of the school, the Advisory Committee realised a permanent endowment of more than Rs. 5000, two Reddi gentlemen named Messrs. V. Thimma Reddi and N. Mal Reddi, alone subscribing Rs. 1000 and Rs. 500 respectively.

The proceedings began with the Headmaster's annual report which showed that in all directions there had been remarkable progress. The school now owns new and spacious buildings with hostel and dormitory for boys, worth more than Rs. 10,000 chiefly through the exertions of Mr. Earnest Wood, and the science laboratory with the arrangements made for boys' practical work has been commended by the Inspector of Schools to the notice of all other schools in the circle so that they might copy the plan and details.

The report over, a number of recitations was gone through which were much appreciated by the audience. Then the prizes were distributed to the deserving boys, by the Chairman.

A vote of thanks was proposed by Dr. Louisa Appel M. B., B. S. C., B. S., Superintendent of the School, in a nice little speech.

The Madras Literary Society.—The Annual General Meeting of the Madras Literary Society and Auxiliary of the Royal Asiatic Society was held

recently in the Society's premises, College Road, Nungambakam.

Among those present were:—The Hon'ble Sir Murray Hammick, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Wallis, the Rev. E. M. MacPhail, Lt.-Col. Giffard, and Messrs. A. B. Strange, C. Krishnan, V. V. Srinivasa Iyengar, N. Pattabhirama Rao, C. P. Ramasamy Iyer and V. Masilamony Pillai. Mr. Justice Wallis presided. The Chairman in his opening remarks observed that the Society had to be congratulated on the excellent work done last year. The numbers on the roll had increased and the financial condition of the Society was satisfactory. Then the Annual Report was taken as read and passed unanimously. The Report, among other matters, referred to the increase of the number on the roll, financial position of the Society and the large additions to the Library. The Report also made mention of the proposal to have electric lights and fans introduced into the Society premises ere long.

The following were afterwards elected as Members of the Managing Committee for 1912:—

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Wallis (Chairman), the Hon'ble Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., Lieut.-Col. G. G. Giffard, I.M.S., Mr. C. Krishnan, M.A., Bar-at-Law, Mr. V. V. Srinivasa Iyengar B.A., B.L., Rev. E. M. MacPhail, M.A., B.D., Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar, B.A., B.L., Mr. E. W. Middlemast, Canon G. H. Smith, M.A., the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., F.R.H.S., Mr. A. B. Strange, and Mr. W. F. Grahame, I. C. S. (retired), Honorary Secretary.

With a vote of thanks to the chair the meeting terminated.

Development of Telugu literature.—At Vizianagaram, under the auspices of the Social Service League, a meeting of Pandits, educationists and other gentlemen interested in the development of Telugu language and literature, from Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godavery Districts, was held in the Victoria Memorial Town Hall, on the evening of Saturday the 9th instant. Rao Bahadur K. Ramanujachari, M.A., B.L., Principal, Maharajah's College, Vizianagaram, presided.

The meeting was well attended and thoroughly representative; and the speeches were all in spoken Telugu, very interesting and convincing. The following were the resolutions passed:—

1. That a committee should be formed to encourage the production of popular literature for boys and girls and the people, whose chief merit should be intelligibility and in which polite or refined spoken Telugu may be used.

2. That a committee be formed (1) to study local dialects, (2) to collect and edit popular songs and ballads and local press records like Mackenzie collections.

3. That a committee should be formed (1) to prepare grammars and glossaries for the early poets, (2) to encourage a critical study of the Telugu Classics by organising lectures on literary art and criti-

cism, (3) to encourage experiment in new metres and to create new schools of art in prose and poetry.

4. That a committee should be formed (1) to study the process of formation of new literary dialects in North Indian and European languages, and (2) to cultivate refined spoken Telugu with a view to perfecting it as a literary instrument.

5. That this Association should co-operate with the Andhrasaeitya Parishad of Madras in a matter which is the special field of this association.

6. That a general committee to carry out the objects of the Association should be formed.

A strong committee was then formed.

Allotment to Madras out of the Durbar Grant.

The Government of India have allotted to Madras Rs. 8 lakhs out of the Durbar grant of Rs. 50 lakhs for the promotion of popular education. This sum will be spent thus:—Elementary education for boys Rs. 5,53,000; education for girls Rs. 87,000; hostels Rs. 96,000; technical education Rs. 12,000; education of Eurasians Rs. 52,000. The provision made for 1912-13 will probably be half the allotted amount, the idea being that the other half should be spent next year.

Encouragement to women entering Medical profession.—The following G. O. has been issued:—In order to encourage women desirous of entering the medical profession to obtain the degree of M.B. and C.M. of the Madras University, the Governor in Council has resolved to award annually three stipends each of Rs. 25 a month to young women who undertake to study for that degree. The stipends will be allotted each year by the Provincial Committee of the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and may be awarded either to students who have already passed the Intermediate Examination in Arts or to those who are reading for it. The maximum period of tenure of a stipend will be seven years and the Committee may attach to it such conditions as they think fit. His Excellency in Council is of opinion that as a further inducement to obtain this higher qualification, enhanced salaries on the following scale should be given to those possessing it:—

	Pay.	Allowance when in independent charge.
	RS.	RS.
First two years	100	...
3-7 "	100	25
8-14 "	125	50
15-21 "	150	50
22-28 "	175	50
29-35 "	200	50

To enable the Committee to meet the expenditure on stipends and to assist, by grants-in-aid, those

local bodies which are unable to defray the cost of giving enhanced salaries to medical women possessing higher qualifications than those now employed. The Governor in Council directs that a grant of Rs. 12,000 per annum be made to the Provincial Committee of the Countess of Dufferin's Fund with effect from the 1st April 1912.

Trichinopoly Teachers' Association.—The annual Conference of the teachers of the Trichinopoly District under the auspices of the Trichinopoly Teachers' Association took place recently in the S. P. G. College, the Revd. A. F. Gardiner, Principal of the College, presiding. In opening the proceedings, Mr. Gardiner welcomed the members of the Association and gave a long speech in the course of which he said that the burden of education rested not only on teachers but on the pupils, and parents and the general public. Education was patriotic. The intellectual, moral, æsthetic and spiritual development of men was a public as well as private matter. He would take the opportunity of calling attention to two sides of the work and life of teacher. The first was teaching as a profession. It was pleasant and interesting work and on the teachers the work had a refining effect. It enabled him to win the gratitude and even affection of his pupils. It was a profession that one should be proud to belong to. Apart from this sentimental side, teachers compared with men in other departments enjoyed certain advantages. The working day was shorter, and they enjoyed long vacations though such were burdened with work of sorts. Their time was more or less their own. As regards remuneration and salary, there was difference of opinion, and in the opinion of others there were compensations even if the rewards did not rise so high as in other fields of employment. Teaching was an art which gives and receives and one who taught mechanically without trouble or enthusiasm and not in the spirit of an artist was no true teacher. Two things were to be guarded against— isolation and stagnation. The teacher should not stand apart from others in public life and associate only with teachers, and they should not get into a groove. Mr. C. R. Srinivasa Iyengar, S. P. G. College, then delivered his lecture on "The duty of the educated classes to the nation." Mr. Gardiner summed up the debate by saying that Government contributed as much as 45 per cent. of the money for education, the educated classes 26 per cent. and other private agencies 29 per cent.—which showed that Government did not grudge expenditure on education. As regards free primary education—in this world nothing could be obtained for nothing. In the long run the people would have to pay for it, though it would reach classes not yet taught. Mention had been made of the governed and those who govern. It was not a question of different nationalities, for over 90 per cent. of those who governed were Indians. He did not care to enter into the question as to how far this 90 per cent. did their duty. Many of their pupils would in course

of time enter the ranks of this governing portion, and it was their own teaching which should equip such pupils for their responsibilities.

Encouragement of Vernaculars.—The following G. O. has been issued in the Educational Department, dated 22nd Feb. 1912:—

Read the following papers:—Memorial from the Chairman, Public Meeting, Madras, dated November 1911; from the Director of Public Instruction, No. 7134, dated 23rd December 1911, from the Director of Public Instruction, dated 30th January 1912.

With reference to their request the memorialists will be referred to the Senate of the University of Madras as the authority which is competent to formulate proposals for changes in the University Regulations relating to the scheme of studies in Indian languages. As to the provision made in the Presidency College for the higher study of Indian languages and literature, the Director of Public Instruction has intimated that he is prepared to recommend the full equipment of that institution in the language Group so as to secure its affiliation to the University in Group VI of the B.A., Pass and Honours Courses. When this recommendation reaches Government, it will receive due consideration.

Teachers' Association, Srivilliputhur.—The second anniversary of the Teachers' Association attached to the Hindu High School took place on the 2nd inst. At about 7 p. m. a meeting was held in the premises of the school under the presidency of Mr. V. S. Narayana Iyer, B.A., B.L., District Munsiff. After the usual reading of the annual report by the Secretary of the Association, an interesting lecture was delivered on "The Co-operation of the Public in Elementary Education," by Mr. A. Rangaraju Shastri, B.A., L.T., the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools of the range. The President, in the course of his instructive speech, commented on the subject of the lecture and made certain eulogistic remarks regarding the efficient working of the Association. The proceedings were then wound up.

Opening of new Buildings of Kattuputhur School.—There was a very large gathering in the Zemindar's High School, Kattuputhur, when Mrs. Young opened the new buildings in a nice speech.

The Headmaster, Mr. Narayanaswami Aiyar, B.A., L.T., gave a very interesting report of the school and made touching references to the late Zemindar for his liberal support. Mr. Young, I. C. S. then made a suitable reply on behalf of his wife and himself and said that it gave them much pleasure to go there that afternoon to open the new school room. He congratulated the Headmaster for the splendid report and said that it was unnecessary for him to add anything to what the Headmaster had already

expressed. He congratulated the Zemindar for the interest evinced by him in the cause of education.

Prize distribution at A. E. L. M. College, Guntur.—The 25th anniversary and the distribution of prizes to the students of the A. E. L. M. College, Guntur, came off on the 4th instant with Mr. W. R. T. Mackay, Agent, Bank of Madras, in the chair. There was a large and representative gathering of ladies and gentlemen. The Principal of the College, Dr. L. L. Uhl, read the report of last year. This was followed by a few exercises by the students of the College and some Telugu verses by a Sixth Form student which was very well appreciated. The Chairman made a very interesting speech, and in his remarks observed that the report was in every way satisfactory, and congratulated the Principal, the teachers and the students for the excellent work they have done during the year. The fact that the strength of the College had risen from 767 to 858 since the last report went to show that the boys were getting excellent instruction within its walls, and the results of the public examinations, satisfactory as they were, went to prove the efficiency of the institution. Addressing the students, he spoke at length on the necessity of keeping before them a high ideal, and into whatever profession they might enter, they should have a broad view in all matters, and at the same time not to lose the ground-work on which their ideals had been built. He gave a very apt illustration in this connection and asked the students of the College to climb up the College tower, and to have a view of the surrounding country, and to compare their school life from the lower classes to the higher forms with what they would see of the town from the tower. He then said that the students in this country should devote a little more attention to the business developments, agriculture and industry. He liked the idea of sending young men abroad for technical education, and congratulated the young men of Guntur who had now gone to England and other foreign countries, but at the same time he urged that technical, agricultural and industrial education should be given in this country suited to the requirements of this country, and the young men who were the sons of Zemindars, farmers, and artisans should study their own profession and in developing their own industries, they should not only aspire to get at the highest rung of the ladder, but should rebuild their own methods with the up-to-date methods of developing these industries. In India when there were many students who prove in the end to be very successful teachers and lawyers, there was no reason why they should not also become heads of firms, banks and manufacturing. In conclusion he thanked the Principal for the honour he had done him in asking him to preside on the occasion.

Mrs. Mackay then distributed the prizes to the students, and the meeting came to a close with a vote of thanks to Mr. and Mrs. Mackay.

Pachaiyappa's College Funds.—The following is the list of subscriptions promised:—Balakrishna Mehta, Esq., Rs. 30,000; Endowment founded in the name of the late Rai Bahadur P. Anandachari and his son, the late P. S. Charlu, Rs. 20,000; C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar, Esq., Rs. 20,000; the late Hon'ble Mr. V. Krishnaswamy Iyer, Rs. 5,000; the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundaram Aiyar, Rs. 5,300; the late Salem Godaveri, Rs. 4,000; S. Srinivasa Iyengar, Esq., Rs. 2,000; K. Srinivasa Iyengar, Esq., Rs. 1,000; Zemindar of Channampet, Rs. 1,000; Pandara Sannidhi of Tiruvaduthurai Mutt, Rs. 1,000; Ega Venkatakrishna Chetty, Rs. 1,000; V. V. Srinivasan, Esq., Rs. 500; K. C. Desikachariar, Esq., Rs. 500; V. Masilamani Pillai, Esq., Rs. 500; Anonymous, Rs. 300; T. R. Ramachandra Iyer, Esq., Rs. 250; A. C. Murugesu Mudaliyar, Esq., Rs. 250; N. Narayana Murthi, Esq., Rs. 200; C. R. Thiruvengkatachari, Esq., Rs. 200; M. K. Ramaswami Iyer, Esq., Rs. 150; P. C. Thiruvengkatachari, Esq., Rs. 100; V. C. Seshachariar, Esq., Rs. 100; B. Chitti Babu Naidu, Esq., Rs. 100; S. Kasthuri Ranga Iyengar, Esq., Rs. 100; Rao Bahadur C. Papa Kow Naidu, Rs. 100; A. Rangaswami Iyengar, Esq., Rs. 50; T. V. Gopalaswami Mudaliar, Esq., Rs. 50; C. V. Ananthakrishna Aiyar, Esq., Rs. 50; V. Ramesan, Esq., Rs. 50 and S. S. Srinivasa Raghavan, Esq., Rs. 50; Total Rs. 93,600.

Kalavala Kannan Chetty, Esq.—The furniture needed for Pachaiyappa's Hostel.

A donation of 10,000 Rupees has been promised for Chengalvaraya Naicker's Technical Institute by the representatives of the late Mr. Kalavai Krishnaswami Chetty of Pondicherry.

BOMBAY.

Prize-distribution at Bombay Education Society's High Schools.—His Excellency Sir George Clarke presided at the annual prize distribution of the Bombay Education Society's High Schools recently. In the course of an important speech he said:—I am glad to say that the Government of India, out of the Rs. 50 lakhs recurring educational grant which was announced at Delhi, has allocated Rs. 6½ lakhs to this Presidency. Of this sum Rs. 4,36,000 are earmarked for the elementary education of boys and Rs. 40,000 for the education of Europeans and Eurasians, which latter provision will interest this Society. The resources of the Government will therefore be strengthened, and I trust we shall be able so to apply them as to raise the quality of our education while promoting its wider diffusion among the masses.

His Excellency concluded by saying:—Boys and girls who have received prizes to-day will, I am sure, be inspired by their success to further efforts in future. Greater prizes in life await them if they take full advantage of the sound education they are receiving here. If their careers are to be passed in India there will be many and special opportunities of doing good by setting a bright example of gentle manners and kindly sympathy. We English

are here to show the millions around us what is best in our religion, our culture and our traditions. We have keen critics who watch us, and we are judged more by our hearts than by our heads. Our influence can be great and beneficial if we ignore the barriers of race and colour and make our fellow-Indian subjects feel that we are their real friends. The responsibilities of the British people are invisibly increasing, and upon you, boys and girls of the coming generation, much depends. Fit yourselves here for those responsibilities which, if nobly discharged, will bring happiness to our own lives and to those about you. Lady Clarke and I are very glad to have been able to be present to-day. We hope you will not quite forget us when we have left you, and we cordially wish you all that is best in the future and for the Bombay Education Society continued and increasing success in the excellent work which it is carrying on.

CALCUTTA.

New Professorships at the Calcutta University.—A meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held recently at the Senate House, College Square. The Hon. Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor, presided, and there was a large attendance of Fellows.

The Vice-Chancellor moved that, to commemorate the visit of Their Imperial Majesties, two Professorships be founded, one for Indian History and Antiquities, and the other for Mathematics: (1) That the first Professorship be associated with the name of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor and called the Regius Professorship of Indian History and Antiquities; (2) That the second Professorship be associated with the name of His Excellency the Chancellor of the University and called the Hardinge Professorship of Mathematics; (3) That the salary of each Professor be fixed at Rs. 12,000 a year, and that the first incumbent of each do hold office for a term of five years; (4) That an application be made to the Governor-General in Council to sanction the foundation of these Professorships and to place at the disposal of the University adequate funds for their maintenance.

In moving the above resolution the Vice-Chancellor said that it was needless for him on that occasion to dwell on the true functions of the University. He briefly referred to the reply given by His Majesty on the occasion of his departure from Calcutta regarding the aim of higher education in India. His Majesty had struck the keynote that no University education now-a-days was complete without opportunities being given to its graduates for research work. In explanation of the choice of subjects selected for the chairs, the Vice-Chancellor ventured to think that no subject would appeal to the Senate of an Indian University more than the history of ancient India and the other subjects, after which would, of course, come Indian Philosophy. But after a careful consideration and consultation with the Chancellor it was finally resolved to found for

the present two chairs, one for Indian History and Antiquities and the other for Mathematics. His Excellency the Chancellor, being himself a distinguished graduate in Mathematics, was naturally anxious that the chair to be founded in his name should be associated with Mathematics. Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee observed in passing that ere long they would have two more chairs, one for Indian Philosophy and the other for Science. He assured the Senate that their application to the Government for funds for the maintenance of these chairs would meet with a sympathetic response.

The motion being seconded by Moulvie Mahomad Yusuf Khan Bahadur, and supported by the Hon. Deba Prosad Sarbadhikari, was carried unanimously.

ALLAHABAD.

The Anglo-Bengali School, Allahabad: Annual Prize-giving Ceremony.—The annual prize-giving ceremony of the Anglo-Bengali School was held in the school building, the Hon. Sir Henry Richards, Chief Justice and Vice-Chancellor, presiding. There was a number of gentlemen including Mr. Justice Banerji, Mr. Holme, Mr. G. N. Chakravart, Dr. Tej Bahadur Sapru, Mr. Durga Charan Banerji, Mr. Satya Chandra Mukerji, Babu Iswar Saran, Mr. Surendra Nath Sen, Mr. Lalit Mohan Banerji, Major B. D. Basu and Pandit Rama Kant Malaviya.

The proceedings commenced with the reading of the report of the school for 1909-10 and 1910-11 by Mr. Durga Charan Banerji, Honorary Secretary of the Managing Committee, which stated among others that the actual number of boys on the rolls at the close of the session 1909-10 was 318 which rose to 382 at the close of the session 1910-11. Out of 28 boys sent up for the Matriculation examination in 1909-10 one passed in the second division and seven in the third division. The two boys sent up for the High School Scholarship examination passed and thus secured Government scholarships of Rs. 6 each. Out of the 59 candidates sent up for the Matriculation examination in the next session, 1910-11, 33 were successful—2 in the first division, 12 in the second division and 19 in the third division. In the High School Scholarship examination of the same session the results were also encouraging, all the candidates sent up being successful.

Then followed some recitations in Bengali, Sanskrit and English by students of the institution, which were highly appreciated by the audience.

After giving away the prizes to the various students Sir Henry Richards made a long speech.

Mr. Justice Banerji, in proposing a vote of thanks to the chair, said that Sir Henry Richards, as Chief Justice and Vice-Chancellor of the University had taken great interest in education and he had done that institution a very great favour by presiding over that afternoon's function. He then related the history of the institution since its birth forty years ago when it began work with five students on its rolls. For many years the school moved from house to house for want of a habitation of its own.

Later, subscriptions were raised chiefly among the Bengali community, and the present building was the result. It must be said, he said, to the credit of the Managing Committee that it did not approach the Government for help. The Committee had thus set an example to the whole country, that is to rely on self-help.

Dr. Tej Bahadur Sapru seconded the proposition, after which Sir Henry briefly acknowledged the thanks and dissolved the meeting.

PUNJAB.

The Hindu College of Delhi.—Thanks are due to the learned and honoured Vice-Chancellor, the Rev. Dr. Ewing, and the Syndicate of the Punjab University for their lenient decision regarding the Hindu College of Delhi. As will be remembered the inspection committee of the University recommended the disaffiliation of the Science Department of the College as it was not efficiently equipped, but the new Board of Trustees of the institution who have been taking vigorous steps to improve it have prayed for time to set matters right. If the University authorities had decided to take instant action on the recommendation of the committee the efforts of the new board would have been paralysed and the doom of the College sealed. Fortunately they have resolved to give them till June, and we hope the interval will be utilised to do all that is needful or all that can be accomplished. But the trustees can only succeed if they secure the active support of the community for whose benefit the institution has been working. Now there is a wave of enthusiasm for education passing over the land, and the Government's attitude is most helpful and sympathetic. If the Board's efforts will not be crowned with success in such circumstances, when will they be? The matter should not be regarded as only of local importance. Delhi has ceased to be a mere provincial town with nothing but its historic monuments and the memory of past greatness to be proud of. It has again come into its own as the imperial and eternal city of Bharatavarsha, by command of our august Sovereign and thanks to the power of imagination and statesmanship of Lord Hardinge's Government supported by the wise and liberal-minded Lord Crewe. Whole India is now directly interested in the fortunes of Delhi, and particularly so is Upper India. The suggestion that the Hindu University should be located there has not evidently commended itself to the promoters of that movement, and it is not our intention to press it upon them much as the idea commends itself to us. But independently of that, the Hindu community as a whole is concerned to see that Delhi shall become a centre of culture and enlightenment in addition to being a seat of commerce and industry which it is already. And what more important than that it should rally to the support of the Hindu College and make it a first class educational institution worthy of its name and its situation?—*The Leader.*

European Education in India.—Presiding at a public meeting held on the 2nd instant in aid of the fund for the improvement of European Schools, Sir Louis Dane said that in the Punjab at least the Government were doing a good deal to meet the claims upon them of the domiciled community. Including the Government of India grant of Rs. 1,05,000 to the Lawrence Memorial School at Sonawar, the Punjab Government devoted to European schools some Rs. 3½ lakhs or about one-eighth of the total expenditure on education in the Province. That sum, his Honour thought, would be hard to justify unless the domiciled community had strong claims upon them as children of those who had won India, but it was hopeless for Anglo-Indian boys to compete with educated Punjabis who had gone through the University courses. His Honour saw no reason why Anglo-Indian boys should not avail themselves of the facilities offered by the University largely controlled by Europeans and the Americans and the affiliated colleges which were staffed by Europeans. His Honour concluded:—'It was futile to expect the Government to do everything, and with the enlarged Councils it became more difficult for the Government to show favour to any particular community. They should make an effort for themselves, secure good teachers and schools, carry their education to the legitimate termination of a University career and thus enable their boys to enter public service.'

TRAVANCORE.

Dr. Mitchell's Retirement.—On the 24th inst. a farewell meeting of the students and friends of Dr. Mitchell was held in the College Hall under the presidency of Dewan Bahadur P. Rajagopalachariar, M.A., B.L., C.I.E. The Dewan's speech on the occasion was as follows:—I shall now, with your leave, say a few words in regard to the distinguished officer who has just handed over charge of the administration of the important Department with which he had been connected for over 21 years. Dr. Mitchell first entered the service of His Highness' Durbar in May 1890, as Professor of Pure and Applied Mathematics in the Maharaja's College, Trivandrum, and he became the Principal of the College in 1893. While serving in the College, he served also as the Educational Secretary to the Durbar for a period of over seven years, from 1894 to 1902. He was appointed the First Director of Public Instruction in Travancore in January 1909, and he has served in that capacity for three years.

Dr. Mitchell's work has been throughout very good. He gained and retained the confidence of the successive Dewans who held charge of the administration of the State during the period of his service in it. As Professor, he greatly improved, I understand, the system of teaching Mathematics in the College. He organised the Chair for Physics and fitted up the Physics Laboratory, which is now recognised as one of the best equipped laboratories in Southern India. As Principal of the College, he contributed very materially to bringing it to the

high rank which it now occupies among the Colleges affiliated to the University of Madras.

I am, however, more competent to speak of Dr. Mitchell's work as Educational Secretary to the Durbar and as Director of Public Instruction, than of his work as Professor or as Principal. It was he who introduced, when Educational Secretary to the Durbar, the first set of codified Rules for the organisation and management of schools generally and for the grant of aid to private schools. And as Director, it fell to him to frame the revised Education Code and to carry through many salutary reforms in the administration of the Department. The progress made by the State in the matter of Education during the past 15 years bears ample testimony to the wisdom of the measures adopted by the Durbar on Dr. Mitchell's advice. His whole-hearted devotion to his work, his remarkable grasp of details, and the firmness he always displayed in dealing with difficult situation and in confronting the opposition inevitable when far-reaching changes in the administration of a large Department are initiated and carried out, all these things have gone far to place the Education Department on the excellent footing it now occupies.

And after all, Gentlemen, we are but at the threshold of the change of system which he has inaugurated. Efficient as has been his work, it will take time for us to reap the full benefits of it, and I hope that I may take this opportunity to say that we all look to the new Director to continue the vigorous policy of his predecessor, so that, in the fullness of time, we may have the full benefit of the numerous and far-reaching changes initiated by the retiring officer. Also, with your leave, I would tender our congratulations to Dr. Bishop on his appointment to the headship of the Education Department. The remarkable progress Travancore has made in the past in matters educational will, I feel sanguine, be nothing compared to the still more remarkable progress it will make in the future. Thanks to the efficiency of the retiring Director, the educational system of the country has been purified and strengthened in every direction, and when Dr. Bishop lays down his office, very many years hence, I hope, I am sure that he would not only have the satisfaction of recording a great volume of progress in his time, but that he would himself be the first to say that the foundation for all that progress has been laid, on strong and durable lines, by the colleague and friend whom he has relieved of the headship of the Department to-day.

Travancore Secondary Schools.—The English Schools in the State are now known as Secondary Schools. In order to attract well-qualified graduates to the teachers' profession, the Travancore Durbar has substantially improved their condition. Head Masters of the High Schools will hereafter get a pay of Rs. 200—20—300 like the Vice-Principal of the Teachers' College and the Inspectors of Vernacular Schools. Men in all these appointments are made liable to be transferred from one line to

another. Any raw B.A., can start with a pay of Rs. 50 and can again rise to a pay of Rs. 60 to 150 within a short period. Trained under-graduates will get a pay ranging from Rs. 25 to 40. Even the Pandits are given a pay of Rs. 40. This substantial increase of pay is bound to attract well-qualified persons. The Durbar has specially directed that mere considerations of seniority or length of service should not be recognized to the sacrifice of efficiency and that if a thoroughly efficient and qualified local man is not available for any appointment, it is open to the Department to advertise for and secure a good man from outside. Another very important educational benefit done to Travancorians, for which also Mr. Rajagopalachariar is solely responsible, is the sanctioning of as many as 200 Vernacular Schools to be newly opened in the State.

BARODA.

Educational Progress in Baroda.—Under the able supervision of Mr. A. M. Masani M.A., B.Sc., Minister of Education, and under the watchful eye and with the liberal help of the enlightened Maharajah himself, education in Baroda has rapidly and appreciably advanced. The total number of institutions of different kinds under the direct control of the Education Department during the year 1910-11 was 3,026 against 2,874 of the preceding year. For Vernacular Education alone, there were 2,985 institutions against 2,833 of the preceding year, of which 2,938 were Primary Schools. All the village schools, where education is compulsory and free, were entirely under the direct control of the Education Department both as regards their administration and inspection. In all matters educational they are now on the same level and their curriculum of studies is similar to that obtaining in the ordinary Government institutions. The Local Boards now contribute one-third of their local cess funds towards the maintenance of these village schools, Government contributing whatever more is required for the purpose. The Department is now under orders to open Primary Schools wherever it is possible to gather together 15 children. On this basis no village with the population of 100 souls will long remain without a school save under extraordinary circumstances. The compulsory age limit for boys is 12, while the minimum compulsory tuition is the fourth standard. The expenditure on 2,938 Vernacular institutions amounted to Rs. 8,46,724 giving an average of Rs. 288 a year for each school against Rs. 543 of the preceding year. The absorption of village schools into Government schools explains this diminution in the average cost. As for higher education, there are 6 High Schools in the State, three of which are Government institutions while the others are supported by grants-in-aid. The Anglo-Vernacular School at Petlad was converted in 1908 into a High School by its Head Master and conducted as a private enterprise. But the institution did not long remain so owing to financial difficulties. With regard to results, with the exception of Pattan and Gandevis High Schools other High

Schools have done satisfactorily. There are already Boarding Houses attached to several of the High Schools, but the special feature of interest about the Naosari School Boarding House which was only opened on the 11th April 1911 is that the Dabu brothers whose name the Boarding House bears, gave a donation of Rs. 1,000 each from the interest of which a gold medal will be annually awarded to the best-behaved resident student of the Boarding House. Thus the Boarding Houses do not only give the students facilities of boarding and lodging but exercise a healthy effect on the development of their conduct and character. Baroda has only one College which is affiliated to the Bombay University in the Faculties of Arts and Sciences. The College has excellent men on its staff and maintains a good reputation. The number of students on the roll at the end of the year was 329. It would be interesting to know the total expenditure incurred on account of English education and the receipts for the year 1910-11 which are Rs. 2,27,536 and Rs. 52,861 respectively of which the expenditure on the College alone was Rs. 88,388 and the receipts from fees amounted to Rs. 16,045. Besides a sum of Rs. 5,860 which is given away annually for scholarships in the various institutions, College included, the Maharajah pays out of his own pocket a sum of Rs. 564 monthly in 32 monthly scholarships to poor students studying in different institutions.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Education in India.—An important Memorandum on educational progress in India was presented to the Imperial Legislative Council by Sir Harcourt Butler. According to the figures given it is satisfactory to note that a substantial increase has taken place in the number of pupils in all institutions which has risen by 742,275 to 6,345,582. The report remarks that Madras, Bombay, Bengal and East Bengal showed solid, and Punjab slight increase. The Central Provinces, United Provinces and Burma are practically steady with a slight fall in the case of the two latter. The percentage of those at school in public institutions to those of a school-going age has apparently fallen in the case of boys to 25.3. The fall is apparent only, since the calculation has been made on the new census figures, but even so the present percentage exceeds that in any previous year save 1909-10. The percentage in the case of girls remains for the same reason constant at 4.2, though the numbers exhibit an increase of about 30,000 in public institutions. The percentage of both boys and girls in public institutions to those of a school-going age (15 per cent. of the population) now stands at 14.9. The percentage of those in public and private institutions is to those of a school-going age 16.9 and to the total population 2.5. Coming to the Provincial percentages we find in Bombay, Bengal and Eastern Bengal that over 30 per cent. of boys of school-going age are at school. The United Provinces and the Frontier Province exhibit the lowest percentages, 14.4 and 11.8 respectively. As regards female education Burma takes

the lead among the provinces with 8.1 per cent. though the small Commissionership of Coorg far outstrips this figure with 15 per cent. In the United Provinces the figure is 1.3. We find that the increase in the number of pupils in Primary Schools amounts to 68,583, of 1.5 per cent. and the total now stands at 4,625,800; viz., Male 3,936,419 and Female 6,89,471. In the United Provinces there is a slight continued fall; the causes says the report are being investigated. In Burma there has been a decrease of some 7,000 pupils, mainly accounted for, the report continues, by financial stringency. Coming next to Muslim education, the number of Mahomedans in public institutions is 1,216,401, an increase of 42,462. Of these 158,428 are in Secondary Schools and Colleges and 949,502 in Elementary Schools. As regards expenditure, according to the Memorandum, the total expenditure was Rs. 7,18,68,000. This is an increase of Rs. 31,92,000 over the preceding year. To this increase public funds have contributed Rs. 9,30,000. Of the total expenditure, roughly 370 lakhs are now met from public funds, viz., 242 lakhs from provincial, 100 from local and 28 from municipal. (To the last item the Bombay Presidency contributes 9½ lakhs.) The remaining 348 lakhs are contributed from private sources including 200 lakhs realised as fees. Among the larger Provinces, the highest expenditure is in Bengal—160 lakhs; the lowest is in the Central Provinces—31 lakhs. In those Provinces where the aided system predominates, such as Madras, Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam, the expenditure from private sources exceeds that from public sources. Elsewhere, public funds contribute more than private. The report concludes: "The expansion of Secondary Schools, as shown by the figures given above, has been considerable; and in certain Provinces the school final examination has made noteworthy strides. Progress in primary education has been comparatively less rapid, but, save in certain Provinces, is steadily maintained." It will, therefore, be seen that primary education is advancing at a very slow rate. The figures given constitute probably the strongest arguments that could be urged in favor of the Education Bill of Mr. Gokhale.

Foreign Notes.

Prince of Wales as Undergraduate.—"We are authorised to state," says the *Daily Chronicle* "that the Prince of Wales will matriculate as an undergraduate in Magdalene College, Oxford, next Michaelmas term. For the precedent of a Prince of Wales at Oxford one must go back to the early days of King Edward, as the present King went to Greenwich to be trained for the career which at that time seemed to be the vocation of his life. The story of his boyhood and young manhood is that of a sailor Prince.

The late King Edward studied in Edinburgh for a time, but at the age of 19 it was decided by Queen Victoria that he ought to matriculate at one of the great Universities. He went up to Christ Church,

Oxford, "the House" as it is called, in the October term of 1859. He did not live in college, but in a separate house of his own.

He enjoyed, however, the best society in Oxford of "the sixties," and entertained many friends. He played tennis a good deal and was fond of driving, but did not do much rowing or show any enthusiasm for cricket.

Dean Liddell, Dean Stanley and Professor Goldwin Smith were his chief tutors, and found him keen to learn. He set a good example to the other undergraduates by regular attendance at lectures.

He did not remain long enough to take his degree in the ordinary way, and his book studies were interrupted by a visit to America. In January of 1861 he went to Trinity College, Cambridge, and again lived out of college, in an old manor house outside Cambridge called Madingley Hall. Here he came under the influence of Charles Kingsley who coached him in history. He used to dine in the college hall with the masters and fellows.

While at Cambridge he hunted a good deal, and played in private theatricals. Afterwards King Edward regretted he had been kept too much aloof from the ordinary undergraduate life, and when his eldest son the late Duke of Clarence, matriculated at Trinity College, Cambridge, he had rooms in Neville's Court, and entered fully into the camaraderie of student life.

It is probable that the young Prince of Wales will follow the same tradition at Magdalene and share the pleasures and duties of his fellow undergraduates without being kept in solitary state on account of his high rank and future destiny."

Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland.—The first decade of the history of the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland has just closed, and the Trustees have taken this opportunity of presenting a *resume* of the splendid work that they have been enabled to do in the direction of assisting the Universities by the princely munificence of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The total income for the period amounted to £1,062,931, out of which £63,546 was expended on research £368,288, in grants to Universities and Colleges, £445,373 in payments of class fees for 11,480 individual students, and £30,158 in administration. The income last year amounted to £108,542 and the gross expenditure to £83,160, including £7,833 for endowment of research, £21,182 for grants to Universities and Colleges, £50,525 for payments to students, and £3,620 for administration. During the year the sum of £339 was voluntarily refunded on behalf of 14 beneficiaries for whom class fees had been paid by the Trust. The necessity for the provision of hostels for students in University centres has not escaped the attention of the Trust. During the past decade they have accumulated a reserve fund of £140,000 and the Executive Committee have proposed to make loans from this fund for the erection of hostels at a moderate rate of interest on the security of the land and the buildings erected thereon.

The Educational Review.

It is now nearly two years since an article suggesting the formation of a branch of the English Association in Madras was contributed to the "Educational Review" by Mr. Percy Simpson, General Secretary of the Association. In the beginning of 1911, at a representative public meeting called together by a circular signed by the Rev. Mr. Pittendrigh, and Messrs. E. W. Middlemast, Mark Hunter, and P. Seshadri, this suggestion bore fruit in practical action, and the first overseas branch of the English Association was formed in Madras. Since then another year has elapsed, and this seems a favourable opportunity to review briefly the work which has already been done, and to estimate the probable value of the Branch in the future.

If there were any who doubted whether there were a sufficient number of persons in South India so interested in the English literature and language as to make the formation of such a branch useful, they must have been undeceived by the statement as to membership which appears in the first Annual Report recently issued by the Executive Committee. Nearly seventy members have already been enrolled. This is gratifying in itself, and it is rendered still more so, if we analyse the composition of the list of members. As is only proper in a body one of the principal objects of which is to "discuss methods of teaching English and the correlation of School and University work," the list includes a large number of those engaged in education, both Professors from the Colleges, and Inspectors and Masters from the Schools, while the names of many persons prominent in other walks of life, both ladies and gentlemen,

furnish sufficient guarantee that the more purely literary side of the Association's work will not be neglected.

The Executive Committee were perhaps wise in arranging to hold only four meetings in the first year. We all know the type of society or association which is started with a great fanfare of trumpets, amid fervent protestations of its activity and energy, and we know also how often this early and vociferous promise vanishes into the silence. That this will not be the fate of the English Association in Madras we have testimony in the fact that it is proposed next year to increase the number of meetings, a step justified by the large audiences which have assembled in the past year, and the interest manifested by all concerned. The four meetings which were held during the year were devoted to the reading of papers on subjects of very various interest. On the 5th August Mr. J. A. Yates read a paper on 'Problems of English Teaching in Indian Schools,' which, we note, is most appreciatively dealt with in the *Bulletin* of the Central Body in England which has just come to hand. This testimony to the fact that the work of the Branch is appreciated in England must be very gratifying to those who were responsible for its formation. On the 6th September Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Iyer read a paper on '*Vers de Société* in English Literature,' which proved of much interest, and may have served to reassure those who, however convinced of the profitable nature of the Association's work, yet had their doubts as to its pleasantness. At the third meeting a most interesting debate on 'A Common Alphabet for India' was opened by Mr. P. T. Srinivas Iyengar, who brought forward a powerful plea in favour of the claims of the Roman script. At the last

meeting on March 22nd, Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Iyer was *At Home* to the members of the Association, and Mr. Mark Hunter read an illuminating paper on the 'Substance of Shakespearean Comedy,' on which subject none in the Presidency can be more competent to speak.

Nor has the work of the Association been confined to the holding of meetings. A Sub-Committee has been engaged in drawing up a list of English books suitable for High School Libraries in Southern India. It is in this way, probably, that the influence of the Association can best be brought to bear upon the problems which confront the educational worker in this country, and it is gratifying to learn that it is proposed to make further efforts in this direction in the course of the coming year. The Branch also tries to serve the same object by the occasional publication and circulation of leaflets, such, for instance, as Mr. Yates' paper on *Problems of English Teaching*, which was so issued during the year. Members have also received several of the publications of the Central Body—a great boon to many who are interested in English literature and language, and one not to be obtained by others than members of the Association.

Altogether, the office-bearers and members of the Branch may be congratulated on a useful year's work, and we may express the hope that in the future, even more than in the past, they will receive the support and adherence of the public.

At the last meeting of the Senate of the Madras University held on the 1st instant the position of the vernaculars in the curricula of studies for the several University examinations

formed the subject of discussion. It was argued that the development of the South Indian vernaculars depended largely on the encouragement given to them by the University. How futile this argument is, is proved by the barrenness of the results of the last fifty years during which the vernaculars occupied no insignificant place in the curricula of all the examinations. The causes of the degeneration of the vernaculars must be sought elsewhere than in the University. In the struggle for existence the languages come in for as much share as living beings. The value of a language consists in its value as a means of intercourse. That the English language, the language of the Government, serves this purpose better than any of the Indian vernaculars, cannot be denied. Besides there is nothing in the literatures of the South Indian vernaculars which can minister to the cultivated taste of one who goes through a University training. We doubt very much how many of those who advocated the cause of the vernaculars at the meeting devote an hour in a week to the study of books in their mother-tongue. In these times when people are working to construct an international language to diminish the waste of energy in the learning of languages, we should strongly object to the overburdening of the curricula of the various examinations by adding more in the vernaculars. The provision already made in the Intermediate examination to secure efficiency in vernacular composition and for specialisation in a vernacular or a classical language in the B.A. examination is more than what a University could be expected to do. If vernaculars and classical languages have no special fascination for the student from the point of view of utility in later life, the blame is not that of the

University but of the languages themselves. The causes that have led to the dependence of Indians on foreigners for everything may also be regarded, as the causes that have brought about the stagnation of the vernaculars. That the English language is destined to become the common language of the different nationalities inhabiting India there can be no doubt, however much some of us may regret the result. It is this common language that has given birth to the several congresses and conferences that are held annually in different parts of India. It is this common language that has infused into the educated Indian a feeling of oneness for all India. It is this language that will make us feel our oneness with the people of the world. We therefore see no reason why any one should grudge the rapid diffusion of the English language among the peoples of India. The lack of scientific and technical literature in the vernaculars is the great drawback to their development. This is what unfits them for the purposes of present day life.

It is not a little regrettable that the Education Bill introduced by Mr. Gokhale into the Imperial Legislative Council was thrown out. It seems strange that the Imperial Government with all the resources behind it should find it impossible to accomplish what has been found feasible in a Native State like Baroda. In this State, free and compulsory elementary education, which was tried first as an experimental measure, has now become common. The Administration Report of the State for the last year announces that the State has pledged itself to the policy of free and compulsory primary education. Girls not above

eleven years of age and boys under twelve are now required to attend schools, and the minimum standard of compulsory education has been raised from the third to the fourth standard. Also the Native State of Mysore is as forward in this matter as Baroda. All over the Mysore Province steps are being taken to push forward free primary education. While the Government of Lord Hardinge appears to have pledged itself to improving the education in the country, its rejection of a Bill to improve the condition of the ryot by imparting to him free primary education seems incongruous. The impartation of higher education to a few by the multiplication of Universities is not likely to produce the benefits which will flow from mass education. A system of universal education, as pointed out by Mr. Gokhale, may not end all our ills or open out to us a new earth, but with universal education the mass of our countrymen will have a better chance in life. "With universal education there will be hope of better success for all efforts, official or non-official, for the amelioration of the people, their social progress, their moral improvement, and their economic well-being. With universal education the mass of the people will be better able to take care of themselves against the exactions of unscrupulous money-lenders, or against the abuses of official authority by petty men in power." It is the dense ignorance that obtains among the masses of this country which moved His Majesty the King-Emperor to impress on his Indian officials that it was his wish that the homes of his Indian subjects might be brightened, the labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge and by the higher level of thought, of comfort and of health, which naturally followed in its train. How could this wish of His Majesty be better carried out than by the impartment of free

primary education. Every civilized country has made primary education free and compulsory. Japan, which comes prominently before the mind's eye, in speaking of the progress of Asiatic countries, has made primary education compulsory. The Americans in the Philippines are working to spread education rapidly. The newly established Republic in China will do its level best to spread education by making elementary education free. For the social amelioration of our country we can look to no other means than mass education and the facilities the latter would render for the work of the vernacular press.

In an interesting address to the Glasgow Teaching of History in Schools Branch of the Educational Institute on the teaching of history, Professor Lodge of Edinburgh University points out that three main questions gather round the subject, viz., (1) Why should history be taught? (2) What sort of history should be studied? (3) How should it be taught? The value of history consists not only in its being a training ground for the imagination and the judgment but also in its relation to the great social and political problems of the day. For a training in citizenship a study of history is absolutely necessary. One of the features of the public life of the day is the strife between political parties to get power. Nothing can prove a better counteractant to this dangerous feature of public life than a thorough training in the history of the past. As to the kind of history that should be taught, Prof. Lodge holds that it should vary with the stages of the pupil's development. In the early stages it should appeal to the imagination, and for this purpose the great epic stories pertaining to the histories of the various nations would prove valuable. A systematic study of the periods

would be taken at a later stage, and this would naturally involve a certain amount of drudgery at dates. Prof. Lodge, like Rousseau, holds that every method except that which produces ennui is good for the teaching of history. His special warning against the special period and the history text-book are noteworthy.

The increasing attention devoted to the proper teaching of history is evidenced also by the report of the Committee of Five on the study of history in secondary schools prepared for the American Historical Association. For us the most important part of this report is the Committee's effort to raise the ideal of historical teaching and to emphasise the need of carefully trained instructors and appropriate equipment. "The most important factor in the school-room," says the report, "is not the curriculum, the text, or even the method but the teacher." Again, "in most schools the provision for sound and substantial work in history is quite inadequate..... The history teacher is as much entitled to helpful apparatus as the science teacher is to the expensive appliances of his laboratory... A room devoted to history, a room well-stocked with such materials as pupils can use and enjoy, will some day, and we hope soon, be considered as indispensable as the laboratory in the well-equipped school." We think the history teacher would do well to make the above quotations the first clauses of his creed.

The Convocation of the Calcutta University was held on the 18th instant under the presidency of the Chancellor, His Excellency the Viceroy, supported by Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, the Vice-Chancellor. One of the noteworthy features is the conferring of honorary degrees on certain eminent men. The addresses of both the

Vice-Chancellor and the Chancellor deserve the attention of all interested in Indian education. In the opinion of the Vice-Chancellor the Indian Universities needed to start on paths untrodden hitherto and a new spirit had to be evoked and new forces and agencies created. Though the Indian Universities have accomplished great things, yet they had failed to come up to the standard of Western Universities. They had done teaching, even teaching of a high type, but the teaching had not matured that precious fruit which the instruction in Western Universities has. The Indian Universities had, in fact, contributed exceedingly little towards the advance and increase of knowledge. The special need of Indian Universities is the provision of teaching faculties in all the more important branches of science and art and of ample opportunities for research.

The Chancellor also laid stress on the same subject in his address. "Were I asked," he said, "in what direction the currents of opinion and activity in our Universities are setting at the present time, I would reply unhesitatingly that they are converging on the fuller realization of the idea of a teaching and residential University. In saying this I would not wish to imply in any way, failure on the part of this University in its task of coping with the provision of adequate facilities for the entire body of students under its jurisdiction, but with Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee I would say that both the teaching in the colleges and the residential arrangements are capable of very great development and improvement, especially upon the lines which he has indicated in the very interesting and instructive speech to which we have just listened. We are not blind to the good work which the existing Universities have done in their day. We are justly proud of their achievements. But we can not be insensible

to the change that has come through the atmosphere. Distance has been reduced by improved communications, centres of population have grown up pulsing and throbbing with new aspirations, some appearances to the contrary notwithstanding. The old dividing barriers are breaking down and we feel the need for greater union and closer co-operation. We want to develop an identity and a character of our own. The Western Universities have well been described as the nurseries and workshops of intellectual life. We want all that this description implies in India." While agreeing with the Chancellor in saying that the Indian Universities ought to become like the Universities of the West the nurseries and workshops of intellectual life, we cannot emphasise to the same extent the value of a residential system. The German Universities are the chief centres wherein new knowledge is being created at the present day, but there is no residential system connected with them. Whereas in Oxford and Cambridge which are residential Universities the output of original work is comparatively small. Original work is a product of an atmosphere of *Lern-freiheit* and *Lehr-freiheit* and not of the cramped atmosphere of an examination-ridden system.

At the last Conference of the Association of American Universities, Instruction and Research. President Judson discussed the question of the distribution of the teaching time of professors between instruction and research. This is an important question in relation to teaching Universities where opportunities are provided for research. The question can be answered only in a general way. In securing efficiency of work the primary duty of a University is to ascertain the special aptitudes of the members of its staff and to use them along the lines of these aptitudes. Some men are

excellent teachers and of no great value as investigators; and others may be valuable investigators and not very useful as teachers. Others may be useful in both lines. For nearly all members of a faculty some research work is no doubt advisable for their own inspiration and for broadening their outlook in their special subject. If a given individual has an aptitude for investigation, the only principle that can be followed in his case is that he should devote part of his time both to investigation and to teaching, and that his teaching should not be so much as practically to exhaust his entire strength. The application of this principle will naturally be determined by the nature of the subject to be taught, upon the size of classes, and upon the method of instruction. The probable worth of a specific investigation upon which a professor is engaged must also be taken into account. It must not be forgotten that if the primary duty of a given institution is instruction, then this duty must be fulfilled before research can be undertaken at all.

The Indian Universities and the colleges affiliated to them are coming in for a large share of attention. People have begun to ask in what way they fall short of the ideal of a University prevailing in the West. As His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor said, no University is complete unless its professors are competent to impart instruction of the highest kind and are themselves engaged in original investigation and research. As our Universities do their work through the colleges affiliated to them, a natural question to ask is: Do the colleges produce scholars and scholarship? We think that this question must be answered in the negative, and the reasons are many.

How many men of unquestioned pre-eminence are there in our colleges, to whom students can repair for academic tuition in their respective lines? Many of our Universities and colleges have imposing buildings, but where are the Ramsays, the Poincares, the Ostwalds, the Cairds, the Wandts in our colleges or Universities. We must first of all learn that it is not buildings, nor laboratories, nor libraries that primarily make a great University or college, but men. It has been supposed that early specialisation would lead to scholarship. We fear we can not endorse this opinion. A student's choice of studies is as a matter of fact frequently determined by considerations which stand in the remotest relation to his scholarship or future welfare, such as the desire to be in the same class with other students, the fact that a certain course is reputed to be easy and enables him to take interest in activities unconnected with his studies, a desire for change and novelty, a personal liking for the teacher, a sentimental interest in a given study. The student has often no notion of his individual tastes and interests and of what his future vocation will be. If he has any idea of his future vocation, it is questionable if he has got any adequate idea of the relation of any given study to that vocation. A well-rounded development would be better for any technical or professional work than meagre specialisation. Modern investigations have tended to show that an individual of good ability can develop proficiency and interest along any line to which he applies himself. In order that scholarship might thrive, an atmosphere of scholarship and industry must be cultivated and maintained in the colleges, which, we are sorry to say, is sadly lacking at present.

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COSMIC CYCLES.

THE history of Science is the history of the simultaneous effort of the two highest faculties man is endowed with, viz., reason and imagination; and in proportion to the extent to which one is able to gauge their relative importance in the field will the real and fundamental principles of a particular branch of Science be realised in their proper beauty and strength. Reason without imagination cannot make the science progress, while imagination unrestrained by reason will lead but to wild chimeras. Both these faculties are employed to extract from the mass of observational data gathered together with the advance of time broad relations from which are built up theories giving unity to great variety.

The importance of scientific theories cannot be over-estimated. They not only lead to a better understanding of the materials they are based upon, but are of value in a barely utilitarian sense also in that they enable us to control events for our benefit and contribute largely to satisfy our sense of the beautiful.

A thorough appreciation of the value of such theories is not an easy matter. The measure of success and the pleasure derived thereby is dependent of course, to a great extent, upon the rightly directed output of

steady application and exertion. It has been observed and with great justice that one of the greatest injuries that are being done to the public in general and to the cause of science in particular is to be attributed to those that popularise the results of scientific investigations and present only the final outcome of the struggles of many a self-denying man of science as though that is the thing that we ought really to care for, leaving untouched the details in the processes of such strenuous research. No doubt such popularisations are in some cases highly stimulating and serve to call up in the minds of intelligent readers a really scientific spirit; but the perusal of many of them can only impart knowledge of a surface nature. For an efficient cultivation of the mind, one ought to catch firm hold of the thread of some particular enquiry and trace its windings with keen interest and steady perseverance.

The progress of modern Science has opened out immense vistas for the pursuit of such enquiry. Turn to any direction, and you are sure to meet with instances of brilliant hypotheses and fascinating theories formulated to explain the various phenomena of this world of ours. Really wonderful are the rapid strides that Science has taken in all her departments, but in none does she appear encircled in more dazzling glory

than when, transcending all things of this world and the phenomena that are of it, she waves her wand and bids us see through her magic tubes the wonders of worlds not our own. In his great work on Astronomy, Laplace, than whom the world has not seen a greater Mathematician, exclaims with enthusiasm that, "contemplated as one grand whole, astronomy is the most beautiful monument of the human mind, the noblest record of its intelligence." Stepping out beyond the confines of this earth, we see ourselves surrounded by an array of brilliant orbs in all forms of variety. The dazzling brilliancy of some, the calm majesty of others, the cool grey Moon, the fiery Mars, the stately Jupiter, the lovely Venus, Saturn with his mysterious rings, the stars in their seemingly eternal harmony, all these and many another, excite our feelings of delight and admiration, while many of us are just beginning to look undisturbed with any thoughts of calamity to the human race on the occurrence of an eclipse or the appearance of a comet.

The sun and the moon, ministering to our comforts and wants, come next in importance to the objects of more immediate proximity by which we are surrounded, and when primitive man was at a loss to account for the vicissitudes of his life and of those that were dear to him, he turned to the heavens for a solution and gained comfort in the thought that if the stars in their everlasting harmony* and constancy proclaimed the inexorable laws of cause and effect, the planets in their wayward evolutions and varying configurations foreshadowed and controlled the irregularities and vagaries of human life. To this idea of the human mind may be

traced the foundations of Astronomy and Astrology, the two sister sciences, inevitably bound up into one by the very nature of the cause that gave them birth. No wonder then that man in the primitive ages regarded the celestial bodies as divine personalities. After the overthrow of Greek mythology, different ideas and beliefs regarding the relative importance of the sun, the earth and the planets competed with each other for predominance for a very long time. Even so late in the history of mankind as 350 years ago, the earth was regarded as the centre of the universe, the pet child of the Divine Creator, for whose benefit shone all the orbs around her! It was reserved for Copernicus to remove this illusion and transfer the dignity of being the centre of our system to the sun, thus laying the real foundations of Modern Astronomy.

The apparent complexities in the motions of the planets became at once the subject of keen study. The irregularities were carefully noted. All the complexities were, it was soon explained, due to the fact that we were observing their motions not from a fixed, but from a moving body, of whose motion we were not conscious. Thus our own motion was discovered to be mixed up with those of the other planets and the whole system of planets recognised as moving round "a central and more noble fire," the sun.

Having thus disposed of the Earth and reduced its rank to that of a planet, a mere *wanderer*, the next question that suggests itself is, what about the stars? Century after century they appear to preserve their own relative positions. To explain this fact, let us resort to that stale yet convincing illustration, the motion of a train. When we are being

carried in a swift moving train, the objects on either side appear to fly past us in the opposite direction, the nearer objects passing us more quickly than those that are more distant. Alike in result is our motion on this stupendous cosmic train, the earth. The near bodies, the sun, the moon and the planets change their positions more rapidly across the back-ground of the sky; but the stars are sunk so far away in the abyss of space that their change of position is not noticed. This is why we observe the "landmarks of the universe" keeping their places obstinately against the whole range of our motion round the sun across more than 185 million miles every year!

To be more accurate, the most delicate instruments have revealed to us that there are slight oscillations in the apparent positions of some of the stars—evidently the nearest. Such small displacements may be compared without much exaggeration to the change that is likely to be observed in the direction of a distant mountain peak corresponding to a shift by a hair's breadth in the eye of the observer! Even such microscopic changes have been detected to a certain extent, leading astronomers to attempt an estimate of the distances of some of the stars. The nearest of them are found to be so far away from us that it takes years for a wave of light starting from them to reach the earth, even though light travels with the stupendous velocity of 186 thousand miles a second! Light flashes over the distance from the sun to the earth in a little over eight minutes. From the nearest star, a star in the constellation *Centaur*, the period of this light passage is estimated at about $4\frac{1}{2}$ years, which converted into distance would be equivalent to about 26 millions of millions of miles. Another

of the nearest stars is distant 10 light years from us; while the distance of our Pole star is more than four times as great. The vast majority are yet farther off, the light-messengers they send us taking for their journey hundreds and even thousands of years!

In this connection we may ask the interesting question: what will our sun be like if thrown back to the depth of even the nearest of our stellar neighbours? The skilful astronomers have calculated that it would shrink down to a star of the 4th or 5th magnitude of brilliance! It would require the most powerful telescope to reveal its existence if it seeks the neighbourhood of some of the more distant of the stellar orbs. The inference is now easy that the stars, many of them, should be many times as large as our sun, and their intrinsic brightness of like proportions.

Then again in addition to the oscillations that have just been referred to, other kinds of motions have also been detected by the delicate and beautiful apparatus—the spectroscope. Some stars are seen to approach us; others to recede from us. Motions across our line of vision have also been noticed. The mighty proportions of the stars indicate that such motions are not wholly their own. Sir William Herschel, the great musician turned greater astronomer, has likened them beautifully to the displacements in the relative positions of the trees of a forest as we pass through their midst. The closing up of some sets of stars, the separation further apart of others point to the conclusion that our sun itself, with its family of planets and satellites, comets and meteors, is moving through space towards a point not far distant from the bright star *Vega* in the well-known constellation *Lyra*. Stars associated together in systems, double, treble and multiple, are

* See Grant's *History of Astronomy*.

observed to be moving round each other, or more accurately, round common centres of gravity. The law of gravitation thus becomes extended to the deepest recesses of the sidereal universe.

So the moon moves round the earth, the earth and the planets round the sun, and the solar system as a whole towards a star. The stellar system of which our sun is but a unit is perhaps in motion on a much grander scale. Nothing seems to be at rest. A number of such active systems make up the Galaxy or the Milky Way. Thus, "with systems beyond systems there seems to be no end to the universe of God." We cannot think of any limits to space. A finite space must be enclosed in a greater one. For if space had a boundary, one may still ask the question: what is there beyond that boundary? Space thus being limited by itself only is therefore limitless, infinite.

Again, space and time are fundamental conceptions of the human mind. The consideration of the nature of the one leads to that of the other. Just as there is no '*thus far*' for space, there can be no '*in the beginning*' for time. If we think of time beginning at a particular instant, was there no time before that instant? Nor is there any end to time, for, to every instant there is an '*after*.' So space is unlimited; time is eternal, without beginning, without end.

Scattered about in boundless space are the worlds of various sizes and brilliancies, from the biggest spread of material to the minutest particle of dust, from the brightest and most lifeful to the darkest lump of death. What is the cause of such diversity? If God, in His infinite wisdom, launched this beautiful multitudinous swarm forth into existence, whence came his material? Then again, have all that

we see existed like this ever since the time of their birth? Will they continue for all time like this? Or will there be any changes, and if so, what kind of changes? What are the influences at work to effect such changes as have been, are and will be?

Let us begin with our earth. The volcanoes and other evidences of internal heat, the nature of the various kinds of rocks and minerals, the fossil remains in the colder zones of animals that are now to be found in the tropical regions, all these bear witness to a time when the earth was much hotter than it is to-day. The outer crust has gradually cooled, most at the poles and less and less as we approach the equatorial parts, on account of the rapid rotation of the terrestrial mass, the temperature diminishing with the escape of heat into space. The energy of heat is a repelling energy, an energy of separation. This acts against the binding energy of gravitation. The extent of space occupied by any body is determined by the resultant of the contending forces in its mass of attraction and repulsion. When the energy of heat of the outer layers of the earth is thus being dissipated away, gravity prevails and pulls the crust towards the centre. The energy of position which it possesses is converted into heat and struggles with gravity as the whole mass shrinks; such a contest goes on until the moment comes when there is no more heat to be produced or lost, the temperature becoming even with that of surrounding space.

The smaller the body the sooner does it cool. The moon has cooled earlier than the earth. Its former activity is evidenced by the craters of extinct volcanoes. Our earth represents an earlier stage of decay—a stage fit for the existence of the kind of organic

life we are familiar with. The light that we receive from Jupiter is such as cannot be accounted for merely by the reflection of solar radiance. It is still a semi-sun, as Proctor calls it. The patriarch of our family is still further removed from the stage of ultimate lifelessness. It is pouring its energy in great prodigality in all directions, of which we are receiving but the minutest fraction. This outpour maintained by the contraction and condensation of its mass and certain other powerful agencies cannot last for ever. A time must inevitably come when our splendid luminary, so full of activity now, must with its fires extinguished and life spent float a cold dark ball "like a shattered hulk without its crew of fools." The discovery of radium seems to postpone that end almost to billions of years. Yet the end is inevitable unless some accident of the nature to be described hereafter happens to disturb this downward career. The fate of the mightier stars is only a question of difference in time.

Again, what we actually see even with the aid of the best optical instruments may be but a small fraction of what is far beyond our reach. With an infinite universe the probability is that wherever we turn our eyes, we should meet with some bright star, unless indeed its light has not yet reached us, or is intercepted by dark suns already dead, whose proportion to luminous ones is presumably very large, or even for that matter, prevented from reaching us by the imperfectly transparent matter of space. The radiant energy of heat and light escaping from hot suns must therefore in all directions sooner or later fall on and be absorbed by bodies lower in temperature than the sources of such energy; so that unless there be any compensating agencies at work to disturb the

final equilibrium of temperature, the former hotter type would in time be reduced to the state of the latter, the whole ending in a levelling down of all available energy to a degree too low for the existence of organic life.

Is it then the ultimate purpose of creation that everything should in the end be hushed in eternal lifelessness? The more we think about it the deeper are we impressed by a sense of the improbability of such a fate. Look at the wonders of our own planet. Look at the organised life of the solar system. Leaving its confines, look at the countless arrays of the stellar universe. Stars bound down to one another in related systems, binary and multiple; the regularly variable stars with their brightness alternating in intensity in rhythmic periods; the coloured stars in all varieties of brilliance, emerald green, blue, bright-white, blood-red, orange, of roseate hue and of many other shades! Are all these come into being only to be gathered after a time into darkness to all eternity?

To furnish a satisfactory answer to this interesting question, we must try to understand the nature of the past and the causes that have evolved the present out of it. Many and elaborate are the theories suggested to account for the changes in the course of cosmic evolution. But before touching upon the most important of them, it is well to point out "no single explanation is self-comprehensive and exclusive of other hypotheses." One due to Laplace, who was in great measure anticipated by Kant in the main points, confines itself to the solar system and states that at one time in the distant past, the sun and the planets all were in the form of an immensely hot mass of gas or *nebula* as it is called. This nebula, brought to a spherical

form by the gravitational action of its own mass, extended beyond the boundary of the solar system as known at present (the orbit of Neptune), rotating round an axis through its midst. As time passed its radiant energy was being dissipated away into space; the force of gravity prevailed; the mass shrank; the rotation became swifter. The violence of the rotation would detach from the mass not yet too rigid and compact to resist the 'centrifugal force,' rings of matter. These rings breaking up and collecting into globes formed planets. The planets in a loose condition continued to revolve round the parent mass, and in their turn contracting, abandoned rings to form the satellites. The seemingly connected array of the members of the solar system and many other phenomena seemed to be accounted for by this ingenious and bold hypothesis. With increase in observation and the progress of science, facts were collected that questioned the soundness of a theory which on account of the great prestige of the name of its illustrious author continued to exercise an incalculable influence in astronomical, geological and theological speculations until very recent times.

Sir N. Lockyer suggested the *meteoritic hypothesis* which supposes the nebulae to be vast swarms of meteors instead of being vast spreads of gaseous matter. But investigations as to the mechanical conditions of meteoric swarms have shown that there is no intrinsic difference between the two hypotheses.

The discovery of the conservation of energy according to which the sum-total of the energy of the universe is constant, the apparent disappearance of one form of energy being exactly counterbalanced by its mere transformation into one or more of the other forms, and the laws of Thermo-dynamics show

that the assumption of high temperature by Laplace was not at all necessary.

Then again, if the original solar nebula extended beyond or even up to the orbit of Neptune, its matter would have been of such a tenuity as not to be able to cast off a ring so dense as would be sufficient for the formation of this extreme planet. There are again other considerations that cannot be satisfactorily met on the basis of the ring-theory. The inclination of the axis of the sun to the general plane of planetary motion, the mutual inclinations of the orbits themselves, the periods of the rotation of the inner ring of Saturn and a satellite of Mars, the retrograde revolutions of the ninth satellite of Saturn and the seventh of Jupiter—these are some of the points that make the theory untenable. Further there is no reason to suppose that the rings if so formed would have been intermittent instead of being continuous; that they would break off and collect themselves into globular forms. The tendency would, on the other hand, have been, to get separated particle by particle and drift into space instead of aggregating into huge masses. On these accounts the famous nebular hypothesis with the ejection of rings as its keystone is not acceptable. All attempts to modify or bolster it up have also proved in great measure abortive. A necessity therefore arises for the construction of a new hypothesis on stronger foundations that is likely "to stand four-square to all the winds that blow."

S. BALAKRISHNAN.

(To be continued.)

THE EDUCATIONIST IN SOUTHERN INDIA.—I.

THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

IT is with some reluctance that we venture to examine the subject of the position occupied by the educationist in Southern India, as there is the danger of the task being understood as an attempt to praise our own calling in life, or bring down the importance assigned to the other learned professions in this country. The enquiry must however be held to be above all such suspicion when the preliminary assurance is given that we propose to confine ourselves to the field of education and ask for a proper recognition of the part that must be played by those engaged in the work of teaching. It is hardly necessary to add that the educationist himself will not be exculpated from any blame that may fall to his lot as being responsible for his present condition; nor will there be the least desire to cast aspersions on the worthy gentlemen who might be engaged in other professions affording similar opportunities for serving the country or humanity at large.

The status assigned to the educationists serving in Government institutions does not very much enter into the consideration of this question, as from the conditions of their employment they are precluded from the possibility of extending their activities beyond the immediate sphere of their work. But it will be pointed out that even in purely educational matters they have often shared the neglect and positive indifference that have been shown to their non-official brethren and they have sufficient ground for asking for adequate recognition at least in the future. The professorial staff of the large number of

colleges under Missionary control and management have also a justification in harbouring similar discontent.

It will not be maintained for a moment that the educationist should loom large in the public life of the country—that would be nothing short of asking for a privilege which has not been granted in any country, in any age of history, and which is probably not even consistent with the highest ideals of the vocation of the educationist. But it becomes a very legitimate grievance indeed when his position is not recognised even in the world of education and he is quietly ignored in the administration of educational matters. It is also melancholy to observe that the Indian public has lent positive encouragement to this state of affairs, which can be observed in the University, in Government and educational life generally.

A few points in connection with the personnel and constitution of the University of Madras will serve to elucidate our position. It will be conceded readily that the head of a University, who fulfils the mere ornamental purpose of lending dignity to the body, must naturally be the highest personage in the land and the Governor of the Presidency is appropriately enough the *ex-officio* Chancellor of the University. A ceremony like the annual Convocation for conferring degrees on the graduates of the University receives its imposing majesty to some extent from the presence of His Excellency the Governor accompanied by his gilded retinue and his signature is indeed a valued part of the diploma placed in the hands of the youths leaving the portals of the University. But it has always been a puzzle to us why the Vice-Chancellor, who is supposed to fulfil the duties of an executive head—presiding over a

body controlling educational matters—why he should generally be selected from the Bench. We hasten to admit we have nothing but praise for the energy and enthusiasm with which the distinguished Judge who adorns that office at present, has discharged his functions all these years; nor should we be disposed to question in the least, the high intellectual distinctions that entitle him to hold the office. But our grievance is against the almost uniform practice of nominating a member of the Bench to this educational office. It will be interesting to know the reasons which have determined this peculiar practice in the past, whether the experience of having worked for years among ryots in the mofussil before elevation to the Bench, or entering into the anatomy of some of the most disagreeable aspects of human nature as a judicial officer or tolerating with wonderful patience the conflicting mass of evidence and argument presented by a bewildering array of lawyers in Court—which of these circumstances it is that has weighed most in the practical establishment of this principle.

There would however seem to be two serious grounds which can be urged in defence of this line of policy. It might be argued in the first instance, that this scheme contributes to the enhancement of the prestige of the Syndicate, that the respect and fear in which it is held receives a strong impulse from the presence of a Judge of His Majesty's High Court of Judicature on its list. But it is necessary to remember that the Chancellor subserves the ceremonial purpose, and educationists are probably not the kind of persons to be dazzled by official rank or splendour. An acceptance of this position also implies a statement of the principle that the most distinguished educationist of the Univer-

sity cannot aspire to official prestige even within the precincts of academical life. Why then this masquerade of respect for scholarship and the shrill encomiums on the sacredness of knowledge on occasions of ceremony? Looking up the Calendars of British and American Universities, one is agreeably surprised to find the Vice-Chancellor is always the head of a college, enjoying the confidence of the colleagues of his own institution as well as those of all others constituting the University.

The task of keeping the balance between individual colleges is probably a much more serious problem here than in the Universities of Britain and America. There are several interests to be represented and there is always the danger of one factor—the Government, Missionary or the Indian—dominating the entire University, but it will not be denied there is a higher tribunal that can check such undesirable tendencies by altering absolutely the constitution of the body. More probably depends on the proportion of the various elements in the constitution of the Syndicate than on the personality of the Vice-Chancellor. Again, the technical knowledge which the head of a college can be expected to bring to bear upon the discharge of his duties must be no small consideration in a decision of this question.

The circumstances are not in the least more encouraging when we pass on to a consideration of the Syndicate, though it must be granted that the European members have been mostly educationists and at least the European voters in the Senate have thus acted in the most praiseworthy manner, in refusing to send persons other than educationists,—at least whenever a European was con-

cerned. The few seats held by Indians have mostly been assigned by such a distinguished elective body as the Senate, to persons who cannot by any stretch of the imagination be looked upon as having any special qualifications for the work of educational administration, except that they were at one time or other educated within the four walls of a college affiliated to the University. It ought not to be presumed from what has been said that the non-educationist Indian members are deemed to have failed in the discharge of their duty. But we have no hesitation in asserting that at the moment of their election there were educationists of no ordinary attainments and character, who must have been looked upon as eminently fitted for such offices. It is a reflection on the Indian element in the Senate, and it is idle to obscure it, that it should have generally turned its pitiable appeal for help to lawyers enjoying a lucrative practice at the Bar, or to Judges on the Bench. Whatever the shortcomings of the European Fellows on the Senate, it must be said to the credit of their high principles and self-respect as educationists, they have never been guilty of the weakness of regarding official position or an extensive practice at the Bar as sufficient qualifications—at least among European candidates for entering a University Syndicate. It seems to be almost clear that at least as far as the Indian element is concerned the tendency is to consider the most eminent educationists too insignificant to be thought of for any such high honour.* It is only necessary to assert once more that a knowledge of educational problems and a mastery of the technical details relating to University administration

* This article was in print before the announcement of the recent election to the Syndicate—P.S.

are not necessarily acquired in the legal profession and the meaningless practice must stop of looking to the most well-known figure in the Law Courts whenever the Indian Fellows are confident of sending their nominee for a seat on the Syndicate.

It is interesting to recall to our minds in this connection a phenomenon which once impressed upon us profoundly the crying need there was for an immediate reversal of such a policy. We should be loathe to draw into this controversy the names of departed souls, but we are forced to make the confession that it was a constant source of amusement and mystery to us to see a place in the Syndicate filled for a long period by an Indian holding rather an out-of-the-way office, an Administrator-General in the High Court, whose qualifications to hold that exalted place in the educational world we have not been able to unravel all these years. The only possible explanation was the existence of a strange and eternally binding tie between the Administrator-Generalship in the High Court and a place on the Syndicate of the Madras University, but even that theory, alas! does not seem to be tenable any longer, as his official successor has not been thought fit to be elected to that august body. And the only grounds that have disqualified this gentleman are probably his high academical distinctions and his holding a professorship of law in addition to his official duties. In bringing out these facts it is not even our remotest desire to suggest that on purely personal grounds there was anything to object to in that official dignitary who was selected for that special privilege. He was an estimable gentleman of great social popularity and it is even said he was often found useful as a member of the Syndicate, but we would not

certainly regard the possession of an amiable disposition and sweetness of temper adequate qualifications for the place, nor would we rely on chance and the course of future events to rectify the results of our want of discretion and even the violation of sane principles in matters of election.

It is easy enough to find an explanation for this constant phenomenon of the Indian members of the Syndicate being non-educationist. The Indian has always had a weakness to bow down before mere official rank or material wealth and he invests persons in exalted places with talents in every direction. It is also generally known that leadership in law has always meant in this country supremacy in public life and at least a reputation for knowledge and experience in numberless departments of activity. The person stands out as the most astounding example of the versatility of human genius. From the directorship of a bank or a factory to the offering of expert opinion on all subjects under the sun, he is fit for any capacity. The elucidation of legal subtleties is only an insignificant part of his accomplishment and work though it is mainly responsible for his magnificent income. A seat on the University Syndicate is therefore almost a necessary consequence of his position and he is sure of it when his hair is beginning to turn grey, apprentices are flocking to him and his income is rising to some thousands a month.

There is also some encouragement offered to this course of events by the European Fellows in the Senate who when forced to vote for an Indian, would rather allow one unconnected with education to get in than to tolerate the possibility of an Indian colleague or subordinate at college entering the holy sanctuary. If it be a European professor, the

question of monthly income and material status does not matter, but when an Indian is escaping through the fingers, let there be some saving of the voter's dignity by his being able to realise that the candidate is a Judge, or a lawyer whose income exceeds his own several times or a person with at least the respectable prefix of 'Honourable' to his name—this would seem to sum up the position in the general case, though there are evidently some who would refuse to be parties of such a game.

We have in this connection to deal with two other interesting aspects relating to this question. It is necessary to examine once for all the extent to which the non-educationist members of the Syndicate have been successful in the discharge of their duties. Keeping up the routine of official work should hardly be regarded as a matter deserving special congratulation and it is idle to talk of success in such conditions except on occasions of convention and ceremony. Their anomalous position as busy amateurs in a company of technical experts has always operated as a serious disadvantage, and it is well-known that it has often led to a natural hesitation on their part to express themselves strongly or even with any confidence on any educational matter, in the deliberations of that body. That they have always been actuated by an honest zeal to justify their position is easily granted. And it is also frankly recognised that whenever the temptation of an engagement in the mofussil did not interfere with their work, they were faithfully prepared to sit out the meetings of the Syndicate. But it is only maintained that they could not have commanded the professional authority that is undoubtedly necessary for challenging the opinions of the other members

on any serious occasion. Far be it from us to pry into the secrets of the deliberations of the Syndicate but we have heard it said on very good authority that the dignity of that chamber was often marred by the humiliation of members having to submit themselves to light ridicule if there was not a sufficiently cautious recognition of the limits of amateurish criticism or even suggestion.

If illustration were needed for convincing proof of this contention we have only to mention a personal instance. There was once a pathetic confession to that effect on the part of one of our distinguished public men who enjoyed during his lifetime a deserved reputation for his uncompromising courage in fighting for his convictions. He expressed on one occasion, the sense of helplessness under which he was labouring when matters came up for consideration before the Syndicate. He was not allowed, he said with a touching sincerity—let us also note the graver aspect—he was not allowed to be of any consequence except in matters relating to the judgment of the qualifications of individuals in Sanskrit or in the Indian vernaculars! 'Our existence does not count in other matters,' he remarked with a pleasant smile, referring to the non-educationists and that was on the occasion when he felt thoroughly convinced of the unfairness of the Syndicate towards the claims of an educationist. He seemed to reconcile himself to the position not with any stoic indifference, not certainly with any sense of fear, but from an unpleasant realisation of at least the apparent absurdity of his talking with authority on technical matters affecting collegiate life and instruction. There was thus a handle afforded for attack and consistently with the spirit of human nature it was taken advantage of

to the fullest extent by his brethren on the Syndicate. When such was the lamentable condition of one who was able to shine everywhere else as a fearless and domineering champion shall there be any necessity for probing into other cases?

We should be failing in our duty if we did not make pointed reference to an allied evil which seems to have escaped all detection. It is quite often that an educationist at colleges stands in need of recognition at the hands of the Syndicate. While there is the possibility of the professorial members coming to know of his talents and achievement in the ordinary course of their work, he must go out of his way to be able to convince the non-educationist members of the essential soundness of his claims. This has often led to a demoralising sacrifice of the dignity and self-respect of the unfortunate educationist who has sometimes thus been forced to court the favour not of the gentle and grey-headed seniors of his service, but of the rich and imperious members of another profession who have only a patronising sympathy for the best of his class. Nothing could be more baneful than even the distant prospect of such a humiliating dependence.

It is by no means agreeable to us to have to continue in this strain. But we are furnished with another topic by the question of the representation of the University on the local Legislative Council. It is in terms of the highest praise that we should like to refer to the work of our eminent countryman who now fills the office with so much distinction to himself and benefit to the world of education. His zealous championship of Indian interests and his absorbing attention to educational questions constitute sufficient testimony to his fitness for the place. But the

principles we have been enunciating are not affected by this frank and spontaneous confession. We are only anxious to reflect on the unique circumstance that so long as a European was returned to that seat it was an educationist but since the time the Indian element began to have its way there has been a non-educationist, the inevitable lawyer so well-known in Indian public life. The question is not whether the functions have not been fulfilled with success, but whether the educationist has not been deprived of the value of that experience, the honour of that position and the privilege of that service.

P. SESHADRI.

CHANGE OF STAFF AND EFFICIENCY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

THE question how to make secondary education efficient, has been before the public for a long time. The Matriculation Failure Inquiry Committee was appointed in 1908 and it submitted its report, throwing the blame upon the teacher, the taught, the management, etc. to varying degrees. In their zeal to improve secondary education, the Government did away with the Matriculation, as a passport for Government Service, and instituted the new Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination. The first examination under the S. S. L. C. Scheme was held in March 1911 and its results published as a supplement to the Fort Saint George Gazette, reveal the utter inefficiency of many of the boys who were considered fit by their headmasters to complete their Secondary school course. The list shows that there were candidates who scored 1 p. c. in English, no per cent. in some subjects, and, in the optional subjects especially,

Physics and Chemistry, there are many who have obtained less than 10 p. c. This proves, if proof were wanted, that in spite of the new Education Code which requires that every High School should have 4 L. T.'s including the headmaster in its staff, in spite of the prominence given to practical work and modern methods of teaching, the Secondary school boys continue to be as inefficient as before, and do not come up to the mark expected of them. Wherein lies the fault?

To my mind, it appears, that frequent changes in the staff, have a great deal to do with this inefficiency, and so long as these changes continue, and the Department hesitates to put them down with a firm hand, secondary education is bound to be inefficient. These changes occur in almost all institutions under private management, and, knowing that institutions under public management are very few, the defect is, practically, a common one with our Secondary schools. One has only to look into the advertisement sheets of the Madras dailies to have an idea of changes in the staff of Secondary Schools. Every term of the year, every month of the term, nay, every week of the month, we see advertisements wanting, 'Graduates, L. T.'s preferred,' for Secondary Schools, 'with salary according to qualifications.'

Very often, a teacher in a Secondary school is on the lookout for a job elsewhere—of course, he may have special reasons for so doing—sending applications, whenever he catches sight of an advertisement; so much so that he takes little, or, no interest in his work. The result is his work is not efficient. There is only a killing of time without any substantial work and benefit to the pupils under his charge. I have been a teacher for the last 15 years and it is no exaggeration to say that I have never seen a boy taught science by the same teacher from Forms

IV—VI. The same is the case with History and Geography and Mathematics. If during the three years of the Upper Secondary School Course, the same subject is handled by the same teacher, I dare say the proficiency of those students in that subject will be great indeed and better results will be produced in the public examination.

The harm can be much minimised if the teacher leaves the school at the beginning, or, the end, of a term, and, if he is relieved only after the appointment of another in his place. Very often a teacher leaves during a term and the management relieves him without appointing a substitute. In the interim, there is, of course, an alteration in the timetable, putting the round man into the square hole and *vice versa*; for, the aim is to manage somehow or other.

The teacher who leaves in the middle of a term, besides positively doing harm to the young ones under him, sets a bad example to the other members of the staff and, the management that relieves him, encourages them to do likewise. On page 8, para. 25 of the Report of the Matriculation Inquiry Committee, one of the causes of failure is ascribed to the frequent transfer of teachers and pupils. It says: "*It is very desirable that satisfactory teachers should be retained as long as possible so as to ensure a continuity of training and influence.*" Many months have passed since the submission of the report referred to and the Department does not seem to have seriously brought to the notice of the management of Secondary schools the desirability of enforcing this wholesome principle. Unless the management is clearly informed that the Department will look with disfavour upon the transfer of teachers under it, during a term, unless the Inspector of Schools, makes it a point to scrutinise during his annual inspec-

tion every such case and takes measures to prevent its recurrence, unless the management tells in unmistakeable language, before a teacher is appointed that he should consider himself booked to the institution for a certain definite period, if appointed, and, that, on no account would he be relieved *during the middle of a term*, and unless our teachers are brought to understand that they must place the good of the taught before the good of themselves and that their transfer, of their own accord during a term, is bad for themselves and the institution they serve, secondary education will, to a great extent, continue to be as inefficient as before.

A HEADMASTER.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE EDITOR, "EDUCATIONAL REVIEW," MADRAS.
DEAR SIR,

In acknowledging my obligations both to you and to Mr. P. T. Srinivas Aiyangar for the courtesy of a review of my book, I would request the favour of a little space in the columns of the journal for explaining one or two points raised in the course of the review itself. In regard to the first point of objection we have no quarrel with any one. This name was given for brevity. Nor do we quarrel with Mr. P. T. S. if he does not admire Ch. vii. on Ramanuja; but he might have spared himself 'the ungenerous remark' and the consequent giving himself away. The *Yatirajavaibhavam* was published by me in response to requests on the general question by Dr. Grierson and Col. Sir Richard Temple, after the paper on Ramanuja was written and published. The one has had no connection with the other in the manner indicated in the remark by Mr. P. T. S. That some of the incidents in the life of Ramanuja as given to us do not meet with the approval of 'the modern man' is neither the fault of Ramanuja nor of the hagiologists who wrote his life but of 'the modern

man' himself who is sometimes woefully defective in his capacity to appreciate the feelings and motives that influenced people in an older generation as has been very emphatically pointed out by the late Dr. Prof. Maitland. On the strength of this difference of ideal a work whatever its merits or demerits, should not be condemned by a student of history. But our concern here is to point out what is in print on page 212, why the tradition embodied in the *Yatirajavai-bhavam* is regarded as authoritative, and leave the readers to judge how far the tradition is relied on and whether the story is narrated 'without the least attempt at historical criticism.' I may be excused if I take the liberty to quote a sentence or two for the information of those who may form their opinion on my friend's kind review. 'It now remains to examine from available historical material what truth there is in the above account, and how far certain impressions that prevail regarding Ramanuja and his teachings find justification from his life and times. Having already recounted the incidents in the life of Ramanuja, we shall now proceed to examine critically, whether the main incidents of his life and what his disciples claim them to have been, and whether recent research, so far as it bears upon these, lends any support to these as a whole.' Eight of the main incidents in the life, upon which there is some information available, are then examined in series. I shall leave it to the readers to judge whether this is historical criticism or not. There is no reference to Delhi being a *Mussalman* capital in the course of the narrative. As to the objection taken to the term qualified monism, I have not examined the question in the course of the chapter but merely adopted an expression in use for convenience and the 'hidden lore' is a mere translation of the Tamil expression and I shall be grateful to Mr. P. T. S. if he would give us the authority for his assertion in regard to this matter.

I would not have troubled writing on this matter had it not been for the fact that the review, friendly as it is, is likely to create an impression far from the actual truth of the

matter. I have nowhere presumed to say or imply that mine is the last word on any matter discussed in the pages of the book. This paragraph in the review is perhaps one, to adopt Mr. P. T. Srinivas Aiyangar's own methods, his friends, not being able to get out of himself even in his writings on such matters of historical, and not contemporary, interest—none the less am I grateful to him for having chaperoned the book and lent it the support of his great reputation for scholarship.

S. KRISHNASWAMI AIYANGAR.

21st April, 1912.

EXTRA READING IN THE LOWER SECONDARY FORMS.*

1. NECESSITY OF EXTRA READING AND WHERE IT SHOULD BEGIN.

The term 'extra reading' is itself significant and does not require much explanation to know what is meant. It clearly means what the pupils read over and above the regular reading done in the class under the supervision and guidance of the teacher. The regular reading of the class is done from a prescribed reader and under certain definite conditions. In this, the pupils have to study the reader in detail. There are also certain methods in which it has to be read and studied. All the study has to be done under the guidance of the teacher. And the pupils are subjected to several examinations in which the work of the pupils is carefully and systematically tested.

In extra reading, the pupils have more freedom. It is not done under so much supervision. A detailed study is not expected. Of course, the pupils are at liberty to try the methods they see practised in the class every day; but they are not bound so much to follow them. There is no formal test of the work done. There is, however,

* A paper read by Mr. K. S. Ramiah, Assistant Master, High School, Tripunittura, at the fourth meeting of the Tripunittura Group Teachers' Association.

one very important relation between the formal reading of the class and extra reading, viz., that in the former the pupils are put in the way for the latter. We show them the way and lead them along a little. It will make them strong if they are allowed to try the path by themselves as much and as often as is convenient and possible. The sooner the pupils are able to go through without much help the better; for this is the end and aim of all education. The most important underlying principle in education is teaching self-help. But we sometimes lose sight of this all-important principle and commit a serious blunder in leading the pupils along by the hand all through the way. And the result is they depend on us longer and more than they ought to. By doing so, the aim of education is lost and we spoil the pupils in our charge.

Suppose we are teaching Arithmetic. Here, more than in any other subject, we must take care that we put our pupils on the right track and wait patiently to see how they go. This is more important in Arithmetic than in anything else; for Arithmetic or Mathematics is a science of reasoning. Perhaps, all sciences are so; but if all sciences are so, Arithmetic is more so. If, in our attempt to develop the faculty of reasoning we give our pupils more help than we ought, if we lead the pupils by the hand all through the way, and do not wait patiently to see if they would not reason out themselves, we kill Arithmetic and with it we kill the boys also. It is almost the same with reading.

Extra reading is for supplementing the knowledge that the pupils gain in the class by means of well-guided self-help. It is a trial of the path shown by us by the pupils themselves. And where it should begin is an easy question to decide. The rule can be, when a pupil is able to read and understand a certain book without much help he can read it. There are books suitable for all kinds of pupils and for all standards. As soon as pupils are able to read, it is, therefore, advisable to put suitable books into their hands. Under the existing circumstances, regular extra reading can, with much advantage and all propriety, be begun in Form I.

2. EXISTING PROVISIONS AND THE PRESENT STATE OF AFFAIRS.

These principles and facts are well-known and the provisions for the encouragement of extra reading cannot be said to be altogether wanting. Almost every school has a library. A good number of books is stocked. A teacher, or the school-clerk or sometimes the drill instructor (for he is supposed to enjoy more leisure or to have less taxing work) is put in charge of the distribution. The pupils may seek the advice of the teachers in the selection of the books. A certain teacher points out a certain book and asks a pupil to get it and read it as the most suitable book for him. But it very often happens that the book wanted is not on the shelf but taken out. The benefit of the teacher's selection is lost. The library is generally open in the evening after school. And the man in charge either has other work to do or is in a hurry to go home. If the man in charge happens to be a teacher he generally does his best to find out a suitable book for the pupil. But if he happens to be any other than a teacher the pupil has to drift for himself. He takes out a book from the top-shelf, opens it, does not like it, puts it back. He repeats the same operation with all the shelves and at last makes a selection by the attractiveness of the binding or by that of the illustrations inside or goes away dissatisfied with the whole affair. In either case the result is almost the same. If he chooses a book for himself it is very doubtful that he hits at the right thing. This does him no good. If he goes away without taking anything that also does him no good. Teachers do sometimes ask their pupils what they read and in reply to the answers they get from them say, "That is not a good book. Put it back. That is pretty good. But I do not think you can understand it. Is it not a little too difficult for you?" and so on. And there their supervision and guidance end; not perhaps they don't want to do anything more, but because the existing provisions are not adequate enough to meet the requirements—the supply is not equal to the demand.

There is, as you all know, another very great principle in teaching, viz., that the teacher must come down to the level of his pupils and know their ways and wants. To speak a bare truth, this principle is not well thought of—not in the matter of extra reading to be sure. Many teachers complacently confer their ignorance of books suitable for the lower forms. They can give advice to the pupils of the 4th, 5th or 6th forms as to what books they should read. But, somehow or other, curiously enough, they cannot handle the subject of giving advice to the smaller pupils. The confession is honest, and due credit must be given to the honesty of it. But whether honest or dishonest, it is unpardonable. If a teacher cannot tell his pupils, however low the class may be, what books they should read and how they should read them, that clearly shows that he has not come down to their level and that he does not know their ways and wants. A sincere teacher should himself read many books suitable for the pupils of his class and must be thoroughly conversant with them. Or it is a clear omission of an important duty.

3. IMPROVEMENTS TO BE MADE.

(a) *Furniture*—One or two almirahs to contain all the books of the school library—all in the charge of one man, be he teacher or be he anybody else, is not very convenient. In a large school where the pupils are divided into several classes one man by himself cannot cater to the wants of all, however smart he might be. The work that a man in charge of a library for small children has to do is not like the work of a man in charge of a public library or a library for older pupils. In the latter the man in charge has simply to give what is asked for. In a library for smaller pupils guidance in selection and supervision in reading are wanted to a very great extent. As such, it is best that each class has its own library and the library must be in the charge of the teacher of the class. The teacher knows the standard, knows the ways and wants of his pupils and it is his responsibility to find means of putting his pupils on the right track to

supplement their knowledge and see that it is done at the right time and in the right way. Every class room will, therefore, have to supplement its furniture with a neat almirah big enough to contain about 500 volumes. It must be under lock and key and none but the class teacher should open it. The practice of entrusting important items of work to monitors or head-boys is harmful, especially in the lower forms where the pupils are too young to understand the seriousness of the work entrusted to them. If it is the teacher's duty to give instruction to his pupils and infuse knowledge into them, the means of infusing supplementary knowledge must also be in his charge. The responsibility of keeping the books, making suitable selections for his pupils and supervising the reading is very great and this must be borne by the teacher himself. When each teacher has to care only for his own pupils the work is a mere trifle, and, when this is so arranged, it must do immense good.

(b) *Selection of books*—Very great care has to be bestowed on the selection of books. To select books by the mere knowledge of their titles or the names of the authors or publishers is not safe. Books meant to be read by the pupils of these lower forms must first be read, nay, studied from end to end by the teachers and no book should be placed in the hands of these small pupils before this is carefully done. It is not a difficult thing in these days to get specimen copies for teachers to read. The language must be both easy and idiomatic. I lay stress on easy and idiomatic for you must have found some books in which the idiom of the language is killed outright in the attempt to make them easy. Such books should be avoided. They should contain interesting and instructive matter. Illustrated books are better for the pupils of these lower forms as the pictures will help to keep up their interest and to make the matter more easily intelligible. The binding, the type, the size, unimportant points though they may seem at first sight, have all to be attended to. The binding must be strong and durable as the books have to stand rough wear and tear in the hands of many young pupils. The

type should be bold and clear as otherwise the eyes of the readers will be injured. The size also should be comfortable for the little hands of the readers.

(c) *Number of books*—It is no good having 500 different books for one class. It is not advantageous in these lower forms as there are practical difficulties in the matter of supervision. If the library of a class contains 500 different books, all the pupils can have only different books in their hands. If the class has 40 pupils, all the 40 pupils will be reading 40 different books, and the difficulties in the matter of supervision are plain. Pupils in these lower forms will not be able to read much. Pupils of the first form, for instance, may be able to read only a page or two every day or if the books contain short stories, a story or two. So it may take about a month to finish a book of 50 or 60 or even 100 pages. And if by the end of one year the pupils of the first form have completed reading and understanding a dozen books—that will be a gain well worth the trouble—a good year's work. In the case of the second form, they might be able to read twice as much as the pupils of the first form; but there the volumes might be bigger and might contain about 150 or 200 pages. Even there the number may stand at one dozen or if necessary a dozen and a half. In the third form the number might be a dozen and a half or two dozen. But the more important point is that there must be as many copies of the books as there are pupils in the class. 12 books, 40 copies each, if the strength is 40, is what I drive at and what I would earnestly ask for.

There is a very great advantage in arranging matters this way. If all the pupils read the same page or the same story in the same book the subject-matter of the page or the story read might be conveniently adapted for conversation or composition lessons, not always but whenever convenient or expedient; and when this can be done this will serve as an adequate test of the work done by the pupils at

home. Otherwise this method of testing is impracticable.

(d) *Regular readers as books for extra reading*—Some people do not seem to like the idea of putting regular readers into the hands of little boys for extra reading. There is one great excellence in these readers which cannot be forgotten. What is the meaning of the word 'reader'? A reader is a book for reading. What books can be more desirable for reading than books *specially* prepared for reading. Readers for the regular reading of the class are prescribed from among these regular readers. If pupils can read one and that systematically and regularly in the class under the careful and methodic supervision and guidance of the teacher, it is not clear why there is this objection to their reading similar readers at home. The regular readers of the class are to serve as models for them. Moreover, these books are written with the utmost care by competent men who know the standards of the classes and the capabilities and wants of the several classes of pupils. They decidedly contain much more interesting, varied and useful matter, all arranged and worded systematically and carefully and they are, in many ways, superior to the so-called story books written by irresponsible men and published by more irresponsible firms. The objection to put regular readers into the hands of the pupils of these lower forms as supplementary readers does not seem to stand to reason. The value of light reading cannot be underrated and, for the matter of that, of story books. But it must be remembered that regular readers contain the choicest stories, best moral lessons and, in fact, all that the pupils want and no one story book can compete with a regular reader in the matter of interestingness, instructiveness, variety, arrangement of matter, the beauty of the language, practical usefulness and in a hundred other points which are all absolutely desirable in the books put into the hands of little pupils especially in the Lower Secondary Department—where is laid the foundation for all future reading.

(a) *How to create interest in reading*—There are many ways of creating interest in the pupils for reading books. The following is one way:—

In Nelson's Composition Book I which is prescribed for Form I as a guide to composition there is a lesson on 'The hunter and the monkey.' Only a number of pictures is given. The whole page is a sort of miniature cinematograph illustration. The pupils are directed to spin out the story by looking at the pictures. This is a nice way of teaching young pupils to compose sentences. The ideas are there in the pictures. The pupils have to find language to express the ideas. After the pupils have tried the lesson themselves, the teacher may in the end tell them the story in his own words. Now the pupils may be told that they can read the story in Nelson's Indian Reader Book I. The interest is created. When the pupils go home they may each be given a copy of the Reader. They will read the story with great pleasure. That is, then, one good day's work. If they are asked to try the composition lesson again after six months they are sure to turn out much better work. This may not be practicable always. But similar means can be found if we have only the will to find them.

SUGGESTIONS ABOUT THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.*

There is now a strong feeling among the majority of the teachers of English that the old method of teaching should be given up and the teaching of English—a foreign language to Indian students should be made realistic. This conception is not as yet shared by all. We may find teachers here and there content with the mere translation of reading lessons, devoting the remaining portion of their time to the parsing of words. To them all ideas of reform are novel

* A paper read before the Teachers' Association, Saidapet, by P. Soundara Rajan, B.A.

and revolutionary. They cannot see that there is a great lack of economy in the teaching and that the average boy who appears for Matriculation after eight years of English teaching is yet unable to do such a simple thing as to tell the time in idiomatic English or to distinguish in use the meanings of "where do you go—(to school)?" and "where are you going now?" Nor is it only in points of colloquial idiom and grammar that the teaching fails. Worse than this is the failure to make the study of English a means of culture. The boy has no feeling for its rhythms and all the beauty of good literature fails to impress him. As regards the language the boy has no idea whatever that it grows and that the language is closely bound up with the people's history. He thinks that words have a value of their own and that he can substitute big words for small words without any offence to the ideas of which words are only symbols. This deplorable state of things is to be largely attributed to the failure to distinguish between the methods of teaching a vernacular and those suited to a foreign language.

Although men who are teachers of English will have settled for themselves the aims of their teaching I shall nevertheless quote the aims given by Mr. J. A. Yates in one of his lectures delivered before the Kumbakonam Educational Society. These aims are:—

(a) To make the pupils speak correct and idiomatic English. The value of this in after-life. The universality of English.

(b) To make the pupils write good English. The correct expression of thought clarifies thought itself. The value of this in further life. Value of it in business. Commercial letter-writing to be encouraged with good models.

(c) To afford an opening to Western knowledge, sciences in particular. The scientific spirit should be assiduously cultivated.

(d) To lead to the stores of English literature—

(1) *English Poetry*.—Its variety, restraint (the Hellenic spirit), elasticity and freedom,

(2) *English Prose*.—Its progress, its adaptability, its freedom in borrowing and its great flexibility; full of lessons for vernacular composition.

(3) *English language in general*.—Its living nature, growth and progress. No monstrous difference between the spoken and the written language.

We can easily see that the aims enumerated above are intended to serve two important objects in the study of a foreign language. One is the object of use in daily life and the other, that of culture. It is for us to find ways of accomplishing those aims. The helps to the discovery of the right method of teaching are not far to seek.

Through the endeavours of those interested in the right method of teaching English in schools, Associations for this purpose have come into being and the conclusions arrived at are made available to earnest teachers through journals such as "The Teacher." Practical difficulties have been grappled "with," and adapted readers such as those by Mr J. A. Yates and Mr. Rajagopalachariar are published for the guidance of the teachers of English. Since the initial difficulties have been to a large extent cleared, it only remains for us to follow and work up along the lines indicated. It is perhaps useful in this connection to consider the question of the equipment of the teacher of English.

In the first place, he should possess a knowledge of common English and current idiom.

Secondly, his taste should be developed through the reading of good specimens of poetry and prose. He should be able to enter into the art and spirit of English literature.

Thirdly, he should have some knowledge of the progress of the language.

Fourthly, he should have a knowledge of the sounds of English and should be thoroughly acquainted with the use of phonetic charts.

Fifthly, the teacher should have a knowledge of the methods of teaching a foreign language.

Lastly, the teacher should have clear ideas about the topography, the social life and the history of England.

Coming to the progress possible in the teaching of English from first to last in the school course, we find that there are three stages corresponding to the physical and mental development of the taught—the beginner's, the intermediate and the higher.

The beginner's stage will cover the progress made in the first four classes. In this stage a scheme of conversational lessons should be worked out by the teacher beforehand, keeping in view the following general principles:—

1. Just as the child or the adult learning a new language learns to speak by imitation of sounds, words and phrases, so, in the class-room, speech, with correct pronunciation—that is, with ordered and careful imitation of the sounds of the foreign language as spoken by its natives is essential.

2. Consequently the study of a foreign language should be mainly through conversation.

3. The scheme of lessons should include the use of ordinary idiomatic phrases used in English conversation.

4. More speaking and less writing should be done in the lower classes.

5. Answers should as a rule be in the form of sentences.

6. And lastly, appeal should be made to the pupil's imagination by opportune and timely presentation of pictures, models and diagrams.

In working out the abovementioned principles we must not forget that in all desirable ways the subjects of the school curriculum may be correlated.

As regards grammar at this stage, it is right to say, it is and is not taught. The pupils unconsciously learn a number of proper nouns, common nouns, verbs, and pronouns. But they are not taught the names of the parts of speech. The text-book on grammar is dispensed with, and it is for this reason that it is

said that no formal and orthodox grammar is taught. The pupils in the course of their experience make the rules in their vernacular by the Inductive method. We must not forget that grammar is only a means, and hence grammar teaching should be subordinated to the teaching of English composition. No obsolete forms and exceptions should be taught. It is also desirable to postpone the teaching of grammatical terminology to a considerably later stage.

The topics taken up at this stage may include, those relating to ideas of time, buying and selling, measuring and weighing, family relationships, modes of conveyance and the like.

In the beginner's stage, the reading lessons must be mainly summaries of conversational lessons. When teaching a class we must see that the lessons do not involve new difficulties. For instance if a class does not use complex sentences the lessons should not involve them.

Some may hesitate to introduce poetry at this stage. Whatever may be the reason, the idea of postponing the teaching of poetry to a later stage is not a sound one. English has much charming poetry for children. The first ground for choosing a poem is that it is not aggressively moral. Children cannot understand ethics. But it is desirable to cultivate some moral principles in them. To achieve this aim we must see that morality is in the atmosphere and that they breathe in it. Humour may help morals without the children knowing it. Good simple poetry will be the foundation for the superstructure of feeling what is good in literature.

The choice of poems should be made from those which have a bearing on a conversation or prose lesson. Thus after a lesson on the night going to bed and sleeping, R. L. Stevenson's "The Land of Nod," may come in. At this stage, elaborate details in explanation should be avoided. It is enough if the meaning of the passage is made clear. We must remember that too much of explanation and paraphrasing may spoil the child's enjoyment of the poem.

Another subject that we have to consider in

the teaching of English for beginners is composition. Some teachers think it beyond the powers of pupils at this stage. They seem to think that it implies some lengthy exercise. Oral composition is indistinguishable from conversation. The conversation lesson is done by means of questioning and answering. In oral composition, the questioning item is dropped and the pupils make a continued speech. The pupil should be allowed to say as much as he can without any interruption on the part of the teacher. At the beginning however there cannot be any composition of this kind. Copying out words and sentences, and the like exercises may be included in the preliminary lessons. It will be a faulty step to drill the pupils in a particular number of set sentences. The pupil cannot get away from the master and he cannot stand on his own legs.

Other exercises in connection with the teaching of English are :—

(a) Filling up gaps in the sentences. The sentences should not be quotations.

(b) Dictation. The pupils may be asked to correct their own mistakes.

Before concluding there is one more important point to be noted. Correction of errors is considered to be a great help. On the other hand this exercise of setting up a bad model instead of removing the errors only stimulates them. It is therefore necessary that this kind of exercise should be avoided.

The next stage is the *intermediate stage*: the topics to be considered in the teaching of English at this stage are, the teaching of the text, 'of' composition and of grammar. At the beginning the topics suggested for the beginner's stage may be taken up and developed. The teacher after each lesson should summarise the words and phrases taught in that lesson and put them on the black-board.

In the choice of subjects for the lessons he should be guided by their importance with reference to local conditions. Thus in delta districts where canals for irrigation and water traffic exist,

lessons partly geographical and partly descriptive of the value and the working of the canals, would take precedence of lessons on other modes of irrigation. Many useful subjects for lessons may be found in civics. The teacher's ultimate aim should be to make his pupils understand something of English life. The way should be prepared by lessons from Indian life. A keen teacher, by the aid of pictures with comparison and contrast, will do much to help the further understanding of English life.

English literature is full of classical allusions; and to understand it, a student of English must know something of the tales of Greece and Rome. Since English literature teems with Biblical allusions and expressions, Biblical stories should also be included.

In the higher stage of Forms IV, V and VI, in complete high schools, the teaching of English is in a large measure determined by the textbooks prescribed under the school leaving certificate scheme.

Therefore we may now consider the teaching of English in general. The first topic for consideration is the teaching of the text. At present there are some defects worth noticing :—

(1) In reading, the teacher fails to attend to sounds or the grouping of words.

(2) As regards explanation, the teacher expects the pupils to explain and define new words. There is no attempt to use the old vocabulary and the fundamental principle in teaching—apperception is neglected. There is not the tendency to use direct means in explaining new ideas and expressions. Some teachers insist upon exact synonyms and require that every line of poetry should be paraphrased. They fail to realise the absurdity involved in trying to find out exact synonyms and the uselessness of paraphrasing.

(3) There are very many defects in questioning. The teacher questions on the text simultaneously with giving explanations. The class is given no time to revise the new matter. Most of the

questions are not designed to give practice in speech. There is lacking the sorting out of topics for questioning. Matter, vocabulary and grammar, are jumbled together. The questions on the subject-matter usually involve mere repetitions of the words of the book. No attempt is made to recombine the material.

(4) Insufficiency of matter is another defect. There is the assumption on the part of the teacher that every word needs explanation and that memorising the matter is the ultimate purpose of reading.

In order to remedy these defects we should in the first place understand the main objects of reading. They are :—

(1) To provide opportunity for drill in speech.

(2) To increase the vocabulary, by knowledge of various meanings of particular words and by learning new words and phrases.

(3) To develop culture and provide interest in English literature.

Two kinds of reading should be adopted. There should be books prescribed for intensive reading in which the teacher's part is perhaps the greatest. Secondly there should be extensive readers. These are books chosen in accordance with the progress made in intensive reading. In these, independence and self-reliance on the part of the pupils are to be encouraged. As regards the method that may be followed we must first pay attention to sounds and the grouping of words. Questions intended to elicit what the pupils know already and so help the elucidation of the meaning of new words should be put. The teacher should as far as possible adopt direct means in explaining and constantly appeal to past experiences. The explanation should be in slow, measured and simple speech. Such of the important points as are to be recalled in revision should be marked.

The next day the teacher may revise the lesson. He should put questions bearing on the text, the matter and the vocabulary. Mere repetition of the words of the book should be avoided. The aim should be recombination of

the new with the old. The teacher should cultivate in the pupils the habit of reading slowly and distinctly.

The next important subject to be considered is the place of translation. Writers on the reformed method of teaching a foreign language are agreed that translation as a means of learning a modern language can be but of small use. Translation delays speech by interposing a second medium of utterance between the learner and the foreign language. As long as this double mental process is involved the music of the language can never be fully appreciated nor the thoughts expressed fully understood. The vernacular should be used only for conveying the meanings of words whose significance cannot be conveyed directly and for inductive explanation of points of grammar.

AIDED EDUCATION IN MADRAS.

(Reprint from the "Madras Mail.")

SIR,—Although laid aside from active life I still take much interest in what goes on in Southern India and especially in all that bears on educational progress there. Now, your weekly issue of the 22nd February contains a report of an Educational Debate in the Madras Legislative Council, in which a statement is said to have been made by the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne which it is important to correct. The needed correction may possibly have been supplied before your issue reached me here. In case, however, that this has not been done, I feel it to be my duty to advert to the matter now. According to your report, the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne said that the Education Commission in its Report, published in 1884, made "an absolutely definite recommendation that the amount given from public funds should be half the deficit," that is, that the grant-in-aid to a privately managed institution should, in no case, exceed half the difference between the total expense of such an institution and the amount drawn by its Managers from fees, endowments and other resources of their own. It may be that this statement has not been reported

with rigid accuracy. According to the official Report, [The actual words used were:—" . . . there is an absolutely definite recommendation in that Despatch that the highest amount of aid expected from public funds should be half of the deficit."—ED.] I am aware, however, that statements fitted to leave the same impression have been made repeatedly. Such statements have, indeed, been made so often that those interested in questions of educational policy may come, in course of time, to believe them. This is the reason why I feel called upon to say that no such recommendation was made by the Education Commission; and, indeed, that any recommendation of the kind would be directly opposed to the policy of dealing with private effort which that Commission outlined in its Report.

It seems desirable briefly to describe what is laid down in the Commission's Report on the subject of the amount of aid from public funds which ought to be afforded to the Managers of institutions which are the fruit of private effort. It will appear how directly what is thus laid down contravenes the statement which has, rightly or wrongly, been attributed to the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne. The Report of the Commission distinctly says:—"It is almost impossible to give even a general indication of what rate of aid should be given to each class of institution in each Province; while it is quite impossible to lay down rigid rules on a question that is necessarily so complicated and so largely dependent on local peculiarities." It is true that the Commission set itself to determine whether the grants to various classes of institutions in various Provinces at the time when it was sitting were adequate or inadequate. With this object it applied a method of which the Report itself says:—"It is only in the roughest and most general way that any such test as we have used should be employed to determine the sufficiency or insufficiency of aid." The test of which this is said is based on a principle entirely different from that of an equal division of the net expense of an institution between public funds and private resources, after fees have been deducted. Of the

test thus applied the Commission's Report says:—"According to the general principle explained above, the proportionate rate of aid to be afforded by the State to an aided institution would be half the ratio of the State expenditure to the whole expenditure on a departmental institution of the same class." Again, the Report says:—"As the result of these considerations, it may be held that the aid afforded is fairly sufficient, or at least not manifestly insufficient, when it bears to the entire cost of the aided institution half the ratio which the expenditure from public funds bears to the entire cost of a similar and similarly situated institution managed by the Department directly."

The principle thus laid down, not as a definition of the amount of aid to be afforded by the State to privately managed schools and colleges, but as a rough way of estimating whether the aid given to such institutions in 1882 was fairly adequate or not, is illustrated in the Report by various explanations and elaborate tables. These are too long to cite. It will be briefer to take an imaginary but fairly typical case, to show how it was meant that the principle should be applied. Let us suppose a departmental institution carried on at an expense to educational funds of Rs. 1,000 monthly, or Rs. 12,000 a year. Let us then see what amount of grant from public funds the Commission's principle would afford to an aided institution conducted with the same efficiency and under the same conditions as the supposed departmental one. The first step in this inquiry must be to determine the actual outlay from public funds on the departmental school which costs educational funds Rs. 12,000 per annum. Grants-in-aid for all purposes whatever are reckoned as educational outlay, but a departmental school costs public funds a much larger amount than appears in the Educational Budget. For instance, there is the expenditure on pensions, which, according to a well-known rule, must be reckoned as one-sixth of the amount of the salaries paid to teachers. There is also the interest on the large outlay on the original buildings and on requisite additions

and repairs to them—sums which are debited to the Department of Public Works. There are probably other similar charges. Such, at all events, was the method of reckoning followed by the Education Commission in regard to matters of this kind. When things like these are taken into account, it may be reckoned that a departmental school, which costs strictly educational funds Rs. 12,000, really costs public funds at least Rs. 15,000 per annum. The fees collected for the year in this supposed departmental school may be set down, for the purpose of illustration, at Rs. 9,000; though this would probably be to credit it with a greater amount of self-support than would be attained in most cases. This would leave Rs. 6,000 a year as the net cost of the institution, or in other words, public funds would have to bear 40 per cent. of its whole annual cost.

According to the principle now under consideration, an aided institution of the same class working efficiently under the same conditions, ought to receive from the State one half of this 40 per cent., i.e. 20 per cent. of its whole annual cost. Let us see how this arrangement would work out in practice. For reasons well known to those who have experience of Indian education, an aided college or school, as efficient as a departmental one and working under the same conditions, is ordinarily carried on at greatly less expense. It was found that in 1882 the ratio between a departmental and an aided secondary school, when working under similar conditions, was that the latter was conducted on about half the expenditure of the former. This would imply that, in the case brought forward by way of illustration the entire cost of the aided institution would be Rs. 7,500 per annum. It is certain, however, that in 1882 aided colleges and schools were carried on with greater economy than was always consistent with complete efficiency. Let it accordingly be reckoned that the supposed aided institution costs on the whole, not Rs. 7,500 but Rs. 10,000 per annum. No one who has any acquaintance with the relevant facts will deem this estimate un-

favourable to the departmental side. Let us in the next place see how the principle used in the roughest and most general way for testing sufficiency of aid would work out in practice. According to this principle, the supposed aided institution would receive from public funds 20 per cent. of its yearly expense, that is to say, a grant-in-aid of Rs. 2,000 per annum. Now, if the departmental institution, with the many advantages which it possesses, raises Rs. 9,000 per annum, or 60 per cent. of its entire expense, by means of fees, it would probably be safe to expect the corresponding aided institution to have a fee income of 20 per cent. less than this, or, in other words, that it would be self-supporting by means of fees to the extent of Rs. 7,200 per annum. If it received the grant of Rs. 2,000 from public funds to which it would be entitled according to the principle under consideration, there would remain Rs. 800 to be contributed by the Managers from resources of their own, other than the Rs. 7,200 which they raise by means of fees. Certainly the fee income derived from the efficiency of the management ought to be regarded mainly as a contribution from the Managers. At all events, it is in no sense a contribution from the Department of Education. It thus appears that, even if the principle under consideration were used for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of a proper grant-in-aid, though it was employed for quite another purpose, it would lead to very different results from those that would follow from that mis-statement of the principle to which I desire to invite attention. In such cases as the one brought forward by way of illustration, the annual outlay of Rs. 10,000 on the aided institution would be met by a grant of Rs. 2,000 from public funds, by a fee income of Rs. 7,200, and by Rs. 800 from such other resources of their own as the Managers may be able to rely on. If the Education Commission had given "an absolutely definite recommendation that the amount of aid given from public funds should be half the deficit" (which most assuredly it never did) the supposed aided institution would receive a grant, not of Rs. 2,000, but one of only Rs. 1,400 per

annum. This difference is by no means unimportant. In practical administration it is probable that the difference would be considerably greater than that which has been arrived at in the merely illustrative example which I have employed.

However, it would be vain to argue that anything in the Education Commission's Report about the test of the sufficiency of the aid afforded to private enterprise in 1882 casts direct light upon the question of the rate of aid that ought to be given in ordinary cases. The Report indeed contains a whole long paragraph headed "Cautions in applying the standard, employed." By provision after provision, which might easily be quoted, it guards against any attempt to convert into a universal rule the principle it used for a totally different purpose. There is not a word in the Report (unless possibly here and there a sentence or half a sentence wrested from its context) that can be construed into a recommendation "that the amount of aid given from public funds should be half the deficit," in the sense which the phrase expresses in the statement I object to. I am puzzled to understand how any one who had gone through the Report with ordinary care should be able to read such a recommendation into any part of it. I am certain that anyone who spends an hour in studying the relevant portions of the Report will share my puzzlement. The portions thus relevant are paragraphs 476—480 inclusive. I hope that all interested in this matter will refer to them.

There are many remarks in the Report, made authoritative by the Secretary of State and the Government of India in 1884, which set forth more or less distinctly the views held by the Education Commission on the question of the amount of aid which private Managers have a right to look for from the State. The general outcome of these remarks is that grants are to be given up to any amount needed for complete efficiency, provided that, even in the extreme case, they should not exceed one half the total expenditure on the institution aided. But the

chief, and indeed almost the only, recommendation which bears directly on this question of the proper rate of State aid is No. 13 (6 para. 580, Chapter XIII of the Report. This recommendation reads:—"That the amount of State aid (exclusive of scholarships from public funds) do not exceed one half of the entire expenditure on an institution." It will be observed that the maximum thus laid down is one half of the entire expenditure. Surely this is plain enough. Surely it shuts out the idea that the grant is to be limited to "half the deficit," as if the fee income of a college or school belonged in no sense to those who raise it. According to this express recommendation, the secondary aided school which, I have adduced as an illustrative example, would be entitled to a grant, not of Rs. 2,000, but of Rs. 5,000 per annum, provided this larger amount were really necessary to secure its complete efficiency. The Commission, however, held that only in special circumstances should the grant be so liberal as this. For, it adds as (c) in its recommendation:—"That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to Girls' schools, Primary schools, and Normal schools." Plainly, therefore, in exceptional cases, such perhaps as that of a secondary school in a particularly backward District, the grant from the State might warrantably amount to half the entire annual cost even of an ordinary aided institution. Yet the Education Commission was as decided as the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne in objecting to any unnecessary waste of public funds. Over and over again in its Report it points to cases in which the aid to which private effort is entitled may be greatly less than the warrantable maximum, viz., of half the entire cost. It insists in various forms upon the principle that the object of an enhanced grant is to extend education and increase its efficiency, not to economise the funds of Managers." It suggests many safeguards for securing that this principle shall be carried out in practice. It distinctly holds that "it will devolve on the Department to see that the

augmented aid is well applied." It proceeds throughout on the view that, unless in very exceptional cases Managers over and above their fee income "must have some funds" in order to secure "financial stability." The sum of the whole matter appears to be that the State's approval of the Report published in 1884 was equivalent to an instruction to those entrusted with the administration of its educational funds, that they should regard private effort as the essential feature of the scheme of education and treat private Managers as allies to be welcomed and encouraged, and not as rivals to be crushed.

I regard it as beyond my province to express, or even to form, an opinion on the merits of the scheme set forth in the Resolution adopted by the Legislative Council, as reported in your issue of the 22nd of last month. I am now unable to pronounce judgment on questions which require acquaintance with minute details. Such questions must be left to men on the spot who know the exact present position of matters educational. This, however, does not prevent me from being competent to correct erroneous statements concerning matters with which I am intimately acquainted and in which, for the sake of the whole future of India, I am very deeply interested. At the same time, I trust that the whole educational question now before the public will be thoroughly and impartially discussed. A good opportunity for this seems to be afforded by the full admission at the late debate that the present Grant-in-aid Code stands in grievous need of amendment. Whatever else such discussion may do, it ought to result in attention being drawn to the cardinal recommendation of the Education Commission on the subject of private effort. That recommendation has not, indeed, been enforced, but it has been repeatedly approved and adopted by those who occupy the seat of highest authority, though for many years it has been little more than a dead letter in Madras. Of course the recommendation I refer to is No. 10 in para. 680 under Chapter XII of the Education Commission's

Report. It stands thus:—"That whilst existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained in complete efficiency, wherever they are necessary the improvement and extension of institutions under private management be the principal care of the Department."

Burgo Park, Scotland. WILLIAM MILLER.

THE FUNCTION OF EDUCATION.

The following essay on the 'Function of Education' by Herbert Spencer is reproduced from a contemporary:—

"Scarcely any connexion exists between morality and the discipline of ordinary teaching. Mere culture of the intellect (and education as usually conducted amounts to little more) is hardly at all operative upon conduct. Creeds pasted upon the mind, good principles learnt by rote lessons in right and wrong, will not eradicate vicious propensities; though people, in spite of their experience as parents and as citizens, persist in hoping they will. Intellect is not a power, but an instrument—not a thing which itself moves and works, but a thing which is moved and worked by forces behind it. To say that men are ruled by reason, is as irrational as to say that men are ruled by their eyes. Reason is an eye—the eye through which the desires see their way to gratification. And educating it only makes it a better eye—gives it a vision more accurate and comprehensive—does not at all alter the desires subserved by it. However far-seeing you make it the passions will still determine the directions in which it shall be turned—the objects on which it shall dwell. Just those ends which the instincts or sentiments propose will the intellect be employed to accomplish: culture of it having done nothing but increase the ability to accomplish them. Probably some will urge that enlightening men enables them to discern the penalties which naturally

attach to wrong doing; and in a certain sense this is true. But it is only superficially true. Though they may learn that the grosser crimes commonly bring retribution in one shape or other, they will not learn that the subtler ones do. Their sins will merely be made more Machiavelian. If, as Coleridge says, a knave is a fool with a circumbendibus, then, by instructing the knave, you do but make the circumbendibus a wider one. Did much knowledge and piercing intelligence suffice to make men good, then, Bacon should have been honest and Napoleon should have been just. Where the character is defective, intellect, no matter how high, fails to regulate rightly, because predominant desires falsify its estimates. Nay, even a distinct foresight of evil consequences will not restrain when strong passions are at work. How else does it happen that men will get drunk, though they *know* drunkenness will entail on them suffering and disgrace, and (as with the poor) even starvation? How else is it that medical students, who *know* the diseases brought on by dissolute living better than other young men, are just as reckless, and even more reckless? How else is it that the London thief, who has been at the treadmill a dozen times, will steal again as soon as he is at liberty?

"It is indeed, strange that with the facts of daily life before them in the street, in the counting-house, and in the family, thinking men should still expect education to cure crime. If armies of teachers, regarded with a certain superstitious reverence, have been unable to purify society in all these eighteen centuries, it is hardly likely that other armies of teachers, not so regarded will be able to do it. If natural persuasion, backed by supernatural authority, will not induce men to do as they would be done by it is hardly likely that natural persuasion alone will induce them. If hopes of eternal happiness and terrors of eternal damnation fail to make human beings virtuous, it is hardly

likely that the commendations and reproofs of the schoolmaster will succeed.

There is, in fact, a quite sufficient reason for failure—no less a reason than the impossibility of the task. The expectation that crime may presently be cured, whether by State education or the silent system, or the separate system, or any other system, is one of those Utopianisms fallen into by people who pride themselves on being practical. Crime is incurable, save by that gradual process of adaptation to the social state which humanity is undergoing. Crime is the continual breaking out of the old unadapted nature the index of a character unfitted to its conditions; and only as fast as the unfitness diminishes can crime diminish. Reforming men's conduct without reforming their natures is impossible; and to expect that their natures may be reformed, otherwise than by the forces which are slowly civilizing us, is visionary. Schemes of discipline or culture are of use only in proposition as they originally alter the national character, and the extent to which they do this is by no means great. It is not by humanly devised agencies, good as these may be in their way, but it is by the never ceasing action of circumstances upon men—by the constant pressure of their new conditions upon them—that the required change is mainly effected.

"Meanwhile it may be remarked, that whatever moral benefit can be effected by education, must be effected by an education which is emotional rather than intellectual. If in place of making a child *understand* that this thing is right and the other wrong, you make it *feel* that they are so—if you make virtue *loved* and vice *loathed*—if you arouse a noble *desire*, and make torpid an inferior one—if you bring into life a previously dormant *sentiment*—if you cause a sympathetic *impulse* to get the better of one that is selfish—if, in short you produce a state of mind to which proper behaviour is *natural*, *spontaneous*, *instinctive* you do some good. But no

drilling in catechisms, no teaching of moral codes, can effect this. Only by repeatedly awakening the appropriate *emotions* can character be changed. Mere ideas received by the intellect, meeting no response from within, are quite inoperative upon conduct, and are quickly forgotten after entering into life."

MADRAS STUDENTS' ADVISORY COMMITTEE.

Circular No. XIII.

ON CHANGING PLAN OF JOURNEY *en route* AND ON ACCOMMODATION AT 21, CROMWELL ROAD.

(Supplementary to Circular No. VII).

It has been brought to the notice of the Committee that students bound for England, after booking their passages to London by the all-sea route, sometimes leave the steamer at Marseilles either from ignorance or to escape from the discomforts incidental to sea voyage. The overland journey from Marseilles entails considerable unnecessary expense; further the arrangements made for meeting students who are expected to arrive in London by sea are upset when they suddenly change their plans in this way; and when they arrive in London before they are expected, they frequently suffer great inconvenience. It will be well, therefore, to adhere to the route first selected. Students will also do well to remember that they could, immediately on their arrival in London, get excellent accommodation at 21, Cromwell Road, S. Kensington, at which place they could also be advised as to the choice of lodgings for prolonged stay.

March, 1912.

K RAMUNNI MENON,
Ag. Secretary.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

**The Teaching of English Composition.
Decay of Story-Telling-Discussion
at a Conference organised by
the English Association.**

A Conference organized by the English Association on 'The Teaching of English Composition in Schools' was held at University College. Mr. F. S. Boas, LL. D., presided, and there was a large attendance of school teachers of various grades.

The Chairman said it was now agreed that the word 'composition' must be interpreted in the broadest possible sense, and must include oral as well as written expression. For the average boy and girl it was, in some respects, the most important branch of the English curriculum. At any rate, it was the subject by which their capacity would be judged after they left school. Moreover, composition—the art of clear and simple expression—was the most difficult of all the branches of English teaching.

Miss E. A. Ford (Lecturer at the Clapham Day Training College), speaking on 'The teaching of composition in relation to the teaching of Literature,' said it was the fact that the average boy and girl on leaving school were unable to write English with clearness and fluency or with any degree of grammatical accuracy. They knew what they wanted to say, but they did not know how to say it. 'The words won't come,' they said in explanation. The reason was that the schools had not realised sufficiently the importance of teaching the mother-tongue. They had taken it too much for granted that the child himself would naturally grow to a knowledge and use of the language. If a child was to be taught how to write simply and correctly teachers must see to it that he assiduously practised the art by the light of literature.

Dr. W. H. D. Rouse (Headmaster of the Perse School, Cambridge) dealt with 'The Place of English Composition in the Language Scheme of of a Secondary School.' He said he could give

the substance of his paper in one sentence, 'English composition is the foundation of all other work.' Systematic training in English composition was more needed now in the schools than it used to be, because teachers had now no help from the home. English children used to hear no end of stories from nurse and mother, and used to tell stories to each other. That was rare now, so far as his experience went. In a later stage, parents used to read aloud to their children, and there was little trash printed. Now no one read aloud, and there was hardly anything printed but trash. Moreover, children now took their amusements passively. The gramophone was in the home. Children therefore came to school without having really used their faculties at all. A generation of town-bred Cockneys had grown up with none of the training in observation and intelligence that came of the country-life. Teachers, accordingly, had now to do what used to be done by nurse and mother, good books, and the sights of nature, and to bring out latent faculties which would often have been vigorous in times gone by.

Mr. George Sampson (Headmaster of the Bellen-den Road High Grade School), dealing with 'Oral Composition in Upper Classes,' said oral composition was the foundation of written composition, and that was so because in the school they had to deal with creatures who could talk before they could write. Left to themselves, good speech would not produce good writing, and good, writing would not produce good speech. But good speech was more likely to produce good writing than good writing was likely to produce good speech. Children could be trained in such a conscious shaping of good speech as would result in good writing.

Mr. Hartog (London University) said the object of composition should be to enable a child to put into words what he really thought and felt. If that were borne in mind, what he regarded as the supreme mistake made by Stevenson would be

avoided—'playing the sedulous ape' to great writers, from which Stevenson never recovered except in his magnificent fragment, 'Weir of Hermiston,' in which he was sincerely himself. In putting a child to write an essay they should impress upon him that what was wanted from him was what he really thought and felt. That would mean the exclusion of a large number of artificial subjects for essay-writing which were now commonly set.

Mr. W. J. Addis (County School, Brockley) thought it was a mistake to imply that clearness and force were the sole qualities of good composition. Elegance and grace should not be neglected.

Miss Wilson (Lecturer at the Moorfield Training College) insisted that English composition should be put in the forefront in examinations for teaching of all kinds. It was a common experience, she said, that science and mathematical teachers could not write a letter in decent English.

Mr. A. H. D. Acland said the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, of which he was chairman, had issued what was perhaps the most important report in English on the subject of the bearing of examinations on secondary schools, and, indeed, on schools in general. In that connexion he should like to hear opinions, whether or not the teaching of composition was injuriously affected by the kind of essay which was usually demanded at examinations.

Miss Allen (Homerton Training College) thought the setting of essays in examinations an entire mistake. Her experience was that teachers wrote the essay much worse than the other papers in an examination.

Miss Thomson (Examiner for London Matriculation) said it was noticeable that subjects for essays calling for the expression of original ideas made no appeal in examinations. They were invariably avoided.

Dr. Rouse said that when teachers were asked why improved methods were not adopted in the schools the answer was, 'Public examinations stand in the way.'

Professor Gollancz, in moving a vote of thanks to the readers of papers, said it was the experience of senior examiners that there had been a great advance in English composition of late years. He thought that was mainly due to the noble efforts of the English Association.

The "Leader" on "Indians in the Education Service."

The Allahabad "Leader" comments as follows upon the statement made by Sir Harcourt Butler, in reply to a question in Council, that out of 211 appointments in the Indian Education Service three only are held by Indians:—

Can it reasonably be contended that there are not more than three Indian educationists in the whole country fit to be in the Indian Educational Service? Are all the 208 European members of the Service so many geniuses, and is capacity so wanting among those fated to remain in the Provincial Educational Service? Have there been no complaints in informed quarters against the calibre of many of the privileged 208, and have not flattering opinions been sometimes expressed by sound critics of the work and worth of many members of the Provincial Service? Have the five Indian Universities so far failed to produce able and learned men who can safely be trusted to take up the instruction of the advanced youth of the land side by side with European professors? And if they have, are all the Indian graduates of British Universities who have taken to teaching as a vocation equally incompetent?

We shall be the last to gainsay the advantage to the Indian youth of being taught by qualified and sympathetic European professors. But European professors do not, surely, possess a monopoly of wisdom and learning; nor are all European professors endowed with the necessary mental and moral qualities that they should be deemed indispensable or superior to Indian educationists. The British in India are not only rulers but teachers, and we cannot do without their guidance and instruction, particularly as professors in our colleges. But there need, surely, be no wholesale condemnation of Indian talent, which is what the present arrangement amounts to. . . . British professors are many of them indifferent to the moulding of our future citizens, taking as they do a restricted view of their duties and opportunities, while, as regards Indians, not the best talent is always attracted to the service because of the conditions of pay, and such first-class men as do embrace that profession feel an amount of discontent. This emphatically is not as it should be.

The Durbar and Education, by Sir S. Subramania Iyer.

Presiding over a meeting addressed by the Hon. Mr. Sivaswami Iyer, Sir S. Subramania Iyer spoke a few words on the significance of the Durbar to India, to the rising generation and the generations to come. To his mind, the most significant feature was that connected with the boon in relation to education. That might be called the expressed significance of the Durbar. He would ask them to remember in that connection that everything had its own limitations, however much the limitations might differ in degree in individual cases. The fact was that they had a very large number of limitations. To his mind the only way of removing those limitations was only by knowledge and education. Whatever impediment there was to their progress, they would find it arose from want of education and from want of sufficient knowledge which enabled them to grasp things in the right spirit. Therefore, when His Majesty made his boon in connection with education, he had hit upon the most important and most vital thing which was essential for the progress and advance of India. Taking education in the large sense of the widening of the mind, it was, in his opinion, the panacea for many evils in this country; and therefore, when His Majesty and the rulers in this country had made it a privilege of the Empire to hear the announcement on the very day of the Durbar that they were to get Rs. fifty lakhs every year for the purpose of education it was a most significant thing. He wanted to point out that the widening of the minds of the people could only be done under the present circumstances by education imparted on Western lines in spite of its defects. The Pundits' Conference at Conjeevaram had confirmed him in that view. What Pundits trained in the traditional lines would not agree to do Professor Rangachariar and Mr. Kuppasamy Sastri, who were learned in Western and Eastern learning, had been able to achieve in connection with that Conference. There were limitations which people had themselves created and others which had been made for them. It was their duty to remove limitations which they had themselves made and to assist in removing those imposed upon them by others. Some of those limitations were created by the very Government which wanted to help them. It was education, in short, which should enable them to fight that case and expose the hollowness of that institution. Hence arose the importance of education, with regard to which His Majesty pledged his word and made it the watchword of the future administration.

Sir Andrew Fraser on sectarian Universities.

Sir Andrew Fraser, K.C.S.I., late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, has a noteworthy article in the *Nineteenth Century and After* for April in which he condemns in unmistakeable terms the proposal to found Hindu and Mahomedan Universities in India. He thinks that sectarian Universities would result in a narrower outlook for both Hindu and Mahomedan education and would tend to create in their *alumni* a feeling of exclusiveness which it ought not to be the ideal of a University to foster. Sir Andrew Fraser describes in some detail the reasons which have induced leaders of thought among Hindus and Mahomedans to establish separate Universities. The anxiety to impart religious and moral instruction, points out the writer, can be relieved to a considerable extent by having residential Colleges where arrangements could be made for such instruction. Among the other causes of dissatisfaction which have stimulated the birth of this movement are the neglect, under the existing curricula of State aided education, of the vernaculars, the discouragement of private beneficence for educational objects by the narrow spirit of departmentalism, and the supposed denationalisation of the younger generation by the system of secular education. The following views of Sir Andrew Fraser on the importance of the subject are worth the serious consideration of the Government and of the promoters of the University:—

"I do not myself believe in the wisdom of founding those sectarian institutions. By the time a man comes to University life he must know, and ought to know, something of the differences of religious belief that exist in this world, and ought at least then to begin an intelligent examination of the grounds of his own faith. Influences should undoubtedly be brought to bear upon him to maintain his religious faith and life; but it is a narrow system, and one which tends not to strength but to weakness, to segregate the young people of one religion and teach them apart. Is it what one might expect from a timorous and short-sighted sectarianism. . . To establish a sectarian University will be a retrograde measure; and if that sectarian University aims at controlling the education of the adherents of its own creed throughout India, the result may well be expected to be disastrous to progress. It must tend to maintain narrowness of view, intolerance of character and religious antipathies."

The Snares and Pitfalls of Teachers, by V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar.

At the 22nd Anniversary of the Teachers' Association, Saidapet, Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar, gave an intending lecture on the difficulties of the teacher.

It may not be inappropriate if on an occasion such as the present I set before you some of the snares and pitfalls with which you are sure, almost at the outset, to make acquaintance. You must have noticed that, the most prominent of them is the tendency in all its ranks to give way to a spirit of brooding, almost as under a personal injury, as if the idea of a grievance was inseparable to the teacher's profession. It may be said that this discontent was not peculiar to teachers, that almost every walk in life had its characteristic grievance, and more, that it was in our common human nature to cherish a grievance. Now the teacher's grievance was suggested by the poorness of his emoluments, and though things had of late greatly improved, yet there was no doubt that it was a badly paid profession. Then again the teacher often felt the obscurity in which his life had to be lived. It must be admitted that the class room was one of the most obscure corners of life. How often was the teacher tempted to compare his calling with that of the Vakil, and regard with envy the "lime-light" in which the successful pleader made his way. But these things, he should remember had their compensations. He would not overvalue training. Training was of no value unless the teacher's heart was in his work for like the poet the teacher had to be born, and mere training could not make him. The speaker here cautioned the audience against the desultoriness of much of their work. There was neither firmness of purpose nor the consciousness that all their work was done under the Master's eye. Many of them would go from school to school, would change for any reason and sometimes for no reason in the vain hope of finding a post where classes were few and salaries large, where all the boys were keen-eyed and bright-witted only to find after the weariness of search that such Utopias do not exist. "Do not change without a proved necessity for it; be proud of your Institution, study its past; it would be found full both of warnings and examples."

There was another caution; Not infrequently discontented teachers would form a cove of Adullam within the staff, and it occasionally happened that the whole staff became a clique of malcontents, even the older students being called in to increase the mischief. You must learn to resist the temptation to rebellion.

An Education Commission in Australia: its Importance to India.

An Education Commission is at present inquiring into the condition of education, in all its aspects, in Australia. The trend of the inquiry and of the reforms which are felt to be necessary may be gathered from the evidence given before the Commission at Melbourne by the Director of Public Instruction of South Australia, which has been summarised by the Melbourne correspondent of a contemporary. Unlike the rigorous policy of working in secret, delighted in by officials in India, the Director, Mr. Williams, recommended that, in order to raise the efficiency of the Department, the appointments of a Council of Education, such as existed in Victoria was necessary. If a Council were appointed representative of the various interests of the State—the University, technical, agricultural, trade, primary, and kindergarten schools—it would lead, he said, to the formation of a sounder public opinion on the education question and help on considerably the work of the department. Such an Advisory Council, selected carefully and if possible on a representative basis, is sure to keep the educational authorities in touch with public opinion and help them in avoiding pitfalls. The directions in which future educational policy should be directed, the methods of spreading elementary education in villages, giving a rural bias to the instruction given therein, the needs of Secondary education and a reform of its curriculum, improvement of higher education consistent with efficiency, the desirability or otherwise of the State interfering in other than purely secular education, establishment of new technical and industrial schools, are all matters on which well-chosen Standing Committees ought to be able to give reliable advice to the Directors of Public Instruction in India. But prestige stands in the way of many desired reforms and what little can be accomplished can only be done by pressure from above. Mr. Williams offered a number of suggestions as regards compulsory elementary education. He urged the adoption of the Bill introduced into the House of Assembly last year. That measure

contained provisions for raising of school age to 14 years and made attendance on every school day compulsory. Regarding the latter there appeared to be some misapprehension. In the past the Education Department had never insisted on attendance on four days, and under the new proposal discretion would be exercised so that parents would not be harassed. This was largely in the hands of local boards of advice, the members of which were acquainted with local conditions and were sympathetic in their administration of that particular clause of the Act. A reasonable excuse, of course, would be required for non-compliance with the Act. He also recommended that new children should only be admitted to school at stated intervals, say, twice a year, so that the classes could work on uninterruptedly. These matters are perhaps not of immediate importance to us in India, but they undoubtedly show that while further measures are contemplated in order to make compulsory elementary education more useful and more effective, by way, for instance, of increasing the compulsory period of stay in school, even the modest instalment of reform contemplated in Mr. Gokhale's Bill has not been accepted by the Government of India. Mr. Williams next spoke of the necessity of medical inspection in schools. It was advisable, in his opinion, that the Department should have the services of a medical officer to bring South Australia into line with the other States. Dr. Rogers, who made an examination of 1,000 children throughout the State, said his investigation led him to the conclusion that there was a great necessity for regular and systematic inspection of the schools. After urging the importance of a fully-equipped Training College, the Director stated that though he regarded the Teachers' Union as representative of the Teachers, he would prefer to get their opinion by plebiscite on the more important questions affecting the Department.

Reviews and Notices.

THE RATIONAL ARITHMETIC—GIRLS' EDITION, BY GEORGE RICKS, B. SC., LONDON. (MACMILLAN & Co. 1911). *Price*—TEACHERS' BOOKS (1 to 5): 8d. each; BOOK 6, 10d.; SCHOLARS' BOOKS (1 to 5), 3d. each; BOOK 6: 5d.

We are in receipt of the series of books, both teachers' and scholars', called 'The Rational Arithmetic.' There are six books of the teachers' series, and six of the scholars'. The course of Arithmetic to be travelled at school is divided into seven annual courses, which are treated in six books. A definite syllabus of what is to be covered in the year is given at the beginning of the book. The books possess, in common with modern books on Arithmetic, the merit of being practical, correlating as they do Algebra and Geometry with Arithmetic. Large use of squares and squared paper is made. We would wish that equations were introduced much earlier, even in the first year course, in the form of puzzles bearing on addition and subtraction. Addition and subtraction of money come alongside of practical addition and subtraction of figures. This is commendable, though we would point out at the same time that the examples ought not to be such as would require conversion of the added pence into shillings at this early stage.

The idea of half, a fourth, etc. is given early with the help of the ruler and squared paper. The fractional notation too is freely employed without any formal explanation, perhaps because pupils get familiar with $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, etc. even before the teacher teaches them; but the use of fractions like $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, etc., at a stage when the notation cannot be explained, cannot be commended.

Another feature of the series is that in the earliest book only numbers less than 100 are treated of, and the four rules are applied to them; in each advanced book, higher numbers are treated similarly. All the examples are concrete. Ideas of scale and proportion are introduced very early with the help of lines and squares. Definitions of terms like a square, a line, a triangle, are rightly dispensed with. The sixth and seventh years' course includes a treatment of graphs and very simple applications of them to statistics and every-day arithmetic.

The tenour of the series is, on the whole, good, and the series might well be consulted for teaching Arithmetic in Elementary schools and the lower forms of Secondary schools.

SCIENCE OF EDUCATION: BY T. P. KEATING, B.A., L.C.P. (LONGMANS, GREEN & Co.) 2s. 6d.

A clear and concise statement of the leading facts of the mind. The first nine chapters state in an easy and popular style the theory of the subject and the remaining chapters bring out the educational bearings of the earlier portion. The chapter on Inclinations in general and the later chapters give within the limits the author has prescribed for himself and in unpretentious form a fair view of 'moral education.' Though meant as a manual for students in Catholic schools we do not find anything sectarian about it. We unhesitatingly commend it to students of training colleges.

THE PLACE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING OF THE TEACHER, BY ALEXANDER DARROCH, M.A. (LONGMANS, GREEN & Co.)

The contents of the book are well indicated by the titles of the different lectures making up the book: the Place of Psychology in the training of the teacher; the method of approach to the study of the problems of Psychology in their relation to education; the other methods of approach to the study of Psychology; the child and the curriculum; and the place of interest and effort in education. Very instructive and interesting lectures all these to the teacher earnest in perfecting himself for his work.

The first lecture insists on the study of Psychology for its own sake and thereafter in order to ascertain what guidance it may furnish him in the everyday work of the class-room. Mere lectures on Psychology are not enough. There must be seminar work in which the student along with his teacher investigates real problems, endeavours to analyse complex mental processes and to verify the results attained by reference to his own experience.

The second explains how Psychology interprets mental development in terms of purpose, how then alone it can give an intelligent account of habit and how the educational psychologist has to deal with the school as a society and a society divided into subordinate groups, how the motives that affect the school society are similar in kind to those in other social groups.

The third lecture commends the genetic method and insists on observational and experimental studies as giving the student a real grip of the subject.

If space permitted we should like to quote the words of the author on a living curriculum in pp. 91 and 92. We commend them to all organisers of studies so that certain mistakes we are familiar with may not be perpetuated.

The last lecture explains the value of interest and effort as educational motives. The latter is apt to be neglected in the teacher's eagerness to be 'popular.'

We have sufficiently indicated what important matters the lectures deal with. They are treated with a mastery of the available learning on the subject and with high powers of exposition.

AN INTRODUCTORY COURSE OF MECHANICS AND PHYSICS, BY W. M. HOOTON, M.A., (OXON.), M. SC., F.L.C., AND ALFRED MATHIAS.

We owe an apology to the publishers for the delay in noticing the book. It treats of the fundamental principles of *Mechanics*, *Hydrostatics* and *Heat* in a clear and simple manner. The course is, throughout, one of experiments which are carefully designed and require no elaborate apparatus and manipulation. The object of each experiment is clearly stated and the method of treatment provides ample scope for the training of students in *accurate observation* and the *correct recording* of results. Another good feature is that much room is left for the exercise of the *reasoning faculty* of students in respect of drawing inferences from experiments and of deducing generalisations. The instructions for doing experiments are concisely couched in *simple*, nevertheless, *scientifically accurate* expressions, while the *clear* diagrams inserted serve to afford no small help to students in the easy manipulation of the apparatus which are at once simple and easily procurable. The exercises and numerical examples appended to each chapter ought to go a great way towards affording the learners practice in the application of the results and focussing their attention.

The experiments, instead of forming a mere disconnected set, are sought to be connected by some *theory* then and there, but we are of opinion that a little more of *theory* might, with advantage, have been given so as to render the book more useful as a general text-book in the hands of beginners. The authors themselves are not unaware of this but leave it to teachers to supplement the theory.

The printing and the get-up of the book leave nothing to be desired and the authors are to be congratulated upon their production of such an

excellent treatise. We may add that, with a few changes, it will prove a valuable guide to students for grasping the earlier portions of the Syllabus in Advanced Physics prescribed for the School Final Examination in Madras Presidency.

AN ADAPTATION OF LAMB'S VERSION OF SHAKESPEARE'S TEMPEST, IN TAMIL, BY K. VENKATARAMA AIYAR, B.A. (LORD RIPON PRESS, KUMBakonam). Price 1a. 6p.

Mr. Venkatarama Aiyar is already known by his translation and adaptation of Milton's 'Samson Agonistes.' In his splendid way, he has done the present work ably.

THE LIFE OF H. M. THE KING-EMPEROR GEORGE V, BY C. S. RAMASWAMY AIYER, IN TAMIL: PRINTED AT THE PARIJATA PRESS. Price 8 as.

The writer is known to Tamil readers as the Editor of the *Zenana Magazine*. He has given, in simple style, readable matter of interest and usefulness.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR: A BOOK FOR INDIAN STUDENTS, BY W. McMORDIE, M.A. (LONDON, HENRY FROWDE). Price 1 Re.

The author has been before the school-going population for a number of years—chiefly by his work "English Idioms and how to use them." He has taken great pains to adapt it to Indian needs without detailing points required for schools in England. He has at the same time recognised that the application of rules to the text-book is the important thing. It is intended for pupils of Secondary schools, but, in the present condition of the Madras University and the School Leaving Certificate, a book of this kind is not likely to meet with any large demand in the market.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE.

BUSINESS AGENDA.

- (1) Formation of a Subjects Committee.
- (2) Adoption of the Annual Report by the Subjects Committee.
- (3) Adoption of the Annual Report by the Conference.
- (4) Meeting of the Subjects Committee in the afternoon of the 4th May 1912 for drafting resolutions and other business, if any.
- (5) Consideration of the draft resolutions by the Conference.
- (6) Consideration of the suggested alterations in the Rules of the Union.

Suggested alterations in the Rules of the Union:—

1. For Rule I, substitute—"The Union shall be called the S. I. T. Union" and shall consist of those who are members of affiliated (local Associations having their own officers and rules and those who are directly enrolled as "unattached members" by the Executive Board.
2. In Rule III B read "June" for "October"
Do. C read "June" for "October"
Do. D read "June" for "October"
3. In Rule VI read "May" for "September."
4. The existing rule VI shall be VIA. Add the following Rules as VIB and VIC:—

VIB.—The subscription payable by each Association shall be calculated on the total strength of the Association at a rate per head that shall be fixed by the Executive Board.

VIC.—The Executive Board may directly enrol those who may be in places where no affiliated Associations exist. Such members shall be designated "unattached members" and shall have the same powers and liabilities as members of affiliated Associations and shall pay an annual fee of not less than one Rupee.

5. For Rule VII, read—"The official year of the Union shall be from July 1st to June 30th."

6. For Rule X, read—"The Executive Board shall meet once a year, if possible. If not, all business shall be transacted by circulation."

7. For Rule XIII, read—"A Conference of the Union shall be held once every year at such time and place as the Executive Board may fix." The remaining portion of the rule to stand as it does.

8. In Rule XIV, read—"30th of June for 31st October."

9. Add as Rule XVI.—"The account of the Union shall be audited by an auditor who shall be appointed by the Executive Board and whose report shall be embodied in the annual report."

To be moved by the General Secretary on behalf of the Venkatagiri Teachers' Association—"The capitation fee shall be definitely and once for all

fixed at 2 as. per annum per head of Elementary teachers, at 4 as. per annum per head of Lower Secondary teachers, and 12 as. per annum per head of other teachers."

MADRAS,
15th April 1912.]

A. PANCHAPAGESA AIYAR,
General Secretary.

The Board High School, Amalapuram.—The ninth anniversary of the Debating Society attached to this institution was celebrated on the evening of the 11th instant, with E. Pakenham Walsh, Esq., I.C.S., in the chair. Among those present were Miss Walsh and Mrs. Madeley of Madras. After the reading of the report by the Secretary, Mr. U. Vanamayya, B.A., read a well-thought out Essay on "The Growth of the British Parliament." There was then an enthusiastic debate by some students on "Does morality promote civilisation?" followed by some humorous recitations and funny items, which were all appreciated by the audience. The portrait of the late Mr. G. Sambhushastri, a former teacher there, was then unveiled by the Chairman, who thereupon delivered a very eloquent and instructive speech. In referring to the late teacher he dwelt on the reward due to a high sense of duty. He then congratulated the Society on its work and the boys that recited on their excellent performance and complimented the essayist on his able and interesting account of the growth of the Mother of Parliaments. After comparing the British and the French Parliaments, the Chairman spoke on the advantages of the party Governments. His humorous remarks on the subject of the debate showed that he took the affirmative side of the question. Then there was distribution of *pan supari* attended with music, which included some songs on George V. The usual vote of thanks and three cheers to Their Majesties which were lustily responded to, brought the proceedings to a close.

Kumbakonam Elementary Teachers' Association.—A meeting of the Kumbakonam Elementary Teachers' Association was held recently under the presidency of Mr. A. Govindarajulu Mudaliar, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Kumbakonam Range, at the premises of the Yanaiyady Elementary School when Rao Bahadur S. Appu Sastriar, B.A., Mr. T. K. Hanumantha Rao, B.A., L.T., Mr. R. Swaminatha Iyer, B.A., L.T., Mr. S. Vridhagiri Iyer, Mr. R. Rangasawmy Iyer and 125 teacher members were present. Mr. T. K. Hanumantha Rao delivered an instructive lecture on the Co-operative Credit Society and Provident Fund. He described the origin and growth of co-operative movement in England which is based upon unity and knowledge and explained clearly how he and some other teachers started a society at Triplicane, how it progressed to the admiration of one and all at Madras. He dwelt at length on the advantages the teachers would derive by co-operating themselves into a society. Finally he cleared the doubts of the

teachers in connection with the subject of his lecture. Afterwards the following resolutions were unanimously passed:—

Resolved that a Co-operative Society be formed of the teachers of the Kumbakonam Range with the following objects: (a) The establishment of a Provident Fund in the lines of the Government Provident Fund. (b) To purchase in common wholesale such of the requirements of the members as may from time to time be determined by the members for retail distribution; (c) The educational advancement of its members; (d) That the funds collected from the members towards the Provident Fund be invested in the Government Savings Bank, Government Promissory Notes or other investments approved of by the Registrar; (e) That the President be requested to address the Registrar of Co-operative Societies and invite him to do the needful for furthering the abovementioned objects. Rao Bahadur S. Appuastriar paid a high tribute to Mr. T. K. Hanumantha Rao for his sound knowledge of the principles of co-operation and explained to the teachers how they will be benefited by the formation of Co-operative Society.

Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Secretary, Educational Society, Kumbakonam, spoke highly of the lecture and told the teachers what the Educational Society had done in the direction of forming a Co-operative Credit Society and congratulated the Association on the passing of the resolution.

The Telugu Language and Literature—Protest against solution of text-books.—A public meeting was held in the Progressive Union School Hall, Georgetown, with the Hon'ble Dewan Bahadur M. Audinarayaniah in the chair. The following were among those present:—The Rajah of Pithapuram, Pandit D. Gopalacharlu, Dewan Bahadur P. Rajarathna Mudaliar, Mr. P. Naghabhushanam, Mr. V. Venkatraya Sastri, Mr. M. Subbarayadu, Mr. M. Paparao Naidu, Rao Sahib Janardana Singh, Mr. A. Seshachary, Mr. N. Krishnasawmy Chetty, Mr. K. Lakshminarayana Chetty and Mr. J. Ramayya Pantulu.

The Chairman in opening the meeting explained its objects briefly.

Mr. V. Venkatraya Sastri moved in an interesting speech the following Resolution:—

"That this meeting of the Telugu citizens of Madras begs to record its emphatic disapproval of the movement set on foot in certain parts of the Telugu country to discourage Literary Telugu and substitute in its stead diverse spoken varieties thereof and begs to represent to Government, the Director of Public Instruction and the Syndicate of the University of Madras, that the movement so started besides being calculated to destroy the purity and uniformity of the Telugu language has the further effect of rendering unintelligible to the Telugu people at large, the language and literature

in which their ancient civilisation and religion are treasured."

Mr. P. Nagabhushanam seconded the Resolution which was supported by Ramadoss Pantulu and Mr. V. Vebkatasubbiah and carried unanimously.

Mr. M. Ramakrishna Kani then proposed:—

"That this meeting views with alarm the support accorded by educational authorities to the movement referred to above and begs respectfully to invite the attention of Government to the danger of the Educational Department lending their support to linguistic reforms so called advocated by a few but not recognised by the generality of the Telugu people."

The Resolution was seconded in an interesting speech by Mr. Bhima Sankaran Pantulu and supported by Mr. S. Gurusawmy Chetty and carried unanimously.

Mr. Suryanarayana Sastri next moved:—

"That with a view to avoid the selection of books of the type of the 'School for Scandal,' 'Greek Myths,' 'Longman's Practical Arithmetic' and such other books, this meeting begs respectfully to recommend to Government and the Director of Public Instruction and the Syndicate of the University of Madras:—

(1) That the selection of Telugu text-books for school and college study be in the hands of a committee composed mainly of approved Telugu scholars possessing educational experience or otherwise qualified to assist in the selection of such text-books.

(2) That the selection of text-books be made out of books written in conformity with the accepted idiom and grammar of the Telugu language."

Mr. N. Krishnasawmy Chetty seconded the Resolution which was carried unanimously.

The following Resolution was then put from the Chair.

"That this meeting begs to convey to Government their sense of thankfulness for the response they have so far given to the demands of the public in the matter of strengthening the Telugu Sub-Committee of the Text-Book Committee."

The Rajah of Pithapuram then proposed that the President of this meeting be authorized to forward the above Resolutions to the authorities mentioned in the first Resolution with a covering letter.

The Resolution was accepted and the meeting then terminated with the usual vote of thanks to the chair.

The Telugu Academy—First Anniversary.—The Telugu Academy was organised about a year ago for the furtherance of modern Telugu works and the preservation of ancient Telugu classics. The first anniversary meeting of the Academy was held at the Pachaiyappa's Hall. In the absence of the Raja of Pithapuram, Rao Bahadur K. Veerasalingam Pantulu presided. Mr. P. Ramayanar, M.A.,

of Kalahasti was the chairman at the latter stage. The meeting was well attended and amongst those present were Mr. N. Pattabhirama Rao, Rao Bahadur B. N. Sarma, Messrs. R. Venkatasubba Rao, V. Venkataraya Sastriar, P. Nagabhushanam, Jayanti Ramayya Pantulu, Dr. A. Lakshmipathi, P. Raghaviah, M. Venkataratnam, N. Kuppuswami Aiyar (Tirupati), V. Subba Rao, S. V. Ranga Charry, Kanakarazu, Banumurti Pantulu and Kumararaja of Chellapally.

Several papers in Telugu dealing with the growth and development of the Telugu language and other kindred subjects were read by Messrs. S. Venkataranga Sastrulu of Kalahasti, N. Kuppuswami Aiyar of Tirupati, C. H. Banumurti, J. Ramayya Pantulu, Y. Narayanamurti, and G. Ramamurti Pantulu of Parla Kimedi.

The essays were well appreciated by the audience. Rao Bahadur Veerasalingam Pantulu in his concluding remarks stated that in writing easy Telugu prose disconnection of sandhis might be observed wherever possible and the simplification of prose was necessary and in doing so gramya Telugu should be entirely avoided.

With the usual vote of thanks to the chair and to the various lecturers the meeting came to a close.

BOMBAY.

Technical Education—The system in Bombay.—At the prize-giving of the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees said:—The necessity for the development of technical training in India is now widely recognized, and arrangements are being made in various Provinces and Presidencies to establish technical schools. Up to this time the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute has stood practically in a class by itself, and has drawn its students from all parts of India. Now its very existence is threatened by the competition of these other schools. Students will naturally prefer to attend schools in their own Provinces, unless we can maintain our superiority. Competition will be more keen, and, however high our standard remains, we are certain to lose a large proportion of our students from other Presidencies. Our experience has shown that the advantages of technical education are not sufficiently widely recognized in this Presidency to permit of the Institute being maintained solely with recruits that come from the Bombay Presidency. It is, therefore, necessary, not only to amplify and extend our courses so that we may continue to attract students from beyond the Presidency, but that the whole system of Technical education in the Presidency shall be reorganized.

PUNJAB.

Bhawalpur State College.—There is a strong rumour that the Bhawalpur State College is about to be abolished. The College has been in exist-

ence for a quarter of a century, and its abolition will be a serious blow to the cause of education in the Bhawalpore State.

Punjab University Library.—In opening the Punjab University Library in the new building, Sir Louis Dane made a very brief speech, the main point of which was that it might be possible to amalgamate the existing Punjab Public Library with the University Library to the advantage of both, thus solving the difficulty of a suitable site for the former. The new University Library building has accommodation for twenty thousand volumes upon its shelves. Of the existing stock some 6,500 volumes constitute the Percival collection, being the gift of Professor H. M. Percival, late of the Presidency College, Calcutta, made over on the single condition that it should be maintained as a separate collection. The Library is fairly well-equipped with periodical literature, the number of periodicals taken being seventy, of which twenty-three exist in sets running from back years. Since the establishment of the Library in 1907 books worth nearly Rs. 35,000 have been purchased with funds provided by recurring grant from the Imperial Treasury.

The Punjab University.—The proposal of the Punjab University Syndicate to require the Matriculation candidates to pass separately in History and Geography now regarded as one subject has been negatived in the Senate by a majority of seven, after a long discussion.

MYSORE.

Education in Mysore.—The Educational Committee of the Mysore Economic Conference has been entrusted with the task of considering the following subjects: the spread of education among the backward classes, the extension of primary and technical education, the practicability of introducing compulsory education in selected areas, the enlistment of private agency and funds for education work and the establishment of a local University. At the meeting of the Mysore Representative Assembly held in October last, all of these subjects were brought forward for discussion and the reply of Government to most of them was that they were under the consideration of the Economic Conference or would be referred for their consideration. The Conference, it is clear, has therefore been empowered to go thoroughly into these important questions and suggest suitable recommendations to Government—a duty on the proper and satisfactory discharge of which depends, in a considerable degree, the future progress of education in Mysore. More than one member of the Representative Assembly urged on the Government, at the last meeting, the desirability of introducing compulsory free primary education, first in the district head-quarter towns

and then gradually in backward Taluqs and in villages, to be ultimately extended throughout the State if found beneficial. The Dewan stated that the subject was being considered by the Economic Conference. The results of the deliberations of this body on this subject have not yet been made public, but we may point out that the latest report of the Director of Public Instruction in Mysore and the review of the Government thereon furnish ample grounds for the Conference to take up this matter quite seriously and recommend the introduction of free and compulsory elementary education in the State, much in the same way as has been done, with such singular success, in Baroda. The statistics of the Department show that the number of public institutions increased from 2,416 to 2,460 in 1910-11 and their strength from 113,785 to 115,249, while the number of private institutions decreased from 1,876 to 1,807 and their strength from 23,944 to 22,904. This means a decrease by 25 in the total number of institutions and an increase in strength by 424. "It is a matter for regret," says the Government "that the number and strength of private institutions are gradually declining. These schools are of great importance and serve a very useful purpose in the spread of primary education in the State. It behoves the Education and Revenue Departments to do all in their power to encourage the growth of these institutions." This result has evidently been due to the paucity of funds at the disposal of the Managers of these schools and the illiberal grants-in-aid made by Government. We notice that this subject was brought up at the Assembly, where it was represented that the village schools did not possess trained teachers and that the grant they got was very small. It was recommended that the rate of grant should be increased in the case of those schools which engaged passed candidates who had received training in the Lower Secondary training class, and that the grants to aided schools should be increased. The Government stated in reply that the revision of the grant-in-aid was under consideration. It is to be hoped that the revised scale of grant-in-aid will be such as will encourage Managers not only to engage trained teachers, but to introduce such improvements in the schools as will give a rural bias to the instruction imparted therein and to initiate such experiments in school work and method as suggest themselves to them. That the Government realise fully the value of these private schools to educational progress—unlike the policy occasionally pursued in a sister Native State and in this Presidency—is full of augury to the spread of elementary education. But, after all, the remedy can only be a partial one, when the degree of prevailing illiteracy is taken into consideration. According to the report, the number of public Primary Schools for boys increased from 1,845 to 1,866 and their strength from 64,920 to 64,956. But there was a decrease in the total number of boys in the primary stage owing to a fall in the number and strength of private institutions. The number of boys in the primary stage of instruction fell from 98,811 to 96,974, and the percentage of boys of

school-going age in the primary stage, during the last three years has been going down gradually, the percentages being 24.9, 23.8 and 23.5 respectively. When the subject of education has been engrossing so much attention of late in British India, it would not do well for a Native State like Mysore to lag behind as it is doing in respect of a primary duty as the spread of elementary education, especially when there are more facilities for a Native State than for the British Government to embark on reforms and improvements the utility and importance of which are undisputed, and when another Native State has shown how this could be done with splendid results. It is satisfactory to know, however, that the Mysore Government are themselves not satisfied with the existing condition of things. "These figures" (quoted above) they admit, "are not very encouraging. The question of the expansion of primary education is under the consideration of the Government. A Committee has also been appointed to revise the curricula of studies in Primary Schools. This subject is also engaging the attention of the Education Committee of the Economic Conference. Government trust that at no distant date it will be possible to devise a plan for the expansion of primary education and to place such education on a sound and satisfactory basis." There would appear to be much importance paid by Government on the recommendations made by the Economic Conference. It behoves the latter, therefore, to boldly propose measures for the introduction of a system of free and compulsory elementary education in the State of Mysore and thus take timely steps to arrest the decline which has unfortunately set in. Secondary education in the State showed some improvement during the year, the number of scholars having increased from 14,294 to 14,772. An appreciable increase also took place in the number of those in Colleges, the figures being, for the last two years 391 and 438 respectively. Proposals are understood to be under the consideration of Government to place Secondary and Collegiate education in the State on a more substantial basis. Not much progress is to be seen in the matter of industrial education in the State which, the Government admit, has not reached a satisfactory stage. We understand from the review of Government that the Committee appointed in 1909-10 for considering the question of the improvement of industrial education has prepared a preliminary report and expects to be able to send up the final report at an early date.—*The Hindu*.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Government Scholars in Europe.—The following revised Rules have been issued for Indian Government Sanskrit and Arabic scholars in Europe.

The Secretary of State considers it desirable that all Government scholars should avail themselves of the information and advice which the Educational Adviser to Indian students is in a position to give them, and these rules are framed with that end in view. Government scholars,

equally with private students, may consult the Educational Adviser upon any question, and will receive from him all possible assistance, and the Secretary of State hopes that they will communicate with the Educational Adviser, not only on the occasions when they are directed so to do in these rules, but also in any circumstances of difficulty, and whenever they desire advice or information. Scholars will be regarded as being under the supervision and charge of the Educational Adviser, to whom they should, in all cases, address any communications they may have to make, and to whom also all reports or other communications having reference to scholars should be sent. The Educational Adviser will bring to the notice of the Secretary of State on behalf of any scholar any question requiring his decision, and will communicate to the scholar the orders passed by the Secretary of State.

2. Every scholar should, on reaching England, at once call upon the Educational Adviser and report his arrival in writing. He should leave his address with the Educational Adviser and intimate to him from time to time all changes therein.

3. Every scholar should, without unnecessary delay, inform the Educational Adviser to which University he intends to proceed, and should at once take steps to enter himself at the college he has finally selected with his approval.

4. Every scholar must, within four weeks of reaching England, submit to the Educational Adviser, for the approval of the Secretary of State, a statement showing the general course of study he proposes to follow; and the course approved must not be changed without the sanction of the Secretary of State.

5. Every scholar must, at the end of each term of residence at a University, submit to the Educational Adviser a certificate from the proper College or University authority, showing that his residence, conduct, and progress in study have been satisfactory during the term.

6. Every scholar must at all times obey such instructions as he may receive from the Secretary of State, either directly or through the Educational Adviser.

7. Subject to a due compliance with the above conditions, the allowance at the rate of £150 a year for two years will be paid quarterly, in advance, by the India Office, commencing from the date of the scholar's reporting his arrival in England. The first payment will be £37 10s. Three months after the date of reporting arrival the amount to the ensuing official quarter day will be paid. Subsequent payments will be made in advance, on or after each official quarter day. The allowance will be reduced by the amount of any other sum which may become payable to him out of the revenues of India in respect of residence at a University or College, during the same period or any part of it, and also by the amount of any University or College bills, of which payment is made by the India Office.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Munificent gift to London University.—£100,000 for the British Museum site.—A friend of London University, who desires to remain anonymous for the present, has offered to Lord Haldane, the Chairman of the Royal Commission on University Education in London, a contribution of £100,000 towards the acquisition of the vacant site on the Duke of Bedford's estate north of the British Museum.

Lord Haldane is the Government representative on the body of trustees appointed for the purpose of the scheme, and the other trustees are Lord Milner, who represents the Royal Commission, Lord Rosebery (the Chancellor and representative of London University), and Sir Francis Trippel.

The donor, who has already done a great deal for University education, states that he considers the site the most central and suitable one for the contemplated erection of new headquarters, and holds that the University of London ought to be the chief educational institution of the Empire.

A School of Oriental languages.—The proposal to use the London Institution.—For some time past the future of the London Institution has been under consideration by the Board of the Institution, and negotiations with the Government have been in progress with a view to the formulation of a scheme whereby the Institution might be utilized as a school of Oriental languages. These negotiations have now reached a point at which the Board feel justified in submitting to the proprietors a scheme which has received the approval of the Government. At a meeting of the Board held on February 1, it was resolved unanimously to issue a circular to the Proprietors which contains the following proposals:—

(a) To establish a School of Oriental Languages at the London Institution.

(b) To provide by grants from Government (say) £20,000 to £25,000 for repairs, improvements, and additional buildings. To provide also an annual income towards which the Government have agreed to contribute £4,000 a year.

(c) The new School to be established by Royal Charter and controlled by a new Governing Body.

(d) To transfer to the new Governing Body or to the Government for the use of the New Governing Body (i) the freehold property of the Institution, (ii) the Library, except as mentioned in (l) below and (iii) all other property and effects of the Institution with the exception of the funds belonging to the Institution and at present invested in Consols.

(e) To reserve for the exclusive use of the Continuing Members, as described below, a Reading Room and a Smoking Room. The Continuing Members will also have the joint use, in accordance with arrangements to be made with the new

Governing Body, of the Reference Library and Theatre and of the Committee-room and lavatory accommodation.

(f) Continuing Members are those present Proprietors of the London Institution who continue to pay their subscriptions of £2 2s. as heretofore, out of which provision will be made for lectures and periodical literature, and for attendance, heating, lighting and cleaning of the rooms allocated to their separate use.

(g) Continuing Members will continue to have the rights set out in (e) above, so long as an annual income of at least £170 is available for the services set out in (f) above. (This sum is the least on which the services set out in (f) above can be provided.) When the annual income available for these services falls below £170, the rights of the remaining Continuing Members will cease. Existing Life Members will have the same rights as Continuing Members.

(h) Out of the funds of the Institution invested in Consols, and a grant to be made by the Government, the existing liabilities will be paid off, adequate provision will be made for the existing staff, and compensation to the Proprietors at the rate of £25 a share will be paid for the extinguishment of their proprietary rights after the passing of the necessary Act of Parliament.

(i) The sum of £770 Consols, part of the invested funds of the Institution held in redemption of the annual subscriptions on eleven shares, will be paid to the existing holders of those shares.

(k) Arrangements will be made for the future administration of the Travers Trust Fund.

(l) The Board propose to transfer to the Guildhall Library and the British Museum certain rare and valuable printed books and manuscripts from the reference library, but the remainder of the books, which include a number of Oriental works, will be transferred to the new Governing Body.

(m) The existing Circulating Library will be discontinued.

Empire Universities.—Early in July a Congress will be held in London which bids fair to prove notable in the history of English education. From fifty-two Universities of the British Empire representatives are to meet for the discussion of many of the problems now engaging their attention and for that interchange of views which may lead to their satisfactory solution. All the Indian Universities will be represented at the Congress.

It is not the first time that the idea has endeavoured to find expression. In 1903 Sir Gilbert Parker organised a Conference of allied Colonial Universities, whilst in 1907, an Imperial Conference on Education in the widest sense from Universities downwards, called by the League of the Empire took place at Caxton Hall. The former was attended by representatives of all the great Universities

of the United Kingdom as well as by many from the Universities of Canada, South Africa, and Australia. Mr. Balfour, Mr. Bryce, Lord Haldane (then Mr. Haldane), and many representatives of the Government of that day, as well as of the Opposition, addressed the conference, the keynote of all the speeches being the need for corporation, and even for federation. The Conference, however, met for one day only, and was thus unable to deal adequately with the numerous problems which, even at that time, called for solution; but the coming Congress, meeting, as it will for four days, will have ample opportunity of advancing materially the many questions which are to engage its attention.

Nor are the labours of the representatives to be limited to the four days over which the Congress will extend. The members are to travel in one another's company for the better part of a month visiting the various Universities of Great Britain and Ireland and noting to what extent they differ from those of which they are the representatives. Their attention will be directed further to the points of difference between English and Continental seats of learning the relative merits of both being carefully studied. They may probably come to no definite conclusion as to whether the individual and autonomous character of our Home Universities is to be preferred to the uniform and centralised government of foreign Universities, but the contrast will be instructive to them and of advantage to their own Universities when they return to them. Incidentally, too, they will see the marked differences which exist at the numerous English Universities, the outcome, as a rule of particular environment. Oxford and Leeds, Cambridge and Manchester, will each furnish valuable lessons, despite the fact that they differ so widely from each other.

The Congress will be in the highest degree representative. The General London Committee consists of distinguished persons representing the Universities, the Empire, and London. It includes the Chancellors of the Universities of the United Kingdom, the High Commissioners of the Dominions, the Prime Minister, the Leader of the Opposition, and other members of the present and late Governments, the Lord Mayor, and the Chairman of the London County Council. His Royal Highness Prince Arthur of Connaught has consented to be President of this committee.

In the choice of subjects, much wise discrimination has been displayed. Topics of a nature purely

local to particular Universities have been rigidly excluded as have been those which, though full of interest, are not yet ripe for discussion. Only problems which are common to the majority of the Universities, or which lend themselves, if solved, to some practical issue, have been included.

At one end of University life there is Matriculation, at the other the advanced work following upon a University career. Now, although the question of Matriculation primarily interests secondary schools, it is not without importance to the Universities themselves, seeing that the differences in their qualifying examinations frequently have a distinct bearing upon the selection by students of the Universities they proposed to attend. How far these examinations may be brought into line will therefore rightly form one of the subjects with which the Congress will deal. The question of the interchange of teachers has a distinct bearing upon advanced work, and will therefore also engage the attention of the Congress. No single University, it is urged, can possibly make provision for advanced work in all subjects. Some degree of specialisation in teaching and research is a feature of every vigorous institution, and many students are therefore attracted to certain Universities where they may learn at the feet of some renowned professor the subjects in which they are particularly interested.

Now though modern travel has made many things possible, there are still numerous cases where migration from a University, after the usual degree has been taken, for the purpose of engaging in advanced work, is not possible hence a remedy suggested itself in a scheme for the interchange of distinguished teachers, especially in such subjects as International Law, the History of the Empire, Economics, and Art, for there is hardly a permanent demand at any but the largest Universities. Some scheme of peripatetic professorships in fact, might well be arranged by which a professor might teach alternately at home and in the Colonies for specified periods. The question of the University Extension and the extent to which the laudable ambition of wage-earners in the field of education can be met and encouraged are other important subjects which the Congress will deal.

The establishment of a central University bureau will be an absorbing topic of discussion. There is so much to commend the idea, and there are so many possibilities underlying it that much careful consideration will unquestionably be given to it.

The Educational Review.

It is a baseless dogma which is frequently propounded in certain quarters that "industries must first be developed and technical education should then be provided to suit the needs of these industries." The industrial development of the little province of Wurtemberg in Germany gives the lie direct to this dogmatic assertion. The duchy of Wurtemberg was a few decades ago a purely agricultural country, but the Government under the guidance of a far-seeing Minister of Education bestirred itself to improve the economical condition of the province. Astonishingly heavy investment was made on industrial education. Though on the whole a poor hilly country with very poor transportation facilities, it has, besides its splendid system of elementary and secondary schools, about 250 industrial schools in its towns and villages, one knitting school, three weaving schools, two industrial workshops for actual practice in weaving, two technical schools for textile and mechanical work, a large State university, a technical university, a royal building-trades school, a great commercial college, several commercial improvement schools, a great agricultural school, many farming schools, an art trade school for industrial art, a pure art school and many miscellaneous schools of all kinds for workmen of various grades, evening schools, continuation schools, etc., including schools in domestic economy for women. Until some investment of this kind has been made in at least one of the provinces of India, let no one dogmatise about the impossibility of regenerating India through industrial education. Have we any industrial

school worthy of the name all over India? In one of the industrial schools in Munich are equipment and workshops in the following: electric motive power; electric lighting; locksmith and machine-forging; book-printing and lithography; cabinet-making; stucco work; carving; chain making; metal work; plumbing fittings; tinsmith work, and photography. Can it be denied that there are openings along these lines of work in the presidency of Madras? But what has the Director of Industries, who talks big on all occasions about the achievements of his department, done to improve the condition of this province in these directions?

The evolution of Germany as an industrial nation of the first rank has virtually come about in our own day and generation. It has all been brought about by the heavy investment made in industrial education. The soil of Germany is not naturally rich, but her industrial schools are. Nearly every small village has at least one industrial school, and often in small cities several are found. A city system of industrial education, such as that of Munich, covers the courses suited to sixty-seven trades, while that of Berlin provides for two hundred and twenty-three trades. And this education is not only technical, but also includes the hygiene, the civics and the law that concern every workman as a man and a citizen. It may be pointed out that Germany learned industrial processes from Great Britain and borrowed the idea of industrial schools from France and Switzerland. On the basis, primarily of evening drawing schools, she built up her education of the artisan. Without abandoning the apprenticeship system, Germany met the new conditions necessitated by the decrease of training offered in the

trades by increasing the training offered by the State. It may be said that to-day throughout the length and breadth of the German Empire the State offers all the technical instruction supplementary to the trade, needed in all vocations. Every apprentice, boy or girl, from fourteen years of age, undergoes throughout the period of his or her apprenticeship training for from six to eleven hours a week in schools under the direction of the State, and the certificates are issued according to State standards by the State.

Everywhere in Europe industrial education is regarded as an essential factor in industrial efficiency. To develop a new industry or to revive one that is languishing schools for the training in that industry are established. The Swiss make the most perfect watches, and the oldest technical trade school is said to be the school for watch-making of Geneva. German chemical industries lead the world, because Germany has over six thousand school-trained chemists in her chemical industries. The industrial rehabilitation of Italy is due to the establishment of technical schools, for the soap industry, for the paper industry in Milan, for the textile industry at Prato, for the art industries at Rome, Florence, Venice and Milan, for mechanic arts in every important town. In all countries technical instruction is considered indispensable both to the artisan and the industrial expert. But is there one institution in all India which can stand comparison with even the smallest of the trade schools of Germany? Educated public opinion, as represented by the National Congress and the National Industrial Conference, is practically unanimous in holding that industrial education alone would form the best guarantee for the industrial effi-

ciency of India but the Government has not given due attention to this demand.

A Conference was recently held in Madras Religious and under the auspices of the moral education. Government to discuss the subject of imparting religious and moral instruction in our schools. The results of this Conference have not yet been made public. But we understand that an attempt by some members of the Conference to have a special conscience clause introduced into the code has proved fruitless. This is unfortunate. Religion is more a matter of feeling than of teaching. Consequently all religious instruction becomes dogmatic in opposition to instruction in other subjects which is scientific or tending to become scientific. Nothing of any value is likely to result from dogmatic instruction. As regards moral instruction it is at least uncertain whether any good will result from the teaching of morals in a formal way, until the pupil is old enough to discuss the details freely with the teacher. Hence, formal morals seem hardly a proper subject for the elementary, or the secondary, school. Such virtues, as honesty, truth, industry, frugality, generosity, which one must practice if one expects to prosper, or make the most of himself, or gain the regard of one's fellows in school, or in business, or in any other relation of life, are observed in all good homes and upheld in all civilised life. Though they have not been taught by formal courses and at stated hours, they are always being taught in all schools more effectively by example. A teacher may tolerate a failure in history or mathematics, but will not tolerate a failure in respect for his office or in conduct which is necessary for the discipline of the school. So good behaviour is taught in every thing

that is done and through every hour of the day. In this connection we would call the attention of teachers to what Dr. Draper, Commissioner of Education, United States, has written in his Report for 1911 on this subject :

"With the quite apparent disposition of parents to transfer a good share of their own moral responsibility concerning their children to the teachers, there is a somewhat surprising willingness of teachers to accept the burden. Probably it would be more exact to say that the *educationists* are accepting it for the teachers without consulting them.

"At the best, the burden of the teachers in the day-schools is heavy enough without giving them the load which the father and mother, and the family physician and the sanitary engineer, and the minister, and the Sunday school teacher, ought to shoulder. It may be well to suggest, also, that there are some things about the physiological and moral evolution of the child, and in the relations of the sexes, to which teachers are not adapted, which the schools ought to refuse, and which if the teachers are disposed to assume, the parents ought to say are none of their business. If every responsibility concerning the child is to be placed upon, and assumed by, the teachers, as the pedagogical experts, bundled together, are urging upon us, then the schools ought to have the children all the time, night and day, and until they are grown; ought to wash and comb and dress and feed them; ought to have a department store and divers kinds of physicians and trained nurses to meet their physical needs; ought to keep them from the worldly pleasure of thumping their fellows and being thumped; ought to maintain a complete corps of ecclesiastics to provide them with discriminating theological prescriptions;

and ought to anticipate and determine for them everything that there is any probability of their having to settle in all their lives. Of course, in the end, there would be a lot of weaklings without physical, intellectual, or moral substance enough to hold their own, much less without strength to add anything to American life."

The results Dr. Draper prophesies are already with us as the effect of the influence of priestcraft and religion on us. The secular school is slowly producing changes for the better. The compulsory teaching of religion and formal morals in our schools will only tend to produce deleterious results.

The establishment of teaching universities in India and the gradual conversion of the existing federal universities into teaching ones will produce far-reaching results. Our present federal Universities were established with a view to supply educated labour for the civil administration of the country. The following concluding sentences of a summary of the Educational Despatch of 1854 given in a Parliamentary Blue Book of 1870 clearly outline the object for which the present Indian Universities were established :

"To complete the system in each presidency, a university is to be established on the model of the London University, at each of the three presidency towns. These universities are not to be themselves places of education, but they are to test the value of the education given elsewhere; they are to pass every student of ordinary ability who has fairly profited by the curriculum of school and college study which he has passed through, the standard required being such as to command respect without discouraging the

efforts of deserving students. Education is to be aided and supported by the principal officials in every district and is to receive, besides, the direct encouragement of the State by the opening of Government appointments to those who have received a good education, irrespective of the place or manner in which it may have been acquired; and in the lower situations, by preferring a man who can read and write, and is equally eligible in other respects, to one who cannot."

In their very nature true teaching universities can have no direct connection with the furnishing of educated labour for the administration of a country. The primary aim of a teaching university is not the imparting of knowledge, but the creation of new knowledge by means of original work and investigation. As Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan has said, "a University is not primarily a place, or a ground of buildings, or a board of examiners. A University is first of all a corporate body of men associated together for a definite purpose, and united by a common aim—a University is, or should be a guild of learners. I do not say a guild of so-called learned folk. I trust there will be learned folk in our guild, but though learned men and wise men and men of character help to make a University, they do not constitute the University, which as a guild of learners is founded on a broader basis. Nor do the teachers constitute a University, though they too help to make a University of the first rank. The learners constitute the University and when the teachers cease to be learners, they ought also to cease to be teachers. If then the University as a corporate body is a guild of learners, and its buildings a temple of learning, all should be welcome in the University who desire to learn, and who have given adequate breadth of

previous education and the requisite ability to learn at the relatively high level which ought to characterise University work. That is the real and the only value of the Matriculation test. Each stage of a degree should guarantee not only a higher level of attainment, but also a further ability to learn and utilise what has already been learnt. A University is a guild of learners united together in a corporation in which all sources of knowledge and all aids to learning should be accessible to all comers without distinction of creed and country, riches or poverty. But the University is not and cannot be a place for all, it must be a place for the selected few, those only who are capable and willing to do University work. What we shall have to secure is that there shall be equal opportunities for all, without distinction of riches or poverty."

Such universities are not new to India. The famous seats of learning of the Buddhists during the Middle Ages, such as Nālanda, Vallabhi, Odāntapuri and Vikramacilā, were such universities in their own way. We hope that the new educational policy of the Government will soon bear its fruit.

From the point of view of the educationist Education and the experiments recently electricity. conducted by Dr. Svante Arrhenius of Stockholm to test the effect of electricity on the growth of human organisms are highly interesting. Two groups of fifty children, roughly corresponding in age, health, weight, height and intelligence, were chosen from among the pupils of the Swedish communal schools. One of these groups of fifty children was set to work in a room which was fitted with an electric installation which passed high currents into the atmosphere from wires in the walls, floor, and

ceiling. The other group was set to work in an ordinary class-room. Neither group of children or teachers were aware that the experiment was being made. At the end of six months the children who had lived in the electrified atmosphere were found to have grown on an average three quarters of an inch more than the other group in height. Their intelligence had also increased in the most marked manner, and they completely out-classed the non-electrified children in a competitive examination. The electrified teachers declared that their own powers of resistance to fatigue had been increased by the treatment. We wait for further information as to the lasting effects of this remarkable treatment, a treatment which is not unlikely to play no small part in the amelioration of the human race.

When this examination was instituted, it was welcomed on all hands with great joy. It is now two years since its inception, and we must say that it has in no way removed the defects of the Matriculation examination. At least in this examination there is a definite standard but for the other there seems to be no standard at all. Consider, for example, the questions set in optional physics and chemistry at the last examination. The standard is nearly that of the Intermediate in the written test, and in the practical test much higher than that of the Intermediate. From an examination of the papers one is inclined to ask whether the examiners have had any teaching experience. Further the questions in the practical examination are not all of the same standard, nor was there any option given. Not infrequently though the examination may be difficult, the declared results appear to be fair. This does not prove

that the boys had secured good marks, but only indicates that the marks have somehow been cooked up to show fair results. Either the marks are all raised in a certain proportion or a definite number of marks is given to each candidate to raise the average of marks secured. For the good of all concerned, the pupils, the teachers and the examiners it is absolutely necessary to lay down a definite standard.

In 1910-11 the number of public institutions in Mysore increased from 2416 to 2460 and their strength from 143,785 to 115,249, while the number of private institutions decreased from 1876 to 1807 and their strength from 23944 to 22904. Thus the total number of educational institutions decreased during the year 1910-11 by 25, but their strength increased by 424. The percentage of boys under instruction to the total male population of school-going age fell from 28.06 to 27.9, while the percentage of female pupils to the female population of school-going age rose from 5.4 to 5.6. These variations are too small to call for any special remarks. But it may be regarded a matter for regret that the number and strength of private institutions is gradually declining. The expenditure on public instruction increased from Rs. 1,838,091 to Rs. 1,879,133. Of this amount Rs. 1,181,333 was met from State revenue.

The number of public primary schools for boys increased from 1845 to 1866 and their strength from 64920 to 64956. But owing to the decrease in the number and strength of private institutions which are mostly primary schools there was on the whole a decrease in the total number of boys in the primary stage. The number of boys in the primary stage of

instruction fell from 98·341 to 96·974. The percentage of boys in the primary stage to the total school-going population was 23·5. These figures cannot be regarded as very encouraging. The question of the expansion of primary education is occupying the attention of the Government as well as the Education Committee of the Economic Conference. Government trust that at no distant date it will be possible to devise a plan for the expansion of primary education and to place such education on a sound and satisfactory basis.

Though the number of industrial schools fell from 21 to 20, the attendance increased

from 1230 to 1234. The Committee which was appointed in 1909-10 for the improvement of industrial education has prepared a preliminary report and expects to be able to submit their final report for the consideration of the Government at an early date. The number of schools for girls increased from 283 to 294. The total number of girls in all the schools of the State increased from 21886 to 22964 and the percentage of girls under instruction to the female population of the school-going age rose from 5·4 to 5·6 as already noted. The expenditure on girls' schools alone during the year under review was Rs. 2,31,983.

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COSMIC CYCLES.

(Continued from page 152.)

AN attempt to formulate such a theory has been made by two great American astronomers, Messrs. Chamberlain and Moulton, the authors of another kind of nebular hypothesis, called the *Planetesimal Hypothesis*. Unlike its predecessor, it seems not only to be applicable, under the present conditions of knowledge, to the system of which our earth is a member, but also to include in its comprehensive sweep the evolution of the stellar systems as well.

Among the nebulae scattered about in great profusion in the various parts of the sky those of the *spiral type* seem to be predominant in number. One of their chief characteristics is that they exhibit no very remarkable powers of attraction and hence it is believed that they are composed of solid matter in a finely divided condition. In the typical spiral nebula we have a central nucleus with two main arms branching out in opposite parts of it. On these arms or near these there are huge knots; and the whole system—nucleus, arms and knots—is enveloped in a haze of nebulosity. The inferences from this are evident. The central nucleus would in time become the head-centre of a system, of which the knots on the

arms would be the planets. In time the finely divided matter of the nebulous envelope would be absorbed by the central sun and the planets which would thereby grow by accretion and increase in definition. The planetesimal hypothesis states that our solar system was evolved out of a nebula of the spiral type.

But then, one would very much like to understand how this kind of nebula itself comes into existence, or in other words, from what kind of previous existence it has evolved its present form.

For a thorough grasp of the explanation of this stage in the history of the spiral nebula, it may be useful to understand the main principle of one of the most fascinating chapters in the development of Astronomical Science, the theory of *tidal evolution* of Sir Charles Darwin. The principle is applicable to wherever the force of gravitation extends its sway. But we shall take the Earth-Moon system as a particular example. The attraction of the moon on the nearest portions of the earth is greater than on the centre, and that on the centre greater than on that part which is farthest away from the moon. This results in the heaping up of the more pliable part of the terrestrial mass, the water of the ocean, towards the moon on the

nearest part and away from it on the farthest. It must not however be forgotten that the solid and more rigid portions of the earth also undergo a similar though less marked a deformation. The theory further goes on to say that the interaction between a planet and its satellite and the resistance of the medium in which they are revolving finally bring about a union between the two, and the planet itself thus augmented will, by the same process, fall into and become one with the sun which swings it round.

Now let us be back to our enquiry regarding the genesis of the spiral nebula. There is every reason to believe that the bright stars that are scattered about in countless numbers are huge suns with a good deal of what is called "*explosive elasticity*" in them. We have ample evidence of such a kind of activity in our sun even at the present stage of its life in the enormous tongues of incandescent matter shot forth with tremendous velocity from within the central mass. As a result of the forces swaying the myriad orbs of the sky it is highly probable for one star to approach another to effective proximity. The attraction of one on the other serves to liberate this explosive elasticity we have just referred to by neutralising to a certain extent the intensity of gravitation, which results in a loosening of the ties that hold the mass together. [The action of course is mutual, but for simplicity let us confine ourselves to one of them.] The tide-producing force of the visitor causes two heaps of matter to be belched forth from the disturbed host, one on each side of the diameter in the line of attraction, giving rise to the two arms of the spiral. Almost synchronous with this also is the formation of the knotty nuclei on these arms due to the

highly irregular nature of the disturbing forces; while the high temperature liberated in the shock scatters the finely-divided portion of the disturbed star to form an envelope round the core. The rotatory motion of the sub-nuclei can be easily explained by the inequality of the forces that shot them forth. The arms that have sprung up are curved by the attraction of the passing visitor thus giving rise to the characteristic spiral shape. The sub-nuclei, as we have already said, would in time grow into planets by capturing and absorbing into themselves smaller lumps and fragments—the *planete-simals* that have given the theory the name—and revolve in orbits determined by the interaction of the various forces at work.

If then we suppose that our solar system arose out of an accident that happened to our ancestral sun in the distant past, all the known irregularities in the motions of the planets and their satellites may reasonably be accounted for. The known differences in the temperature, size and mass, density, the anomalous character of the motions of the satellites of Saturn and Jupiter, in short, all that have conspired against the soundness of the Laplacian ring-theory find in the spiral-nebula-hypothesis a satisfactory explanation.

So in our quest to understand the past history of the present for some ray of hope to lift us out of the gloom of darkness and death that, beginning at some future time, threaten to envelop the cosmos to all eternity, we have pitched upon a theory that promises to curtail the thread of time which connects the present with that sad calamity of the future. For, the suns left to themselves might take a long time to cool down to that unwelcome stage, but cut up into fragments

by approaching each other, the sooner will they be quenched into darkness, unless this interval is prolonged for a time by the coalescence of the separated parts by the tidal action already described.

While reason thus points along the road to cosmic deterioration, instinct bids up hope. Somehow we must feel our way through this tangle of hope and despair. Another great philosopher in the person of Prof. Bickerton opens up a way for us.

Any person with an ordinary degree of intelligence can understand the principle of the conservation of energy. Energy can never be destroyed absolutely. The heat energy in the steam engine appears transformed as motion; arrested motion manifests itself mostly as heat. Rub your hands together and you feel the warmth. Many a time and often has every one of us perhaps witnessed the phenomenon of meteors. It is due to comparatively small masses of matter rushing through space and encountering our terrestrial atmosphere. The friction of the atmosphere is so great on account of the great velocity of their career that they are heated up to the extent of being converted into gas to be whisked away before our wondering eyes in a flare of light. Some of the phenomena of irregularly variable stars are explained as due to the heat-energy produced by a series of collisions of dark bodies together with which many of those stars appear enclosed in nebulae.

This phenomenon is often magnified in the encounter of dead suns. Bright ones also are often involved, but the ultimate results are similar. Two suns colliding with terrific speed give rise to an enormous mass of gaseous material surrounding a central more solid nucleus, "the germ of a future sun," and an

organised system of planets. But collisions are "rarely centre to centre." The majority of cases are of grazing suns. That such things do happen has been established beyond doubt, and about a dozen agencies are at work to bring them about.

If two suns graze only slightly, the main bodies pass each other by with their speeds slightly retarded. But the parts that have collided or grazed are raised in temperature. The consequent inequality of the surface temperature gives rise to the phenomenon of one class of variable stars, the different parts of each star passing before our eyes in turn as it rotates accounting for the variations in its brightness. In cases in which the contact is so close as to plough deep valleys in the pair, their rashness is not easily forgiven. Their speeds are greatly retarded; they are imprisoned in each other's pull and revolve round their centre of gravity as a double star. Then again, the whole force of the blow is not thus spent in the mere raising of the temperature of the colliding masses; a piece is torn off from the body of each and the two pieces welded together into an intensely heated third body in a loose condition, in which the molecules rush in various directions with enormous velocities. The lightest particles fly the swiftest. Their speed augmented greatly by the *pressure of light* often carries them beyond the effective reach of the gravitational attraction of the system to which they belong. [That such particles are drawn off from the main masses is exemplified even in the case of our sun. The tails of comets flying away from the sun are due to the extremely thin parts of the comets being driven off by the electrical repulsion and the pressure of light from that luminary.] On their way, the swift flying gases, with their decreasing

energy fed up by the heat of the particles of dust pervading all space which have already absorbed it from the radiation from hot suns, collect together in the comparatively empty parts of space, those inter-systemic parts, where, equally removed from the interference of the surrounding systems, the speed of the flying particles is reduced to a minimum. In these places of 'highest potential' nebulous aggregations of light gas are formed. Other vagrant molecules projected from the old cosmic systems are entrapped in the nebulae so formed, which gaining material and condensing round nuclei develop suns.

Returning to the heavier portion of the third body formed by the impact of colliding suns, it collects together, blazing forth as a temporary star to live out its own life. We have got instances of this in what are called *Novæ*. The encounter we have been describing may take place between suns in all stages of their lives—hot suns both, one hot and the other dead, or both of them dark ones. Thus while the run-down star clocks of the older cosmic systems are wound up by the regenerative influence of collisions among them, new nebulae and suns are formed in the inter-systemic spaces by the dissociative and concentrating energies that together control the laws of cosmic mechanism. The ultimate levelling down of all available energy to a dead uniformity is thus prevented and the differentiation in the temperature of the myriad components of the universe maintained.

So from suns to nebulae and nebulae back to suns, with every phase of "birth, active life, decay and death," in ever repeated cycles, we may hope to have "the thread of life straightened out into all eternity."

We have many examples of such eternal cycles even in our every day experience—the regularly returning seasons of the year, the cycles in the organic world of plant and animal life. This is only illustrated in a much grander scale in the lives of the worlds that lie scattered about in space.

The maintenance of a lifeful universe to all time is thus based upon *change*. If there is anything constant in nature, it is change. The greatest discovery of modern times is the principle of the conservation of energy. I would venture to call it a law of change, the principle of the conservation of cosmic changes, "progress and retrogression eventually balancing each other." From the homogeneous oneness of the hottest fire-mist to the heterogeneous complexity of life in the critical ranges of temperature, followed by a period of enertness, we have all the stages of evolution pulsating in an eternal rhythm.

The highest temperature that we can produce on the earth is about 6,000° Ft. at the focus of an electric arc. But the heat due to the powerful impact of suns is believed to raise the shattered portions of their masses even to 100,000 degrees; while on the other extreme we have the cold of the void of space at about 300° below the freezing point. Sir N. Lockyer has prepared a list of stars classified according to their temperature, in which we come across stars exhibiting high degrees reaching up to 55,000°. At such a terrific height, it is impossible for any kind of chemical affinity to assert itself and hold in bondage the components of molecules and atoms. Even at 4000°, the vibrations of the atoms of hydrogen and oxygen are so very energetic as to prevent their union to form water. If this critical temperature is passed,

water can no longer exist even as steam. Similar critical temperatures have been observed in the case of almost every element known, beyond which the mutual clash of atoms is so violent as to break them up to what is called the sub-atomic or corpuscular state. So it is the fall of temperature that evolves heterogeneous complexities from homogeneous matter and renders possible "a universe of beauty, order, rhythm and law." Organic life as manifested on this earth is impossible for states much beyond the boiling and freezing points of water. It is within this range that we have the varied panorama of life-activity in the highest degree of development. A detailed account of organic evolution is certainly beyond our scope here. But we must all feel highly grateful to the Divine Lawgiver of the Universe that our earth is now in that stage of its life which renders possible our present existence on it.

Our life, the life of mankind, the life of this earth itself is but an eye-wink in the infinitude of time. In such brief moments in the stately passage of time has the genius of a few eminent philosophers ushered man from the darkness of ignorance out into the dawn of knowledge of the workings of cosmic activity.

S. BALAKRISHNAN.

HISTORY TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

"THE old order changes." A new order of things takes its place. Man is subject to this constant change and the consequences of this change. It may be that sometimes a fresh condition of things is better than the old, when all the experiences of antecedent conditions are well weighed and they have

taught the necessary ways and means of avoiding the inconveniences, difficulties and dangers to which they were subject; or, it may be that changes are not always for the better when made under circumstances in which no profit has been derived from previous lessons of wisdom but excitement and hurry have entered into the deliberation of questions.

In the former case, everybody welcomes it. The only matter then will be how far good can be made better. In the latter case, those who hold positions of authority and influence are the best fitted to reconsider and to re-adjust affairs, while there are others who have to undergo the consequences of actions once enforced however much they may see, as a matter of actuality, the difficulties to which they are subject. For most people in ordinary positions and walks of life, it serves no useful purpose to speculate on what might have been for the better or even to submit suggestions for the consideration of the authorities who are not expected to care for humbler individuals.

The Secondary Schoolmaster may reflect in his own mind whether he is one of those included in the former or in the latter case considered above. If he believes that he belongs to the former, he has every reason to congratulate himself on his work; but, if he believes that he comes under the second category, he has to exercise the qualities of patience and hard work, doing his best to re-adjust himself to the conditions in vogue. This is not a point on which the humble writer of this article wants to pronounce an opinion of his own but is content to let the individual think and say for himself what he really feels in the matter.

The Matriculation Examination of the

University is practically gone. The School Final Scheme is in full swing. The former made a number of subjects compulsory; but, the latter allows of choice of one or more out of a certain number of subjects. Taken in the abstract, it tends to diminish the burden on the pupil by introducing a group of subjects in which class instruction is given without submitting it to the scrutiny of a public examination. But, what is the fact? Schools have come directly under the control of the Department of Public Instruction. The latitude they once had when they were merely affiliated to the University no longer exists. Specialisation in the optional subjects is demanded. This is possible only if the burden of other subjects is lessened; but, those competent to act think that the interests of general culture should in no way suffer by the neglect of or less interest in the subjects not coming within the scope of the public examination. Hence, under the very scheme which was intended to minimise heavy labour pupils are compelled to work more than they did before. Possible measures are in other hands than those of the teacher. Hence, it is for him to take note of existing conditions and obey orders in the best manner he can. It is only in the light of this principle of action that a few points are stated below.

The teacher of history in the 4th, 5th and 6th Forms of a Secondary School may have his ideals of history and history teaching; but, he ought to see that his pupils are not subjected to an undue strain by his attempt to carry out the ideal without an adequate recognition of the amount of matter in all the subjects that pupils are learning. He may believe that only the works of authors fired by imagination are the best; or, he may

believe that those writers are most well-fitted who give a series of proved facts without rhetorical or ornate style. He must be able to see in actual experience that either kind tires pupils with this difference that the former class seems to be captivating for a time but leaves no useful impression behind. There are people who are always fond of condemning text-books; but, it must be noticed that, without a text-book as the basis, the Secondary School pupil is rarely able to proceed with his lesson or to profit by it. Hence, some suitable text-books must be chosen for the forms. Their choice depends on the method that is intended to be followed.

Teachers are aware of the concentric system. The same matter is outlined first and then expanded according to the progress of the pupil. If this is done in Forms IV and V, instances of suitable text-books are within easy reach. Let us take English History, for example. Tout's Book I may be used in Form IV, and Tout's Book II in the V. Actual experience teaches that in the IV Form, the whole of Book I cannot be finished.

Certain portions must be omitted and others barely stated in a few sentences. In a work of this kind, the teacher is helped by the relief pupils find in the change from the reading of Indian history to that of English. To them, matter is well-regulated in English History Text-books unlike in those on Indian History. Further, there is pleasure in learning something altogether new. When pupils go up to the 6th Form, they have got to study only a particular period. Preparation may be made for this by doing Tout's Book II in Form V. While doing Tout's Book I in the 4th Form, the teacher may make his lesson now and then interesting by useful and impressive narrations of facts. The position of Joan

of Arc in French History may be made graphic by a description of the sufferings of the English people in the Siege of Orleans. The French were reduced to such difficulty that they were prepared to surrender to the English. At such a time, Joan of Arc came down with an army and, with her faith in the divine mission that sent her was able to relieve her countrymen; or, take the famous Siege of Calais by one of the Edwards. Here, the French were reduced to such straits that they were ready to eat anything in their way. When the English king demanded that the key should be surrendered and that the few knights bringing the key would be put to death, self-sacrificing knights offered their services and lives but were saved by the English queen's intervention. Such interesting and useful information is relished by the pupils. They are able to add it to the meagre information of the text-book. They are even willing to go further. They like to read very detailed accounts of Joan of Arc and without being able to say that they want to trace her success to the causes, unconsciously make an attempt to do so.

Treatment of matter may be a little more serious in the 5th Form, though in Book II, less important matter need not be attended to. Points of information on the Wesleyan Methodist Movement, the Puritan Revolution, &c., may be expanded with the help of larger authoritative works. Pupils may be encouraged to refer to some portions of them. When Tout's Book III is taken up in the 6th Form, for a special period, too much of detail may be omitted. Really useful matter may be sifted out of the mass of detail. Let us take the Tudor Period. After cutting down some details in Tout's Book III, the constitutional points may be expanded with the help of Taswell-Lang-

mead. Pupils may be encouraged to read only portions and hear them explained, or let us take it that Cromwell has to be studied. The information of an ordinary text-book may be expanded by the reading of Morley's work on Cromwell, only a few intelligible points must be left to pupils. The teacher that knows how much pupils have to work must be content to make other references himself for the purposes of public examination, however greatly he may long for an ideal method of procedure.

No such detail is worked out in the case of Indian History. Except for the European or the British Period, no suitable books are available as in English History; with such as are, a similar plan may be adopted where possible. What has been hitherto said relates to text-books and to the methods. But, even this forms part of a larger consideration as to the aim of history learning and teaching in schools. History trains the memory, forms the judgment and exercises the scientific spirit. Training of the memory is easily granted. Exercise of the scientific spirit of research is a matter of controversy.

With all the great progress in the handling of historical subjects, history has not yet advanced to the status of a science. It can at best only supply materials for political science. So, any thought of research is not germane to the standard and the course of a secondary school. Only some very meagre attempt may be made in the B.A. and M.A. Courses or in what may be called the Honours Course in History. With that, the Secondary School pupils are not concerned. The only matter for thought is—Is it possible, consistently with the needs of school course, to use the materials treated of in ordinary school text-books for the formation of judgment or

at least a help towards it? Merely academic discussion does not help secondary pupils. A few concrete instances are fruitful and make the pupils take a lively interest. They may be, therefore, now taken up. They do good in one way. They teach the proper duties of citizenship.

1. Immediately after the Civil Wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster, the English people began to submit to the despotism of the Tudors until it reached its climax in Elizabeth's reign and prepared the way for the first Stuart proclaiming the Divine Right of Kings.

2. The Civil War in the Stuart Period combined with Cromwell's later methods led people to long for the restoration of the royal line. These instances may be compared with the readiness and ease with which province after province in India came under British sway on account of internal wars and external invasions from which people suffered before British advent. Thus, early in life may be laid the foundation for the realisation of the principle that attempts to overthrow authority ought not to be dreamt of, under impulses of the moment.

3. A Mahomedan king compelled his queen to cook. This may be used to illustrate the case of persons who are not able to conduct themselves suitably to the positions in which they are placed. What, in the case of a poor man of a certain heredity serves as exercise, only leads to the loss of health and even of life in others.

4. Nundcomar was hanged for forgery. His execution may be pitied, but his forgery ought to be condemned. Because it is condemned, pupils ought not to be allowed to hate administration as a whole. It comes

more prominently in the case of Lord Clive; but the pupils must be pointed out in the clearest language and most impressive manner that the foundation of British rule in India has done infinitely greater good than the act of a single individual like Clive. In this connection may be read one of the closing passages in Macaulay's Essay on Clive.

5. Sivaji's life may be detailed; but, here caution is necessary. The teacher of history ought to take particular care to safeguard his own interest and that of his pupils.

6. One of the methods in the treatment of history is to go backwards from current events. It may not be possible in most cases; but there are particular examples which lend themselves at the present day. Take the case of anarchism or bomb-throwing in Lord Minto's Viceroyalty. Lord Minto is not to blame. His predecessor left him that legacy. Lord Curzon sowed the seed of discontent by his abuse of a whole community and a few exceptional people were led into methods not at all suited to any country eastern or western and especially to India. This must teach administrators to weigh well before they act. Our present sovereign annulled the most mischievous measure of Lord Curzon and has made a whole people happy. This shows how sympathy can throw oil in troubled waters. Here may be taken the instance of a foreign ruler like Canute conciliating the English people by his sympathy or of Viceroys like Lords Canning, Mayo and Ripon winning the hearts of the Indian people. These comparisons are useful in life. They create an intelligent interest in pupils. These are only a few instances chosen to illustrate a few principles.

If school-course has for its object not only the reading of a certain amount of matter in

the various subjects, but also formation of good habits, and noble qualities necessary for the discharge of citizenship later on in life, school-work may be done so as to satisfy the needs of those who look upon it as a necessity for bread-winning, and to train pupils for future citizenship.

The object of this humble contribution is not so much an exposition of method as a way of handling the subject so as to satisfy the authorities of schools, the officers of the department and those who require the fulfilment of the secondary end of education—bread and butter. This has been done in the way of showing how a re-adjustment of work is possible for the secondary school teacher of history under existing conditions in which he can do to the greatest advantage what lies in his power and carry with him the good wishes of his pupils and of all concerned with sound management of schools as necessary factors in the well-being of the individual and of the State.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

THE STUDENTS AND THE THEATRE.

IT is a fact too notorious to be denied that the patrons of the modern stage in India are the student community. It is to be deplored also that the guardians and teachers do not take a very serious view of the matter. There is a great distinction between the stage as an institution and an occasional performance. As an institution the stage may be vicious, while the occasional performance may be moral. The question, therefore is not: Shall our students read dramatic literature? For all will acknowledge they should, as such literature may be wholesome. The question is not: May they go to see a certain moral

play acted? But, shall they patronise the stage of which that moral play is only a part?

The theatre has a history: a brief summary of it in the words of Dr. Herbert Johnson will show that it is not to its credit. The learned Doctor says: "Dramatic representation had its origin among the Greeks with a troupe of Bacchanalians in rude and boisterous songs, interspersed with dances, conducted with a high degree of licentiousness, both in language and action. Then came Thespis, introducing tragedy. The stage is said to have been a cart, the chorus a troupe of itinerant singers, and the actor a sort of mimic. Subsequently Æschylus appeared, who carried the Greek drama at once to nearly its highest perfection. He was followed by Sophocles, who introduced a third, and even a fourth actor into his plays. Then came decline under Euripides, exhibiting degenerate taste and loose morality. The transition to comedy was easy, originating in the licentious sports of the villages, and popular in proportion as it was personal, abusive and low. The comedies of Aristophanes are an illustration at once of the depravity of the poet and the libertinism of the spectators. His wit was coarse and vile, a mixture of buffoonery and positive filth....Theatrical exhibitions became popular amusements among the Romans just as they lost their stern love of virtue, yielded to luxury, and grew weak and effeminate....The European stage is no exception. This grew out of the "Mysteries" of the Middle Ages—a sort of sacred drama performed by monks, in which the devil also played a conspicuous part. This was the foundation of the modern British and American stage, which has risen only to degenerate, until now many of its exhibitions outtrivial in licentiousness and filth the darkest days of the drama, even on the

confession of its friends....In China theatrical entertainments are popular, but neither there nor in Japan are women allowed to perform. It is a question whether women were ever present in the ancient theatre. It is undeniable that the actors were invariably men, and few in number; and yet these theatrical entertainments contributed to the downfall of the Grecian State. They had their origin in a corrupt state of morals, and they tended to deterioration." In India we may date its advent with the dawn of *Pouranic* age—when there was an ebb in the intellectual tide of the country, when people became less serious and more sensual or rather material, when *Vedas* and *Darshans* made room for epics and tales.

Some would argue perhaps that the theatre has vastly improved since and the institution has now become very much better than it was then. It must be admitted that efforts have been made to reform it. But have they been crowned with success? Edwin Booth declared not many years ago that he would have a moral theatre in New York, but he failed to establish it on a paying basis. Hannah More wrote moral plays, but the theatrical managers did not want them because they would not pay. If the stage has improved why then is there the official censorship?

The fact that the stage is still bad is proved by the testimony of those who are most familiar with its workings. Macready, the actor said, "None of my children shall ever, with my consent, on any pretence, enter a theatre, or have any visiting connection with actors or actresses." M. Dumas, the play-writer wrote to a friend: "You do not take your daughter to see my play. You are right. Let me say, once for all, that you must not

take your daughter to the theatre. It is not mainly the work that is immoral, it is the place." Mr. Sothern wrote in a newspaper article: "I have known some of our best performers who have found it necessary to first attend and see a play before they would allow their wives and daughters to go. Why was this necessary? Why, because they knew there was very little cleanliness in those places, and who better than they should know?" An actor passing a theatre remarked to a friend: "Behind those doors lies Sodom."

It will not be out of place to quote here testimony of a few sympathetic dramatic critics. Mr. William Winter, a famous dramatic critic, asserts that ethics on the stage would be inappropriate. Mr. A. M. Palmer, the nestor of theatre managers, writes in an article: "The chief themes of a theatre are now as they ever have been, the passions of men—ambition and jealousy, leading to murder; lust, leading to adultery and death; anger, leading to madness." Mr. Clement Scott, a distinguished theatrical critic was asked to give his views as to the effect of the stage upon a pure-minded girl who might enter the profession to make a livelihood and pursue dramatic art. And here are his words: "A woman may take a header into a whirlpool, and be miraculously saved; but then she may be drowned. I should be sorry to expose modesty to the shock of that worst kind of temptation, a frivolous disregard of womanly purity. One out of a hundred may be safe; but then she must hear things that she had better not listen to, and witness things she had better not see. . . . The stage as it is to-day is an institution which is a menace to the virtue of all who enter it."

With the friends of the theatre as witnesses, its actors and play-writers and critics,

the case is established that the stage as an institution is bad. So far as one knows there is not a theatre in the world that does not pander to depraved tastes in order to make money. The plea of the managers is that the public are to blame because they demand such plays. If this be true the public taste is depraved. It is plain, however, that the stage has done much to create the depraved taste which it feels called upon to gratify. The flood of moral filth which it pours upon our impressionable student community cannot fail to degrade them as citizens in after-life.

But why should it be so? The root-evil is in the nature of the actor's profession. Acting is injurious to character. The best acting is the worst acting. To act a part anywhere is to weaken character. Every actor is a hypocrite while on the stage; that is, he must pretend to be what he is not. He must feign emotions and passions, good and bad. I would strongly advise every student, teacher and guardian to read Dr. H. Clay Trumbull's admirable book—*Border Lines in the Field of Doubtful Practices*. I must be content here with a few lines from the chapter on theatre—"The chief and all-prevailing objection to the theatre is that the profession of an actor is in and of itself unnatural, baleful and radically and universally wrong; and because this is so, no change of controlling influences can make the institution which depends on and represents the profession an agency of substantial good, or worthy of countenance and support. On the face of it, the profession of an actor stands all by itself in demanding of its votary that his main purpose and endeavour shall be to seem what he is not, to appear something else than his real self; and herein lies the essential and irremediable evil of this profession. In his merging of his personality in simulation as a very essential of his profession, the art of the actor differs

from that of any other. There is nothing like it in the true mission or in the best work of any honest or reputable profession. There is nothing akin to it in any other approved sphere of art. A man may describe evil, or portray it in literature, in poetry, in music, in sculpture, without putting himself into the exhibit of evil, without merging his personality in another personality; but in the art of the actor he who would portray the murderer, the adulterer, the seducer, or the betrayer of a sacred trust, must, in order to be the best actor, strive to think, and feel, and speak and act as if he were himself this very evil-doer."

Some would support the stage as an educative agency. They would argue that in schools to teach orally moral principles and verbally try to inculcate moral virtues. But the stage conveys the same teaching through eyes and ears where morality is *acted* and not *taught* only as in schools. They would go so far as to give the palm to the stage in matter of moral teaching which is objectively presented to our tender and impressionable young people. They say that subjective presentation of a truth, however transcendental, noble, sublime and elevating it may be, remains an ideal only and so fails to affect the young minds; but in the stage we have the object-lesson on the same subject. They would regard the stage as complementary to the school. Hence it is not uncommon to waste energy and time on some dramatic performance by the students for the benefit of fellow-students and invited guests. This is misdirected zeal, pure and simple, worst form of literary fanaticism. There is a wide difference between the school and the stage. They have distinctive functions. The purpose of the stage is to teach men how to act a part. The purpose of the school is to teach men how to be real and serious. The purpose of the stage is to amuse; the purpose of the school

is to do. The purpose of the stage is to make money, and managers are not slow to do so, even at the expense of good morals; the purpose of the school is to make character, and good morals are not for sale at any price, or half price or reduced price on benefit nights. The stage gives what the people want, and, sad to say, the worst plays often draw the biggest crowds; the purpose of the school is to give what the people *need*, regardless of its popularity. The stage ministers to "the lust of the flesh, the lust of the eye, and the pride of life, which is not of the Father;" the purpose of the school is to renounce and crucify these things. The stage is a caterer; the school is a prophet. The stage panders; the school rebukes. The stage, in its tragedies glorifies revenge, which leads to murder; the school teaches forgiveness and the patient endurance. The tendency of the stage is to make people childish in their feverish desire for diversion; the work of the school is to make people child-like in their simplicity of character. The tendency of the stage is to keep the race in its childhood of self-gratifying amusement; the work of the school is to lead the race into the manhood of self-sacrificing achievement. The footlights are suggestive of the fact that the lower tendencies of human nature are there brought into prominence; the school would magnify the head-light and heart-light that reveal and develop the higher attributes of our being. In a word, the school is the incarnation of purity, humility, self-sacrifice and seriousness. The stage is the incarnation of lust, pride, selfishness and hypocrisy. And what God hath put asunder let no man join together.

The other day I was told by a theatre-going, theatre-loving and theatre-encouraging father that as I do not attend the theatre, I was not a competent judge, and have, therefore, no right to an opinion. One need not get drunk or tell a lie to know what

drunkenness and lying are. I have never seen sleeping-sickness, but I have a fair idea as to what it is. Indeed, people who do not go to the theatre may be better qualified to judge of its ethics than those who have habituated themselves to its atmosphere. One can live in a lazaretto until its sights, sounds and odours cease to be repulsive. The habitual theatre-goer is apt to become blunted in his finer sensibilities.

Some would, again, support the stage for the moral and religious plays exhibited there. Lecky is right when he says that the "Mystery Plays" led to the degeneration of religion, and it is equally true that the degeneration of religion led to the "Mystery Plays." Playing at marriage and divorce on the stage weakens, if it does not destroy, the sanctity of marriage, and keeps the divorce courts busy. It is one of the discouraging signs of the times to-day that religious plays are becoming popular. It proves that the religious instinct in theatre-going people is a thing to play with; and while faith, prayer and praise are feigned, it is evident that real faith, prayer and praise are lacking. I can think of nothing that would go farther toward breaking down real religion of a people than the farcical presentation of it in the theatres of the country. Portraying the sacred and holy feelings of the soul for the entertainment of a mixed audience is an incongruous proceeding; and feigning sacred and holy feelings is cant, which, on or off the stage, weakens religious character. Religious plays do not strengthen faith in real religion, and students benefited by them are as rare as Dodo in Madagascar.

Should students patronise the good? The plea that students should ally themselves with the good that is on the stage is more specious than convincing. We can not ally

ourselves with the good without also being allied with the evil, for on the stage the good and the evil are in close alliance. It would be amusing, if it were not pitiable, to see good men in alliance with the theatre spending so much time apologising for the company they are in. They admit that some plays and players are very bad, and that the theatre, as an institution is not good; but they hope that their presence with it will be salutary. I verily believe they are mistaken. A drop of pure water will not make much impression upon a goblet of ink, but a drop of ink can ruin a goblet of pure water. Unless pure water wants to be converted into ink it had better keep separate from the ink.

How to win the students? Not by argument, not by lectures but our eschewing the stage good, bad or indifferent. People will not eat God's manna, which we recommend, while they see no turning from it and gorging ourselves with the axioms of Egypt. And the only way to reform the stage is to convert it into something else. As long as it remains a theatre, it carries with it the elements of degeneracy. The play-house, if run to make money, becomes the moral pest-house by a process of natural law. Let our students cease to patronise the stage for only six months, and the majority of the theatres will be starved out.

Let me repeat, the moral quality of the theatre does not depend upon the play. That play is a part of a great institution. If we go to the theatre, we shall, very properly, be judged, not by the play that we see, but by the institution we patronise. The plays which are better than the institution, do not lift it up, but rather, the institution drags down the play to its level. The whole is stronger than any part, and the whole gives moral quality to every part. If

we desire safety and usefulness for the rising generation let us keep them away from the stage. Let us insist on them to give themselves to the things that are "pure, lovely, and of good report." If such a course be self-denial, our students will find before long that self-denial brings greater joy than indulgence. "Abstain from every form of evil" is true in all ages, for all people and in all countries.

B. K. MUKHERJI.

THE HEADMASTER IN RELATION TO HIS ASSISTANTS.

IT is an oft-quoted and well-known dictum that the headmaster of a school should have the tact and capacity to manage smoothly men, boys, and things. A consideration of men like Doctor Arnold, the famous headmaster of Rugby, leads us to think that the essentials of management are inborn in individuals. Though all are not gifted with the qualities of that famous man, yet every headmaster may aim at that excellence and endeavour to make his way smooth by attention to a few requisites.

Much or a good deal of his unhappiness could be avoided by his feeling the responsibility of his position. The headmaster should be a perfect embodiment of all that is true and noble so far as school affairs are concerned. Nobility of character is the best incentive to promote the popularity of the man. The headmaster must rise above the meanness that characterises often-times some individuals. Every man is judged only by his actions and consequently petty actions which tend to create a ludicrous feeling in the minds of people and to lower the position of the headmaster among his associates should be divorced as far as possible. Often-times a personal motive may lie at the bottom of such actions but the more such a motive is subordinated,

the greater will be the approach to the noblesse type.

The next requisite for his success is his superior knowledge. This must extend over the subjects taught in a school, the right methods of imparting instruction in them, and the general principles regarding the conduct of a school. This does not lie in the supreme confidence of his ability but in his exertions to avail himself of every opportunity to learn. Above all, the headmaster should be a man of good physique; at any rate, he should not be sickly and thus be the laughing-stock of students and others, not to speak of students' aversion to frequent the sickly headmaster. The management or authorities should take care to see that the headmaster is one who will be an ideal, physically, morally and intellectually. A teachers' association of the locality for the collection of important educational journals for the discussion of educational topics and for the promotion of the general knowledge of the members may be organised which could go a great way towards the general uplift. It is an erroneous idea to consider that united action is dangerous and that such a well-organised association may happen to prove a veritable weapon in times of necessity. Exchange of views generally opens the minds of men to their shortcomings so that a widening of their mental horizon may be expected from such an association. In spite of the efforts of the department and the inspecting officers to make such associations serve their best, it is deplorable to find many associations exist only in name and rarely meet even once during the year. If the inspecting officers call for a statement at every inspection about the number of times the associations met, the number of members present, and the educational topics discussed therein since the previous inspection, it may be hoped that the associations will become more useful and exert the necessary influence.

The next requisite for his success is confidence in his assistants. No work could be done in any walk of life if confidence and mutual trust do not exist. Now that the S. L. C. scheme has given a greater prominence to teachers than heretofore, it will be unfair for the headmaster to dominate the whole school by his authority and be an autocrat in himself. The department insists on the wider employment of trained teachers and it is an insult for them to see that their privileges are curtailed and to note that they are treated more as slaves and servants rather than as helpers and assistants. In the framing of the time-table, in the distribution of work, in the system of awarding class-marks and conducting the annual examination, in selecting books for the library, in the admission and promotion of pupils, and generally in all matters relating to the school, it is highly desirable and it will serve the headmaster's interests if the views of the assistants are taken into consideration.

Lastly the headmaster should be a healthy medium between the assistants and the management. Misrepresentation or playing upon the fancies of individuals is highly repulsive. Every endeavour should be made by the headmaster to impress on the management the necessities of the school as regards its equipment and development on modern lines and to persuade the management to bring up and foster the school in his charge.

Generally if difficulties are suppressed and avoided rather than created, if mutual sympathy be brought into play, if trivial and insignificant actions are passed over, if every situation is studied in its own true and intrinsic merits and if the consequent action is such as is adapted to the requirements, the work of the headmaster will not rest on him as an Atlasian burden and he will feel himself a right man in a right place.

A TEACHER.

SRI KRISHNA DEVA RAJA AND HIS TIMES.*

In the complicated course of Indian History nothing is so difficult as the clearing of the part occupied by Vijayanagar. In Tod's charming history of Rajasthan we have the history of the Rajputs and in Duff the warlike history of the Mahrattas. But for a comprehensive study of Vijayanagar, we have a number of inscriptions and grants to guide us through obscurities and help us to weave a story without being entirely led by the prejudiced account of the Muhammadan historians. Thanks to Mr. Sewell and a number of Indian scholars, among whom the present Chairman is the most indefatigable, we are in possession of some material for having a definite perspective of the period before us.

The collection of materials for the making of a history of Vijayanagar is no easy task and the difficulties are still greater for a connected biography of any one of its kings. It is true that Mr. Sewell in his "Forgotten Empire" has done his best for making Vijayanagar live. But in the absence of any Vijayanagar history from Hindu sources one has to look to Ferishta and that Mr. Sewell has also done. Historical critics are agreed that Ferishta was a prejudiced historian and being for a greater part of his life under the patronage of Nizam Shahi kings of Ahmadnagar, it is natural that he (himself a Muhammadan) should shut his eyes to Muhammadan shortcomings and exaggerate those of the Hindus. But for the subject of our essay we cannot entirely rely on Ferishta as he scarcely mentions Krishna Raja by name and Ferishta did not begin his historical writings till a few years after the 17th century had begun and had no materials for the compilation of his history except from Muhammadan sources. It should not therefore be supposed that his account of the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar is a gospel. But for the period we are immediately concerned with, there are the chronicles of Paes and Nuniz who got their materials first-hand from Hindu sources when they visited Vijayanagar and lived and wrote long before Ferishta began his writings. So then comparatively speaking the accounts of Nuniz and Paes are more trustworthy as they had interviewed the king, Krishna Raja and have left their impressions of him both in his private and public life.

We have also a number of Telugu poetical works composed during the period 1510—1518 A.D., such as Mukku Thimanna's Parijatapabarānu, Allasani Peddana's Manu-charitra, Rama Rajeeyamu, Krishnadeva Rajeeyamu, and Amuktamalyada. In all these books are clearly found

historical allusions, though too few. Amuktamalyada, or otherwise known as Vishnu Chittheeyamu had been ascribed to Krishnadeva Raja himself. Amuktamalyada is the Telugu "King's Quair."

Thus we are put in possession of all the records from which we can hope to arrive at a fair estimation of the king and his works by a judicious critical examination. To start by trying to understand what a man appears to himself and only when that has been done to try him by the standard of the judgment of others, seems to be the principal canon of historical portraiture.

According to Sewell, Krishna Raja was the third sovereign of the second dynasty that succeeded the first on the death of Virupaksha. Tradition has it that he was descended from the Saluva royal family. But recent researches confirm it without a shadow of doubt. But the term Saluva or Kathari Saluva is also generally prefixed to the names of its members. His ancestor was Thimma Bhupathi famed among the Saluva kings who married Devaki. Their son was Ishwara who married Bukkamma, from whom Narasimha was born. This renowned Narasimha damned up the Cauvery while in flood, crossed over and captured his enemy alive, seized his kingdom and took Seringapatam in Mysore. On the death of Virupaksha the nobles, it is said, elected him to the throne of Vijayanagar, as he was probably the strongest of them all. But Ferishta attributes the murder of the two infant kings of Virupaksha, while acting as regent as the murder of the two princes in the Tower is attributed by English historians to Richard III. On the testimony of Nuniz we may altogether reject the malicious imputation as being without foundation. Narasimha began his reign in 1479 A.D. During the eight years he ruled he recovered much of the territory that had been lost to Vijayanagar during the weak administration of Virupaksha and established his supremacy over Chola, Oera, Pandya, Madura and the Valiant Turushka.

Narasimha had three wives, Thippamba, Nagamba and Obamma, who gave birth to Vira Narasimha or otherwise known as Narasimha II, Krishna Raja and Achyuta Raya respectively. Mr. Rice says that Narasimha died in 1487. But an inscription recording his titles as Maharaja or King is of 1495—96. We will not be far wrong if we date his death in 1498.

Vira Narasimha succeeded his father in 1498 and ruled till 1509. He was unlike his father a weak sovereign and lost much of what his father was at great pains to consolidate. On his death at the latter part of 1508 A.D. his brother Krishna Raja succeeded him on the throne.

Nature, sometimes, seems to be very prolific in bringing to existence a galaxy of master minds.

During the 16th century some of the master rulers of the world were Charles V, the Emperor, Francis of

* A paper read before the Pachaiyappa's College Historical Society, with Mr. Jayanthi Ramayya Pantulu, B.A., in the chair.

France, Henry VIII and Elizabeth of England, Suleiman the Magnificent, the Sultan of Turkey, Akbar the Great and Sri Krishna Deva Raja. A century that produced such monarchs who achieved great 'strides in human destiny,' can challenge comparison with any before or after.

The date of Krishna Raja's birth is variously fixed. Some put it as far back as 1465, others at 1487 and 1484. The writer in the Telugu journal known as *Chintamani* comes, after a critical examination, to the conclusion that he was born in 1484. This seems a very probable one as it would justify the conduct of the various campaigns by the king himself and the energy he has shown in the consolidation and administration of his Empire as the mute acceptance of 1465 would deprive him of so much glory as he is entitled to.

His early life was watched with keen jealousy by his stepmother, Thippamba. He was fond of martial exercise as a boy and his father was delighted with all the things he did and prophesied that he alone would be a worthy son. Thippamba knowing the partiality of the father to Krishna Raja wrung from her husband in a moment of weakness that Krishna Raja must be put to death to ensure that her son Vira Narasimha might without dispute ascend the throne. The prime minister concealed the prince and reported that the order of death had been executed. But Narasimha in his last illness was deeply afflicted for the death of his favourite son and the minister knowing the pangs of conscience brought the prince from the place of his concealment. On seeing his long-lost son Narasimha I was overjoyed and acknowledged him as his successor after Vira Narasimha. After this public manifestation of paternal affection, he again had recourse to his martial amusements.

It must not be supposed that Krishna Raja paid undue attention to games and sports. Mantri Appaji was his tutor and taught him grammar, arithmetic and Amarakosa. But the boy as he grew older showed a fondness for poetry and composed pithy stanzas to the admiration of his tutor. The authorship of Amuktamalyada has been ascribed to him. But it is difficult to say that he composed it all himself as there appears in it the work of two hands. He had to abandon literature for kingship.

Krishna Deva Raja ascended the throne in 1509 and his coronation took place shortly after. After his installation he went to Gokarna and there weighed himself against gold, silver and pearls, which were distributed among the Brahmins just as Sivaji did some seventy years later at Rajgarh.

The extent of Vijayanagar Empire at his accession had been very much circumscribed. Ganga Raja of Ummatoor and the king of Udayagiri had revolted and had declared themselves independent during the weak administration

of Vira Narasimha. To add to the king's difficulties the Muhammadans had already begun to threaten him from the North.

Krishna Raja's attention was first turned towards the consolidation of his dominions and the subjection of the revolted vassals of Ummatoor and Udayagiri. To effect this successfully he introduced the feudal system which we may for the sake of convenience call the Indian Feudal System to avoid a misconception of its nature. This was different from that obtaining in England at the Norman Conquest and similar to that on the mainland of Europe during the middle ages. The immediate vassals of the king or the several chiefs had to acknowledge the supremacy of the king and to owe him complete allegiance. Besides they had to render a fixed quantity of military aid and to contribute a fixed quantity of money to the Royal Exchequer. In return the king acknowledged their right to the territory over which they ruled. Thus it will be observed that the feudal spirit and all that it meant did not pervade the sub-strata of society and could not therefore flourish to benefit the Empire while it lasted. But under the distinguished military capacity of Krishna Deva Raja it became a formidable system and was utilised to humiliate the aggressive spirit of the infernal enemy of the Empire.

Just at the time of Krishna Deva Raja's accession there appeared at the court of Vijayanagar two ambassadors, Fr. Luis and Gaspar Chanoca from the Portuguese Viceroy, Alphonso Albuquerque, who had succeeded Almeda, renewing a former request for a fort at Bhatkal for the protection of the Portuguese trade. The king received them in all cordiality and gave them a general answer without granting the request.

Albuquerque was not thus to be baffled. He again courteously pressed his former request with the offer of the exclusive trade in horses to Vijayanagar in return for a modest payment of 2 lakhs of Rupees and a defensive and offensive alliance. Krishna Deva Raja readily accepted the offer as he had already set about organising his cavalry regiments.

During those times, a cavalry regiment consisted of as many horses as could be procured without due regard to definiteness of number and had no drill. Under such circumstances battles would be decided in favour of the party commanding the largest force.

So then in purely Indian warfare, tactics had no place. It is mainly due to the genius of Krishna Deva Raja to find out this defect and apply remedies to it. He began with decomposing his rabble of an army into companies consisting of a definite number of horses. Each company was under a commander, the whole army being under the command of the king himself. But for drill and other

purposes, the whole army was under orders of his general Ramalinga. Only in case of war when the king led his own army in person his orders overrode those of his general Ramalinga's. We next come to the question of the kind of the army the king had. We have from the authority of the contemporary writers the number of troops the king was able to put into readiness in a moment's notice, and the largest number that he was able to collect with due notice; Nuniz says that he was able to gather 703,000 foot; 36,000 horses and 551 elephants for the battle of Raichore. In the Canara Gazetteer, the same number is also given. This evidently includes the military aid of his vassals. But Castanheda says that the king had 100,000 horses and 4,000 elephants ever ready for service.

In Krishna Raja Vijayam, we are not given the exact number of the army he had. But it gives us information as to the discipline of the army and the general who drilled it during the period of peace.

It also says that the king had by him a large number of cavalry regiments besides foot which was innumerable. We are therefore led to conclude that the king had then what might now be termed a standing army at his capital. He had also realised that without a standing army sufficiently large to meet sudden military exigencies of the times he could not hold his own against the turbulent Muhammadan rulers and the revolting spirit of his greater vassals.

To maintain the integrity of the Empire we are told in Krishna Raja Vijayam that a large standing army at the capital was an absolute necessity to overawe his vassals and the encroaching spirit of the Muhammadans of the Dekhan.

After these reforms in the army, he directed his arms against the refractory chief of Ummatoor who was defeated and slain on the battlefield (1512), and the Mysore country was placed under the charge of a Viceroy from Vijayanagar. In this connection, we must be clear regarding a rather disputable question.

Mr. Gribble says that Krishna Raja was in the beginning of his reign defeated by the Sultan of Golconda at Pangul and was driven to look after his own interests at home instead of seeking conquests outside his territory in Devarkonda and Kovilkonda. But in the poetical works of the period already referred to there is not a word said about either the battle or the siege of Kovilkonda. Immediately after his accession, we are told, he was occupied with reforming his army before he could hope to lead it successfully against his enemies. It is true that he was nobly ambitious. But to say that he began to manifest it a year after his accession when everything around him looked gloomy and when his own vassals had not been brought under subjection is some-

thing that we cannot readily believe. It may on the other hand be argued that the poets of his court may have deliberately omitted the mention of his defeat in order to credit him with glory never won by any prince or ruler before. Even allowing this for the sake of argument how could the remark of Ferishta be reconciled? Ferishta says "Ismail Adil Shah joined with Amir Barid in an attack on Teilingana and laid siege to Kovilkonda." Vijayanagar had no part in the causes of the campaign. Ferishta's partiality to Muhammadans is undoubted and well-known. If what Mr. Gribble says about Pangul had been true, Ferishta would surely have made much of it and the account of the battle of Pangul would have been depicted in more glowing colours than the battle of Kembavi. Under these circumstances we find it hard to accept that Vijayanagar had any part in the campaign against Kovilkonda and Devarakonda. After the subjugation of Ummatoor, he next turned his attention to Udayagiri (in Nellore District) in 1513 A.D. His army filled with a desire for martial glory. Its enthusiasm was as it were a premium on martial achievements to come. In a hotly contested fight before the walls of Udayagiri, the enemy was dispersed and the country was annexed to Vijayanagar. Readers of Manu Charitram will recall the beautiful verse wherein Krishna Deva Raja's conquests are enumerated. The conquest of Udayagiri was followed by others in 1514 A.D. Vira Bhadra of Kondavid had become an independent chief and was very powerful. His subjugation was resolved upon. A large army was collected for the purpose and advanced against him. Vira Bhadra lay dead on the field of battle sword in hand. A description of Vira Bhadra's death is given in the first canto of Parijatapaharanam. All his territories including Bellamkonda and Kondapalli thus fell to the lot of the conqueror. The governorship was entrusted to Gopamantri.

He had thus recovered his lost territories. He next turned his attention to the conquest of Kalingadesa (now known as Orissa) whose king was at this time Vira Rudra Gajapati, the most powerful, the most feared and the most oppressive Hindu monarch of the time. As a defender of the oppressed, Krishna Deva Raja took a large army against him and defeated him at Kanakagiri in 1516. Vira Rudra otherwise also known as Pratapa Rudra fled to the Vindhya mountains with a large following of his army.

Shortly after Vira Rudra returned from his flight and sued for peace by offering his daughter Chinnama Devi in marriage to him as a bond of union and friendship never to be broken. The king accepted the offer and insisted that the Gajapatis ought to remain feudatory to Vijayanagar and erected a monument on the banks of the Krishna.

Vijayanagaram (in Vizagapatam District) had not felt his arms and had remained in a fancied security from molestation by Krishna Deva Raja. To complete the conquest of the Telugu country he turned his arms against it and utterly crushed it. To commemorate his victory over Vijayanagaram king he erected a pillar at Potnoor, which even to this day may be seen with its vaunting inscription.

Before the middle of 1516 A.D. he had conquered all the territories that had revolted from the Vijianagar sway and had added others that had for long an independent existence. Only one more remained to be brought into subjection and that was Mangalore. No sooner had he advanced against it than the chief made a humble submission.

The Empire of Vijianagar had reached limits it had never before attained. All those conquests paled before the burning desire of the king to recover Raichoor Doab which had long been a debatable territory and was in alternate possession of the Hindu and Muhammadan as the superiority of the contending forces determined in the contest for its possession. Krishna Deva Raja was convinced that the Hindu rulers of Vijianagar were the first possessors of it and the Muhammadans were the usurpers. He now resolved upon a war with Bijapur for its recovery. Collecting a very large army at the later part of 1517 he advanced against Raichoor and laid siege to it. Adil Shah of Bijapur was enraged on hearing the news that Raichoor had been besieged. He consulted the Sultans of Ahmednagar and Golconda as to the best means of thwarting the audacious Hindu. Their concurrent opinion was that the Hindu must be crushed. They sent their forces to the aid of Bijapur and Adil Shah with a large army, crossed the Krishna and advanced to within nine miles of Raichoor. Krishna Deva Raja left a detachment of his army for continuing the siege of Raichoor and began his march to meet Adil Shah with a large army. The Muhammadan army was under the command of independent generals of the territories that brought succour to Adil Shah. The defect of the Muhammadan army was that it had no commander-in-chief to issue general orders. As the army was composed of independent units, it is natural that there should be confusion. The Sultan of Bijapur began the attack. His centre was very weak. Krishna Deva Raja perceived the weakness of the disposition of the Muhammadan army and thought he could make short work of the opposing rabble. He gave command of the infantry to his general Ramalinga occupying the left of Kembavi and he himself had the command of the cavalry being also the commander-in-chief of all his forces.

After careful manœuvring of the army the Hindu ruler was victorious. The Hindu army stood triumphant on

the plains of Kembavi as Cromwell's cavalry stood on Marston Moor a century and a quarter later. Thus the battle of Kembavi was fought in 1518 and established the military reputation of Krishna Deva Raja and struck terror into the hearts of the Muhammadans. Raichoor surrendered and Raichoor Doab formed part of the Vijianagar Empire. There has been much confusion as to the scene of action. Nuniz says that the battle was fought at Raichoor. Mr. Sewell has followed Nuniz. But in the MS. copy of Krishna Rajavijayamu the scene of action was at Kembavi about 7 or 8 miles east of Raichoor. On the authority of the works written during the period we are speaking of we have to accept Kembavi as the proper place where the battle must have been fought and won. It may also be easily supposed that Raichoor being in a state of siege for a long time the name of the battle has been transferred to it from the real scene of action owing to public attention being more concentrated upon Raichoor and its fate.

We ought not to forget to make mention of the magnanimity of Krishna Raja in his treatment of Raichoor and its inhabitants (in particular and that of the occupied country of the conquered in general. It has been said that the Hindu army took vengeance on the Muhammadan country and massacred the inhabitants for all the wrongs they had inflicted on them in times past. On the authority of Paes and Nuniz we have been led to form that the king had a very strong moral element in him. He was the most generous and the most humane Hindu ruler that has ever been known to Indian History. The same sentiment pervades పారిజాతాపహరణము, Parijatapakanum. He commanded his soldiers not to molest the inhabitants of Raichoor who out of ignorance, as he seems to have said, offered a most obstinate resistance. When he had occupied the territory of the Adil Shah for a few months after the battle of Kembavi, in the hope that the Shah would come and sue for peace, no sign of brutality on the part of the Hindus in the conquered country was to be found.

Krishna Deva Raja had been unjustly charged with the severity with which he imposed terms of peace on the Adil Shah. Accounts vary as to what became of him after the battle. Nuniz says he fled and then began negotiations for a peace. In "Amuktamalyada" it is stated that the Sultan was captured and beheaded and his head was hung up. It is very likely that Ramalinga must have ordered the deed to be done just as Bairam Khan passed sentence of death on Hemu some forty years later, as a mark of revenge for all the treasured wrongs that the Hindus had suffered at the hands of the

Muhammadans. Ramalinga is therefore mainly responsible for the cruel deed and he may probably have done this without the knowledge of the king, who in all his magnanimity would have granted him terms that would have been just and agreeable to Adil Shah.

There is some difference of opinion regarding the date of the battle of Kembavi. But after careful examination of all varied opinion, the later part of 1518 may be assigned as the probable date.

Mr. Sewell traces the decline of the Empire of Vijianagar to the battle of Kembavi or Raichoor as he calls it. He says the victory raised in the minds of the Hindus a spirit of pride and arrogance and rendered them positively intolerable to their neighbours and was the direct cause of the union of the Dekhan Sultans to accelerate the downfall of the Hindus. We have seen already in కృష్ణరాంవిజయము and ఆముక్తమాల్యద that the Hindus behaved in a way that would have done them credit even in a civilised warfare. Mr. Rice is much nearer the truth, when he says that the ruin of the Empire was to be found in the arrogance of the King Rama Raja and his hostile encroachments in the territories of the Dekhan Sultans.

In 1520 the limits of Vijianagar far exceeded those that had been reached at any time before and practically remained the same till a few years after the king's death. The northern boundary of the kingdom extended as far as the Krishna and had included several strong forts acquired from the enemy between it and the Godavari. At the close of Krishna Raja's reign the Empire had reached its utmost limits and embraced the whole of the country enclosed by the triangle formed by a line drawn at an angle from very near Goa north of Mudkhal in the Nizam's territories across the Krishna and the Godavari right up to Cuttack as the base and the Malabar and the Coromandel Coasts as the sides converging in the southern extremity of India as the apex.

Notwithstanding these military reforms and achievements which are in themselves sufficient to perpetuate his memory for all ages to come, Krishna Deva Raja's undying reputation mainly rests more upon the excellence of the innumerable public works, that were planned and carried out under his direction. These may be ranked under two classes—construction of tanks and dams across rivers. To him we can truly ascribe the discovery of the means of remedying agricultural depression which is a chronic source of anxiety to benevolent Indian administrators. The remedy according to him lay in the extension of the irrigation system. The most remarkable irrigational undertaking was the damming of the Tungabhadra river

which was effected in no less than seven places by the use of gigantic 'bandars' formed of blocks, often many tons in weight. Five of these, remain to attest to the genius of Damik Moodh, the Bakshee of Achuta Raja. Krishna Raja, by whom they were said to have been planned and executed. From these stupendous bandars canals are led along both sides of the river and supply the means of irrigation to many miles of garden lands, which to this day constitute the most valuable portions of the Bellary Collectorate of the Madras Presidency.

Under such conditions the country prospered. The following extracts are from the account of Abdur Razak:—

"There he saw a city exceedingly large and populous and a king of great power and dominion, whose kingdom extended from the borders of Sarandip to those of Gulbargha and from Bengal to Malabar, a space more than 1000 parasanyas. The country is for the most part well cultivated and fertile and about 300 good sea-ports belong to it. There are more than 1000 elephants lofty as the hills and gigantic as demons. The army consists of 11 lakhs of men. In the whole of Hindustan there is no Rai more absolute than himself under which denomination the kings of that country are known. The Brahmins were held by the Rai in higher estimation than all other men."

The chief sources of revenue during the time of Krishna Deva Raja were chiefly from land and customs, and also consisted of taxes on thrashing-floors, looms, houses, groves, areca trees, granaries, pottery, glass, sugar-cane, mills. These were supplemented by Royalty on gold and diamond mines. The total revenue about the time of Krishna Deva Raja was 9 crores of which the Canarese country contributed about 84 lakhs.

Of all the sovereigns that India can justly be proud of, Krishna Deva Raja is the most deserving. He raised Vijianagar from the depths of despair into which it had fallen to the heights of glory it had never before attained. He saw clearly that a native army well drilled, regularly paid and well conducted would be more than a match for an innumerable rabble of an army. This truth was emphasized a century and a quarter later by Duplex.

In the treatment of the conquered Rajas and their subjects, Krishna Deva Raja was more humane and tender. On receiving their due submission he gave back to them their territories on their acknowledging his suzerainty. The magnanimity with which he treated the inhabitants of Raichoor on their surrender is far nobler than that displayed by Gustavus Adolphus before Munich during the Thirty Years War.

Conducting his campaigns in person and sharing the trials and fatigues of his soldiers he endeared himself to them.

In the internal administration of the Empire he was no less zealous. He was deeply anxious about the betterment of the people under him. He was a great patron of literature. Like Pericles at Athens, Christina at Stockholm and Akbar at Delhi, his capital Vijayanagar was ever the haunt of poets, scholars and wits. Readers of Telugu literature can easily recall to their minds the story of Allasani Peddani, and Sri Krishna Deva Raja—how the Raja in order to show his love for the 'Andhra Pitamaha' tied the golden bangle to his feet.

Krishna Deva Raja was greatly interested in the expansion of agriculture. He planned a network of irrigation as being the surest means of combating famine in a country like India. To secure the ryots from the arbitrary exactions of greedy Collectors, he defined their liabilities to Government in his revenue system which has remained to this day in Mysore without scarcely any change worth speaking of as a monument more enduring than brass. Were it possible to obtain a fuller account of this memorable king from whatever sources, he might worthily find a niche in the monumental abode of the Rulers of India Series.

SANSKRIT EDUCATION.

G. O. ON THE PROPOSALS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF—, SUBMITTED BY THE COMMITTEE WHICH DEALT WITH THE REPORT OF THE SUB-ASSISTANT INSPECTOR OF SANSKRIT SCHOOLS ON HIS TOUR IN NORTHERN INDIA.

Memorandum No. 1847-2, Educational, dated 3rd October 1911.

The Government accept the Committee's proposal that for purposes of inspection and recognition Sanskrit schools shall be classified into three grades, namely, Collegiate, Advanced and Elementary. The course of studies in collegiate schools should provide adequately for the needs of the oriental title examinations of the University and should include a study of English specially directed towards fitting the students to read and understand the English literature

bearing on the special branch or branches of Sanskrit literature which they may have selected for study. The advanced schools should serve as feeders to the collegiate institutions, the curriculum being designed so as to impart a knowledge of the Sanskrit language and literature leading up to a preliminary examination which the Government consider should be held for the purpose of testing the qualifications of candidates for admission to a college. At this admission test English should be an optional, if not a compulsory, subject of examination. The medium of instruction in advanced schools should be the vernacular of the district and provision should be made for the teaching of vernacular composition. Some history and geography may also be taught as recommended by the Committee, and English, though a compulsory subject of study, must always remain a subsidiary item, lest admission should be sought with the main object of acquiring proficiency in that language, rather than Sanskrit. In elementary schools the course should combine Sanskrit with a knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic in the vernacular language which should also be the medium of instruction.

2. It remains to consider on what basis these Sanskrit schools should be assisted and what steps should be taken to encourage the study of Sanskrit. The Government consider that, while Elementary Sanskrit schools may be aided by a special system of grants based mainly on the number of pupils, the advanced schools and colleges should receive teaching grants under Chapter VI of the Grant-in-Aid Code, the provisions of which should be amplified and made more definite so far as concerns this class of institutions. They are further of opinion that the study of Sanskrit should be encouraged by the institution of some 50 to 100 scholarships of the monthly value of two or three rupees each tenable in advanced schools, to be awarded to the most promising pupils in elementary schools, and that some thirty scholarships tenable in colleges of

such value ranging from Rs. 7 to 10 *per mensem* as may be considered sufficient to cover the entire cost of maintenance and tuition, should be awarded to the pupils who pass highest at the preliminary examinations referred to in paragraph 1 *supra*.

3. As regards inspection, it seems hardly necessary that these Sanskrit schools should be inspected three times every year, but in view of the fact that it will not be possible for a single Sub-Assistant to inspect all the Sanskrit schools in the Presidency, the Government will be prepared to consider the question of sanctioning the employment of an additional Sub-Assistant.

4. The Director of Public Instruction is requested to draw up detailed proposals on the above lines and submit them for the approval of Government together with an estimate of the probable cost of his proposals.

REPLY OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

With reference to Government Memorandum No. 1847-2, dated 3rd October 1911 calling for detailed proposals for giving effect to the scheme for the improvement of Sanskrit education, I have the honour to state that there were 270 Sanskrit schools in existence on the 31st March 1911. The Sub-Assistant Inspector of Sanskrit Schools has proposed that 75 of these, including the schools at present in receipt of aid, should be brought under inspection and recognized. It will be seen from the enclosed Statement A that of the 75 schools, 8 are classed as colleges, 36 as advanced schools and 31 as elementary schools. It is reported that some of these schools are not as yet properly organized but the Sub-Assistant expects that they can be brought up to the required standard in a few years.

With regard to the colleges, all but the Mylapore College are reported to have lower classes attached to them and those at Pattambi, Tiruvadi and Sriperumbudur have elementary classes as well. They follow the four years'

course for the Oriental Titles Examination. The Mylapore and Pattambi Colleges may possibly be able to prepare candidates for this examination in alternate years, but this is unlikely and for the present we may reckon that the colleges will only send up one batch of students in four years.

As regards the advanced and elementary schools there has been no system of recognition up to date but a grouping system has been approved. All the 75 institutions may for the present be brought under inspection and recognized. Power should be vested in the Director to add to this list or to withdraw recognition from schools when necessary. Further all of them may be aided with the exception of the three colleges at Tiruvadi, Vizianagram and Tirupati. Of these, the first is under the management of the District Board, Tanjore, and is maintained from Chattram funds, the second is maintained by the Raja of Vizianagram and the third by the Mahant of Tirupati. They therefore require no aid.

2. *Grants to Sanskrit Schools.*—The colleges and advanced schools may be aided under Chapter VI of the Grant-in-Aid Code and the fixing of the amount of grant for each school left to the discretion of the Director. The grant for elementary schools may be fixed at the rate of Rs. 1 per year for each pupil in average daily attendance. From Statement B enclosed it will be seen that a sum of Rs. 1,772 will be required over and above the existing provision for grants for these institutions. I think this amount should suffice if the indefinite multiplication of schools is opposed.

3. *Scholarships.*—In colleges thirty scholarships may be instituted for award to those pupils who pass highest at the preliminary examination. I have already pointed out that the college course extends over four years and that there will be only one batch of students for these four years, there being no admissions in the intervening years. The amount required for the proposed scholarships may be made to vary in the four

different years. The monthly rate of scholarship per pupil may be Rs. 7 in the first year, Rs. 8 in the second year, Rs. 9 in the third year and Rs. 10 in the fourth.

In advanced schools 72 scholarships may be instituted for the present, to be awarded to the most promising pupils in elementary schools. As the courses of study in these schools extend over six years it is proposed to allot twelve scholarships in each of the six classes of the monthly value of Rs. 2 in the three lower classes and of Rs. 3 in the next three higher classes.

The above scholarships may be awarded by the Director on the recommendation of the Inspector of Sanskrit Schools. It should be competent to the Director to increase or decrease the number of scholarships as occasion arises. An average sum of Rs. 5,220 will be required for payment as scholarships as will be seen from Statement C.

4. *Preliminary Examination charges.*—The charges on account of this examination may be put down at Rs. 500 *per annum* but this amount could not be calculated on any accurate basis.

5. *Grants for buildings, furniture and books.*—It is not possible to estimate the amount of grants which will be required for payment under these heads but I propose that for the present a sum of Rs. 500 may be provided for grants for these purposes.

6. *Additional inspection and guidance for Sanskrit schools.*—With reference to paragraph 3 of the Government Memorandum I propose that the present Sub-Assistant Inspector of Sanskrit Schools should be designated Inspector of Sanskrit Schools and allowed two Assistants to be termed "Supervisors of Sanskrit Schools." The head-quarters of one of them may be at Vizianagaram and of the other at Calicut. I prefer this arrangement to the appointment of a second Sub-Assistant Inspector. The Inspector will be able to secure uniformity of aim and policy in the development of Sanskrit education, whereas

it would [be] difficult for the Director to co-ordinate the work of two Sub-Assistant Inspectors. Further as the medium of instruction is the vernacular, it is desirable to secure men who are authorities in Sanskrit and the necessary vernaculars, i.e., one officer with a knowledge of Sanskrit, Telugu and Uriya and the other a Pandit in Sanskrit, Tamil, Malayalam and Canarese. Such men can be more easily secured under the arrangements now proposed. A further advantage is that there will be two posts open to Pandits, a class threatened with extinction. The two Supervisors of Sanskrit Schools will correspond direct in Sanskrit or a vernacular with the Inspector of Sanskrit Schools.

The appointments may be made to the cadre of Supervisors of Elementary Schools, two additions being made to the number of appointments in the 50-rupees class. In order to meet the charges relating to the salaries, allowances and contingencies of these two Supervisors an additional amount of Rs. 1,950 will be required as shown in Statement D.

7. Taking the average figure for college scholarships and for teaching grants to colleges and advanced schools, the total cost of my proposals amounts to Rs. 9,940 in round figure as shown below :—

	RS.
Teaching and capitation grants	...
Scholarships	... 1,772
Two Supervisors of Sanskrit Schools	... 5,220
Preliminary Examination charges	... 1,950
Grants for building, furniture and books.	... 500
	9,942

Order—No. 223, Educational, dated 9th March 1912.

The papers read above deal with the question of the improvement of Sanskrit education in this Presidency. The Government have given careful consideration to the proposals on the subject sub-

mitted by the Committee which dealt with the report of the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Sanskrit Schools on his tour in Northern India and are now pleased to sanction the recommendations made by the Director of Public Instruction, namely :—

(1) that for the purposes of inspection and recognition Sanskrit Schools shall in future be classified into three grades—Collegiate, Advanced and Elementary, the courses of studies being fixed on the lines indicated in Memorandum No. 1847-2, dated 3rd October 1911 ;

(2) that a preliminary examination shall be held at the end of the advanced course for the purpose of testing the qualifications of candidates for admission into a college ;

(3) that colleges and advanced schools shall be aided under Chapter VI of the Grant-in-Aid Code, the amount of grant for each institution being fixed by the Director of Public Instruction ;

(4) that elementary schools shall be aided on a special system, the grant being fixed at the rate of Rs. 1 per year for each pupil in average daily attendance ; and

(5) that a system of scholarships shall be instituted in accordance with the proposals embodied in paragraph 3 of Dr. Bourne's letter, dated 23rd December 1911.

2. The Government are further pleased to sanction the strengthening of the agency for the inspection of Sanskrit schools by the appointment of two Supervisors on Rs. 50 each, who will be included in the cadre of Supervisors of Elementary Schools. The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to state whether it will not suffice to allow these Supervisors the concession specified in article 1045 of the Civil Service Regulations in addition to the permanent monthly travelling allowance of Rs. 12-8-0 sanctioned for Supervisors. If it is proposed to give them a permanent monthly travelling allowance of Rs. 25 *per mensem*, the sanction of the Government of India will be requisite.

3. The designation of the Sub-Assistant Inspector should be "Superintendent of Sanskrit Schools and Colleges."

4. The rules framed by the Committee should be revised in accordance with these orders and in doing so provision should be made for the maintenance of a register showing the subsequent career of students.

5. The sanction accorded in these Proceedings will be registered as No. 13 of 1912-13.

6. As soon as final orders on the budget estimate for 1912-13 have issued, the Director of Public Instruction should submit reappropriation statements providing for the expenditure incurred or anticipated during the current and ensuing financial years in connection with the scheme now sanctioned.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS (PART I.)
By P. V. SESHU AIYAR, B.A., L.T., Professor of Mathematical Physics, Presidency College, Madras, and V. VENKATASUBBAYYA, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, High School Department, Pachaiyappa's College, Madras; Crown 8vo., Cloth bound. Published by Messrs. Srinivasa Varadachari & Co., Mount Road, Madras. Price Re. 1-8.

We have great pleasure in welcoming the above excellent book. The method of treatment of the subject is in accordance with the requirements of the pupils of our Secondary schools.

Evidently Part I of Elementary Mathematics is intended for pupils reading up to III Form. This is written in English and it is, therefore, desirable to bring out Vernacular editions of this excellent book. It is essential that History, Geography and Arithmetic should be taught to the pupils of I, II and III Forms in their vernaculars. Instruction imparted to children in their mother-tongue affords scope for a thorough grasp of principles. On this ground, we strongly urge the production of

books for pupils in their vernaculars and are glad to learn that vernacular editions of this book will be soon brought out by the publishers.

The distinguishing feature of the book is the treatment of arithmetic not as a separate subject, but as the Elements of Mathematics with the consequent correlation of Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Mensuration. Here again the old-fashioned method of treating Arithmetic and Algebra as two different subjects has given way to the rational method of regarding them as one and the same subject. Not long ago it was considered a sacrilege to work any arithmetical problem algebraically. It should be borne in mind that Algebra is nothing but Arithmetic generalised, and we may congratulate the authors on their successful correlation of these subjects. In Chapters III and XII a successful attempt has been made to introduce algebraic symbols in connection with the first four simple rules of Arithmetic.

But we are afraid that this correlation of allied subjects may be carried a little too far. The principle of correlation should be adopted only so far as practicable. We cannot quite agree with the authors in their introduction of a chapter on Practical and Experimental Geometry here and a chapter there. All those parts of Geometry that can be treated in relation with Algebra and Arithmetic have been treated very satisfactorily.

The second distinguishing feature of the book is that it is up-to-date in its practical treatment of questions. Almost every process is explained graphically or practically, *i.e.*, in a way that would appeal to the pupil's eye. The chief drawback of the old authors of mathematics was that pupils were suddenly taken to the ærial heights of abstraction. In this connection we cannot refrain from reminding our numerous readers of the two-fold object of education, namely (1) to draw out the faculties of children and thus give

them ample scope for developing their powers, and (2) to prepare them for life by engaging them in useful practical work. It is gratifying to note that the authors have made their work eminently practical by explaining the *rationale* of every process in a practical manner. It is the special merit of the book that impossible, improbable, long and tedious and unpractical questions of the old-fashioned type are avoided as far as possible. Much attention has been paid to see that no tedious and long questions have crept into this volume. We are glad to note that most of the examples are taken from actual life. Chapters II and V deal with Measurement of Lines to the required degree of accuracy. Chapter XXI deals with questions on Simple Interest, with which the pupils are familiar. Percentages such as $2\frac{1}{3}\%$ and $17\frac{1}{4}\%$ are avoided. This book has been published at a time when books dealing with Indian conditions and designed for Indian pupils are rare. Indian Weights, Measures and Coins are well treated. On page 133 is a plate of English coins such as the shilling, the crown, the penny, the sovereign, the florin. Herein lies another good feature of the book. The authors would have done well to print another plate of the other foreign coins they have introduced in the book, such as the dollar, the cent, the franc, the mark, the yen, etc.

The book is made eminently practical by the introduction of graphical methods wherever possible. Till recently graphical methods were known only to the esoteric few. Analytical conics in higher mathematics requiring graphic treatment was not taught even to B.A. students properly. Now we are so far advanced that our children are beginning to use squared paper even in the Primary classes. It should be remembered that the study of graphs arouses interest in the early stages of mathematical work. And it is to the authors' credit that their book is full of graphical illustrations. The four simple rules are illustrated graphically. The rationale of finding G. C. M. is explained by the intro-

duction of graphic methods. A successful attempt has been made to encourage pupils to represent graphically statistics in which they are personally interested, *i.e.*, scores made at games, attendance and marks at school, temperatures and pressures recorded 'at various times, results obtained by experiments in science, and times of arrival and departure of trains taken from the Madras Railway time-tables.

Besides these distinguishing merits of the book there are others which deserve mention here. Chapter V lays the foundations for arithmetic. The decimals and the metric system are given their proper place. Elaborate questions on vulgar fractions are avoided.

Care has been taken to introduce shortened methods of computation. It is the common charge against pupils receiving English education in schools that they cannot get on so well in life as the children of traders and merchants. It is true that our boys cannot calculate so well as the traders. The fault lies in the methods of teaching arithmetic, for little or no attention has hitherto been paid to oral and mental work. The authors deserve special thanks for making their work really serviceable to our boys.

Still we are sorry to find questions such as:—Multiply one number by another in two lines, three lines, etc. Such ingenious questions serve absolutely no purpose. They are intended more for advanced students than for beginners in the subject.

The book contains about 223 illustrations and this enhances the usefulness of the book. The printing, get-up and diagrams leave nothing to be desired.

P. T. SRINIVAS IYENGAR.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

The British Schoolboy. A Headmaster's Criticisms.

In an interview which a representative of the *Daily Telegraph* had with him the other day, Canon Swallow, the *doyen* of British headmasters, who after thirty-six years' hard work as headmaster of Chigwell School, is about to become a city rector, drew an interesting comparison between the British schoolboy of to-day and his predecessor of thirty or forty years ago.

'I think,' he said, 'that such changes as are to be seen in the British boy of to-day are due to an altered environment and the spirit of the age. The boy would be the same as if he lived under the same conditions.'

'At the present time there is a very strong leavening tendency at work in the secondary schools, and the elementary schools now play a very big part in the development of the school which was formerly given to the children of the middle classes alone. This leavening of elementary scholars is up to a certain point a good thing for both secondary schools and scholars. It tends to break down class prejudice and certainly has, to some extent, raised the standard of educational ability, but it is easy to give too many free places to elementary scholars. Twenty-five per cent. is certainly too high a proportion, and tends to injure the prestige of a school in the minds of parents who otherwise might have selected that school for their sons who would, of course, have been paying scholars.'

'During my time at Chigwell I have watched the tendency grow for something more than classical instruction. As a result, the teaching of Greek is to-day to a large extent expiring while modern languages and natural science find a place in all curricula. The effect of this change in teaching is to make boys more materialistic and less imaginative than they were formerly, while I do not think that the modern boy ever

learns anything quite so thoroughly as did his father. Curricula are now too crowded; a lad has not the time to obtain a thorough knowledge of any one thing.

'What I have noticed, and noticed with regret, is the failure in the discipline of the middle class home. This is very marked indeed, and it is this, which is chiefly responsible for any change found in our British boys. Undoubtedly one of the causes which rob a boy of that home discipline which is so necessary for him is the fact that there are very few large families amongst the middle classes of to-day. Thirty to forty years ago most middle class people had large families, and a boy who was a member of a large family gained much which he could get in no other way. He gained largely because he was brought up rougher, because, from his birth up he was associated with a goodly number of brothers and sisters who were not too careful about considering his feelings, and had to, even in the home circle, hold his own for himself.

'Nowadays a middle class family consists of one or two, or at most three, children only, and these children are, as a consequence, "cosseted" too much. Boys in such families have often, as a result, the taste and habits of their parents, and they are very often "soft." Here, in Chigwell School, we have, of course, compulsory games. No boy is allowed to shirk his games unless he is certified as being medically unfit. We have a considerable number of day boys here now, and it is surprising to find what a number of them there are who bring a certificate from the family doctor that they are not strong enough for cricket or football. This I consider a very bad sign indeed. Boarders all play, as they are examined by my own doctor.

'This declining birth-rate amongst the middle classes, by the way, is a very serious thing for secondary schools, which depend upon this section of the public for their support.

'I will say this for the boy who does take his games. He shows just as much keenness as did the lads of a former generation. The increasing

love of luxury is, however, affecting the boy in the same manner as it affects the adult, for the boy of to-day is less simple in his tastes than was his father. Any one responsible for a school will tell you that though the dietary of boarders has changed little during the past forty years, yet boys are far harder to please now, and far more inclined to be fastidious, than they were years ago. The British boy, in short, reflects the spirit of the age. He plays golf while on his holidays, and is very often *blase* before he is grown up. This I attribute to the greater publicity of to-day. If a boy does anything unusual—is a good cricketer and athlete or excels in any way—the press takes him up, and he obtains a great deal of publicity which is as harmful as it is unnecessary.

'Thirty years ago we never had such a thing as a neurotic boy, but to-day such a type is fairly common. Another sign to the time is that the spirit of mischief is not nearly so strong amongst present day boyhood—a fact which I regret as it argues a less healthy condition. The proportion of boys going to boarding schools to-day is much smaller than was formerly the case, the reason, doubtless, being the declining birth-rate of the middle classes.

'Looking back over the years and comparing as well as I can, the present education with that which I knew formerly, I think that there is now too much tendency to make "types." The individual characteristics of a boy are more likely to be repressed under the modern system. The examination system has been developed, and, personally I think we need inspection rather than examination. There is one tendency which I have lately noticed which is, I think, very desirable. The best firms—i.e. the firms into whose services many of our boys go on leaving school—used to take boys who left school when they were 16. Now they are not taking them until the lads are 17 or 18, an excellent step on their part,

Aided Secondary Schools and the Question of Grants.

With reference to the controversy which has been going on in Madras as to the maximum grant admissible in aid of secondary schools under the recommendations of the Education Commission of 1882, the *Times of India* says:—The expediency of resting a discussion of this question on the report of a committee which was concerned with the conditions that prevailed thirty years ago, is not at all clear. The Pandits who profess that the Sanskrit compositions of antiquity contain all the knowledge necessary to guide humanity to the end of time, seem to have a considerable power of infection in this country. The Director of Public Instruction of Madras opposed a plea for increased grants to aided secondary schools, at a recent meeting of the local Legislative Council by alleging that there was an absolutely definite recommendation in the Education Commission's Report that the highest amount to be expected from public funds should be half of the deficit. Dr. William Miller, one of the most distinguished of South Indian educationists, who was one of the members of the Education Commission, has protested against the statement of the Director of Public Instruction in a letter which has been widely published. He quotes the words of the Commissioners in proof of his contention that the last thing they wished to do was to lay down hard and fast rules on a question that is necessarily so complicated and so largely dependent on local peculiarities. They did not profess to do more than indicate in the roughest and most general way some test to determine the sufficiency or insufficiency of the aid given to secondary schools. And even this rough test, according to Dr. Miller, is altogether different from that propounded by the Director. The Commission suggested that it might be held that the aid afforded was fairly sufficient, or at least not manifestly insufficient, when it bore to the entire cost of the aided institution half the ratio which

the expenditure from public funds bore to the entire cost of a similar and similarly situated institution managed by the department directly. That is to say, if in the case of a departmental school public funds bear forty per cent. of the total cost of maintenance, in the case of an aided school a grant up to a maximum of twenty per cent. of its total expenditure was admissible irrespective of any deficit. In exceptional cases, the Education Commission was prepared to allow even more, if more was needed to ensure complete efficiency, provided that even in the extremest cases the proportion did not exceed one-half the total expenditure. Having regard to the fact that the policy which the Commission strongly favoured was the policy of improvement and extension of institutions under private management with a view to the steady devolution of secondary education to private enterprise, there can be no doubt that it was never intended to limit grants to secondary schools in the manner suggested by the Director of Public Instruction.

Should the literary man marry. Experiences of Great Authors.

No one has put the case so pertinently as De Quincey, when he says that the wives and children of literary men create for them the deadliest of their anxieties. It is they who stuff the writing man's pillow with thorns, and surround his daily life with snares. To a man with a family who has no resources except what his pen may yield, what a maddening thought it is that some day he may be face to face with sudden failure of his resources, and to know that instant ruin attends his failure to exert so delicate an organ as the creative intellect. De Quincey suffered this terrible anxiety; and so did Burns perhaps even more poignantly.

Balzac says that the author should have neither wife nor children, that he should in common honesty to others tread his path alone. Spielhagen, the great German novelist, Flaubert, Byron, Walter Savage Landor, and others reinforce

this opinion. Yet if there is a man in the world who needs the love and sympathy of a wife it is the literary man. But in literature's annals the fact stands forth that, of all men, authors have been the least happy in their domestic lives. Shakespeare, from his own bitter experience, announced that a young man married is a man that's marred. Milton sang of 'Paradise Lost' and he experienced it with three successive wives. Addison escaped from his Countess to Will's Coffee-house and the geniality of Steele and fellow-writers. The modern author escapes through the Divorce Court, where Bulwer-Lytton and Byron would have found their release had they been of to-day. Dickens' domestic troubles have never been satisfactorily explained, but he said it was a case of incompatibility of temper—whose, he did not state. And it is much, this incompatibility of temper—temperament, too—from Xantippe downward—which, apart from the living wage question, lies at the back of the question.

There have been wives who were to their author-husbands both their comfort and their stay. Lemartine and John Stuart Mill had life partners who were perfectly congenial, Beaconsfield, in his dedication in 'Sibyl' terms his 'a perfect wife.' Dr. Johnstone's 'Letty' made him very happy, and he never ceased to miss her and mourn her death. Guizot and his wife were as twin-souls, and so were that incomparable pair, Robert Browning and his helpmate. Wordsworth's wife was a 'phantom of delight' to him, while Shelley's second venture proved a fortunate choice, the strongest bond of sympathy and affection existing between the married pair. If the literary man will marry, his wife—to get down to the bone of the matter—should be either a plain-minded woman who can occupy herself exclusively with household matters, and shield her husband's peace by taking on herself more than the darning of his socks, or else a woman capable of entering unaggressively into his literary life.—*T. P.'s Weekly.*

Importance of Technical Education, by Professor G. C. Sen, M.A., F.C.S.

We extract the following from a very interesting speech made by Prof. G. C. Sen, M.A., F.C.S.:—

It may be said that industrial development is impossible without technical education. It is absurd and ridiculous to think that a country with any self-respect can perpetually depend upon other people for its expert knowledge. Now the problem is, who is going to employ our technically trained men? It is a question that is engaging as much attention in England and Germany as here. I admit there are many openings for these men in England and Germany. But from my personal knowledge of those countries I know that great congestion exists. There are more trained men in those countries than the existing industries can reasonably be expected to absorb. Every year technical industries send forth to the world thousands of trained young men who have to fight their way against much competition. In spite of this congestion, however, it is never suggested for a moment that the splendid institutions like the University of Leeds, the Manchester School of Technology, the Bradford Technical College, the London Polytechnic, the Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College or the Scharlottenburgh Polytechnic should be closed down. On the contrary, they are increasing their scope of work and extending their operations every year. In India our great drawback is that we have very few technical institutes which are well equipped and well financed. It is a bad proposition that India should have industries first and technical education afterwards. The two things must go hand in hand. The suggestion that one can jog along without the other is a myth. An instance of this is found in the history of British commerce. There was some alarm in England at the rapid growth of industries on the Continent. The cause of this rapid growth was attributed to the earnestness with which Continental countries were pushing forward the cause of technical education. The Associated Chambers of Commerce at Glasgow, Leeds, Manchester, Birmingham, Wolverhampton and other centres of industries sent their representatives to consider this question. They resolved that efficient technical institutions should be started in different centres of industry to improve the position and to protect local industries against foreign competition.

The Aim of Education, by the late Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell.

The late Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell was a pioneer in moral education. The following passages from her essays are remarkable chiefly because they bring out the fundamental principles involved in the question of what should be taught.

"The first step towards the moral education of the youth of a nation is a clear perception on the part of parents of the true aim of education, with the individual action to which such perception leads."

"No vagueness or doubt should exist in relation to fundamental principles of education. Methods may change; no inflexible rule can be laid down. Enlarging experience, enlightened by love, will vary infinitely the adaptations needed in the education of infinitely varied children, but the aim of education should not vary."

"A principle clearly established is that portion of truth needed for present guidance. It must be thoroughly understood and resolutely held to, as the only clue which can guide us slowly through the dark labyrinth of error, vice, and misery. Such a guiding principle is found in the essential nature of the human sexual faculty—its distinctive power of self-control. The more the principle is considered, understood and valued, the more it will be found that it contains the power of purifying society, enlightening legislation, and raising our status as a nation."

"The young of both sexes should realise that self-control of thought and action is essential. Every means of hygienic, intellectual, and religious influence should be used to direct and strengthen both mind and body. For both young men and women it is hygiene in its largest sense that should be prescribed and enforced, viz., the guidance of the early vital forces, both physical and mental, into natural beneficial directions."

"We find that the laws of physiology point in one practical direction, viz., to the family, as the only institution which secures their observance; they show the necessity of the self-control of chastity in the young man and the young woman, as the only way to secure the strong mental and physical qualities requisite in the parental relation, whilst they also prove the special influence exerted by mutual love in the great work of Maternity. The preparation, therefore, of youth for family life should be the great aim of their sexual education."

"The Dispossessed Teacher," by Mr. Walter Bentliff of the London County Council School.

We take the following from the address of the President, Mr. Walter Bentliff, at the Annual Conference of the National Union of Teachers held at Hull on April 8th:—

Coming now to matters more closely affecting the teachers, but not affecting them solely those responsible for education too often by drastic treatment of the teacher nullified the benefits they were so anxious to confer on the child. So far as teachers in the service of the old school boards were concerned, there was no hardship. The case of the voluntary school teachers was very different. They were not the servants of any public authority, and the Act did not make them the servants of a public authority. On July 31, 1906, there were 12,793 voluntary or non-provided schools on the grant list. On July 31, 1910, there were 12,252, so that at least 541 schools had either been transferred to the councils, closed as unnecessary or voluntarily closed by the managers. The closures were not diminishing, for during the year 1909-10 the number actually removed from the list was 108. The National Union of Teachers had painful evidence of the inner meaning on the lives and work of teachers conveyed by these figures. To the teachers involved they were too often the records of professional disaster and of prolonged mental anxiety, ending in complete collapse. In some cases these dispossessed teachers had been taken into the service of the local authority, but necessarily with loss of status, and except in a few instances, with serious loss of salary. In other cases they had been compelled to enter the ranks of the unemployed. He had before him the letters of many dispossessed teachers. They came from different parts of the country, and their perusal was one of the saddest tasks he had yet performed. If these men and women had been employed by the Board of Education to check forms at Whitehall, a grateful country would have compensated them for loss of office. The National Union of Teachers claimed justice for the dispossessed. They were glad to note that a clause to secure this had been inserted in the small Bill now before Parliament, and he could assure the Government that their Bill of 1913 would be closely scanned for a similar clause. Should it be absent they would use the whole of their influence and every legitimate means to secure this elementary act of justice to the teacher.

The "Leader" on the New Courses of Studies for all the Examinations in Bombay.

In the course of a long editorial on the new courses of studies in Bombay, the *Leader* writes as follows:—

The problem of University reform, in all the provinces of India, is rendered very difficult of solution by circumstances over which the educated classes have no control. And even Bombay with its big educational budget and its high level of administration is no exception to this rule. We think that any real reform of our Universities must be preceded by the raising of the standard of instruction in our high schools, a radical improvement of the methods of instruction followed there; and secondly, a University atmosphere would be created not by laboratories, libraries and professorships—these are after all dead and inanimate—but by the men who would direct and put life into them. The University may raise the standard of the Matriculation which is practically the last examination of high schools, but it cannot effect any improvement in them inasmuch as high schools are controlled by the Government. The Government of Bombay did not recognise their responsibility till quite recent times. They had made no provision for the training of teachers in high schools for a long time and their college for the training of teachers in secondary schools is not even ten years old. The University itself is not altogether free from blame in this matter. It has not given its recognition, even now, to the science of teaching as an important branch of study and has neither a degree nor even a diploma to offer to any one who specialises in this subject. Then there is the question of head-masterships of important high schools. The Government of Bombay have reserved these not for the senior men in the service but for raw youths from England who have generally very little experience of school management. And by the time they manage to pick up some knowledge about the problems of the school they are transferred or promoted in utter disregard of the best interests of the school and a fresh man is ordered out to take their place. No wonder if in these circumstances Government high schools do not compare favourably with private institutions in the same locality and serve as models, not of what a high school ought to be, but rather of what should be avoided in high schools!

It is this desire to strengthen the European element in the service at the expense of efficiency that stands in the way of the improvement of our educational system. That is the real obstacle which will render the work of creating a University atmosphere difficult. It is the human element that is the most important but it is the human element that is the weakest in the whole scheme. Much is expected of the Royal Institute of Science in Bombay and so far as funds are concerned there is nothing to defeat such expectation. Our information, however, is that the higher appointments on the staff will go to those who are actually in the service. We do not object to men in service obtaining their promotion, but we must emphatically protest against what is meant to be a first-class institution being manned, for the most part, by third and fourth rate men. The educational service in Bombay has fallen on very evil days. Since the retirement of Dr. Selby there has not been in it a single man of eminence or, for the matter of that, even of strong convictions. How can the professors who belong to such a service ever hope to create a University atmosphere either in Bombay or elsewhere? We do not want to insist upon the appointment of Indians because they are Indians and we also expect that Government should not appoint Europeans simply because they happen to possess a European degree. It is men of the right sort that are wanted, men of high intellectual calibre, men who take a living interest in the subject they teach, men whose lives are inspired by high ideals. It is such men that will raise the standard of college studies, create a University atmosphere wherever they go, and inaugurate the era of University reform. Laboratories and libraries we must have by all means and we cannot do without them. But they play a subordinate part as compared to that of the men who work in them. The real problem is to get the right sort of men, and the difficulty of that problem has been recognised even by that ardent advocate of University reform, the *Times of India*. Our Bombay contemporary is not quite sure that canvassing will not get the better of merit in the selection of men. It is this which has to be avoided—canvassing or influence—and we earnestly request the friends of University reform in Bombay to bring all constitutional pressure to bear upon Government to select good and capable men. Without such men, University reform may be 'a delusion and a snare.'

Reviews and Notices.

THE BEGINNERS' ENGLISH GRAMMAR, BY F. W. HARRISON AND ELIZABETH HARRISON, WITH INTRODUCTION BY S. A. BURSTALL. (LONGMANS, GREEN & Co.) 1s. 6d.

This little book is written for children of ten to thirteen and is intended as an introduction to formal grammar. It presumes acquaintance with simple correct language as a starting equipment. The novelty of the book lies in the use of the terminology advised in the report of the joint committee on grammatical terminology. It treats the mechanics of grammar in an easy conversational way. So far as it goes it is excellent.

The matter is of the old type of parsing, analysis and classification of parts of speech. Usage and meaning find little place in the book. In so far as they are treated, there is inadequacy, and for this reason the book is of small use to foreign students. To take an instance: the 'genitive case,' the form of the noun in 's and the form with 'of,' are not distinguished even by the simple statement that the former is used mainly of animate objects, the latter of inanimate. The correct usage of the different tenses does not seem to be touched on. The articles are let pass with the old and altogether inadequate distinction of the particularizing, definite article from the indefinite. The authors do not apparently recognize the more modern treatment of English grammar—e.g. in Sweet's New English Grammar. For foreign pupils at any rate meaning must be included in a grammar even of the simplest kind. Even for English children reflexion on meaning must we think be of more interest, and be more stimulating than these cut and dried reasons for the names of English parts of speech.

A PRIMER OF ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS, BY WILFRID C. THORLEY. (MACMILLAN & Co.)

This is a new edition of a book which has evidently taken on. It is an excellent book. The first part is devoted mainly to the practical purposes of learning a foreign language: the second part to extracts from standard authors. It is however scarcely suited to class work in Indian schools. It is intended for students of commercial schools, who are of an age greater than that of pupils in our secondary schools. The aim of the book is to provide a working knowledge of common English in daily use. Current idiom, colloquial expressions, even slang are included in the lessons.

It should be in all school libraries; for teachers will find much that is illuminating and instructive, e.g., words suitable to various employments, the office, the laundry, the railway journey, steamship-travelling. It of course deals with the weather, the seasons of the year, time, meals, &c. It makes in short a great point of *realien*.

The lessons on grammar, though brief, are practical. Some valuable hints, for instance, will be found concerning the idiomatic use of prepositions such as, *in, on, at, by, with, through*, the use of the gerund with prepositions. The book is altogether a valuable, practical book of great use to teachers.

A BOTANY FOR INDIA, BY P. F. FYSON. PUBLISHED BY THE CHRISTIAN LITERATURE SOCIETY FOR INDIA (MADRAS BRANCH). Price Rs. 3.

This is an excellent little book on Indian Botany written by Mr. P. F. Fyson, B.A., F.L.S., Professor of Biology, Presidency College, Madras, and forms a good text-book for the School Final and Intermediate Courses. It is written in very simple language with a minimum of technical terms; and where technical terms are necessary, they are introduced in such a way as to make them least forbidding. Throughout the book, there is a suitable correlation of physiology with morphology unlike many text-books where these two portions are dealt with separately. This treatment is a proper one, for morphology, treated separately, would be a dull, lifeless and meaningless study for the beginner. Thus the author in the first chapter describes the different parts of the plant, and in the next, the work performed by these parts, and so on. Having laid this foundation he proceeds to deal with the subject in its different aspects. Here, besides dealing with the nature and work of the different parts of the plant, he takes the student to a consideration of such more advanced portions of the subject as homology, distribution of plants, species and genus, etc.

In the second portion he introduces the student to the classification of plants. His choice of the Natural Orders is very good, as they are the most commonly occurring ones of the country. The principle of advancing from the particular to the general is well observed here. For each order the author starts with a detailed consideration of a few types and then goes on to a description of the characteristics of the order in a general way. After this he gives a cursory account of the other common plants belonging to the order.

He emphasises upon the importance in classification of the vegetative characters also "which though not common to all the members of a family or confined to it alone, are yet very distinctive," as for instance, "all herbs with pinnate or trifoliate leaves and pulvinus" belong "to the Papilionaceæ."

In the second part the plants are described in technical terms. In addition to this, the author might have, with advantage, instructed the student as to the way in which plants are to be described.

It would perhaps be an advantage if the vernacular names of the common plants, wherever known, had been given with the Latin names, as under the cloak of their Latin names, even the most common plants are not recognised by the Indian beginner. Again the author might have included illustrations of even the common and easily procurable plants as these again, like the vernacular names, might enable him to find out the plants in the field.

There are a few minor mistakes such as "Taraxum" for "Taraxacum," "Emergencies" for "Emergences," etc. The illustration of *Heliotropium indicum* is not natural, as the upper, flowering, side of the scorpioid cyme ought to face the sky.

Much pains have been bestowed by the author on collecting suitable examples for his book and bringing them under the different headings. On the whole, the book is a most systematic and lucidly written text-book of elementary Indian Botany and will, we are sure, be welcomed as a boon, by all students of Indian Botany and also by teachers who have to do with the School Final, Intermediate and other examinations.

ADVANCED ENGLISH GRAMMAR THROUGH COMPOSITION, BY JOHN D. ROSE, M.A., RECTOR OF THE KIRKCALDY HIGH SCHOOL, LONDON. (G. BELL AND SONS, 1912.) 2s. 6d.

The author has illustrated principles and tried to make them understood through the examples. It is sound in theory; but, at the same time the general treatment is on the lines of the books with which we are already familiar. A part of speech is taken and classified. It is three years since the idea has been widely spread in this Madras Presidency that English Grammar should be taught through text-books and a book on English Grammar should be rather made one of reference than regular treatment in class. To such teachers

as have become familiar with it, this new work offers no special facility.

The chapter on the "History of English Language" is not required in Secondary Schools of this Presidency. It may be useful in college classes though the matter is too little for them.

The Chapters on Prosody—XXIII and XXIV—are the most useful ones. They are sure to help the Intermediate students of the Madras University. They will welcome the easy introduction to this difficult subject in a foreign language.

The book is evidently meant to be used in a certain class of schools in England.

A SHORTER GEOMETRY, BY C. GODFREY, M. V. O., M.A. AND A. W. SIDDONS, M.A. CROWN 8VO. CLOTH, PP. XXII + 302. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS.) Price 2s. 6d.

To those that have been acquainted with the Elementary Geometry, Practical and Theoretical, by the above authors, the present book needs no special recommendation. It is but the old book in essence, and is 87 pages shorter, many of the copious drawing exercises of the Elementary Geometry being severely cut down. It is divided into three stages "in accordance with the recommendations of the Board of Education (the teaching of Geometry and Graphic Algebra, Circular 711, March 1909)."

The first two stages are "identical with the *Geometry for Beginners* by the same authors." The first stage deals with the fundamental concepts of Geometry, viz., ideas of solids, surfaces, lines, angles and direction. The second stage is designed to help the learner to find out the fundamental truths about angles at a point, angles of a polygon, parallelism, and congruence of triangles, by experiment and intuition. A list of such propositions is given at the beginning of the third stage, wherein subsequent propositions are proved logically. Formal proofs of the facts of the second stage are given in an appendix at the end of the book, because the truths are very clear, as clear "as the difference between white and black" and formal proofs of the same will mystify the young learner. To facilitate reference in subsequent work, the fundamental propositions are numbered, the numbers of all propositions being the same as in the Elementary Geometry. The fundamental propositions are followed up by "ruler and compass constructions," as making of angles, bisection of angles and lines, drawing of perpendiculars and construction of triangles from given data. The above, together with the propositions relating to properties of parallelograms,

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

An Educational Conference at Vizagapatam.—

At the Secondary Educational Conference of Teachers of the First Circle held in the Mrs. A. V. N. College, Vizagapatam, on the 9th, 10th and 11th May, 1912, under the presidency of Moulavi Muhammad Anzam Sahib Bahadur, B.A., Inspector of Schools, First Circle, Waltair, the following resolutions have been passed:—

I. That this Conference views with apprehension the increasing importance attached to marks obtained by pupils at the S. S. L. C. Public Examination as compared with those obtained by them in the school, e.g., (1) Commissioner for Government Examinations in admitting candidates for the Special Tests, (2) instructions of Syndicate for students in Intermediate classes; and is of opinion that such a course is likely to make the teachers lose confidence in their own marks and thus defeat the object of the scheme.

II. That in view of the fact that short-sightedness and other forms of defective vision are on the increase among school boys, because some of the reading books are badly printed and others in small and broken type, the Conference respectfully requests the Director of Public Instruction to ask the Government to direct its medical officers to conduct periodically the medical examination of the school boys and to forbid the recognition of vernacular books printed in a type smaller than pica.

III. (a) That in Telugu (language and non-language) books for pupils up to the IV Form external sandhi may be dropped.

(b) That in Telugu books intended for extra reading or dealing with non-language subjects the external sandhi may be dropped.

(c) That in the Telugu Composition of public the use of అ and c should not be insisted upon.

(d) That in Telugu books and in the Composition of pupils of the Secondary School forms వచ్చినాన, వాటికి, ఇంతానుంచి, వెళ్లే, అయితే రావడము should be allowed.

(e) That in the Telugu Composition of pupils and in the books on non-language subjects the style used in 'కాశ్యపశత్రు' of Knugula Veeraswamy should be allowed.

IV. That in view of the fact that in the S. S. L. C. notifications, one of the following languages has prevented several students from appearing in two languages at the Public Examination, e.g. Telugu and Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu, Hindustani and Persian, this Conference is of opinion that the word 'one' be changed into 'one or more.'

intercepts on parallels and two loci form Book I. Book II deals with areas of parallelograms and triangles, the theorem of Pythagoras, its converse and extension. The 2 pages of the Elementary Geometry explaining co-ordinates are omitted in the present book, though the co-ordinate notation is used. Book III deals with circles and Book IV with similarity.

We would object to the use of the term, 'common tangent' (page 95) at that stage. We might also object to the method of drawing a parallel given in the same page, as we think, it would not compare favourably, in point of accuracy, with the other ordinary methods. We might also point out that the Geometric Illustration of Algebraic Identities need not be postponed till after the extension of the Theorem of Pythagoras, as we think its proper place is immediately after the explanation of Area and its unit.

One serious want felt about the Elementary Geometry was the paucity of theoretical exercises; and this defect has been somewhat remedied in the Shorter Geometry, which, in its present form, is eminently fitted for use as a text-book in High Schools.

THE POETICAL SELECTIONS FOR THE MATRICULATION AND SCHOOL FINAL EXAMINATIONS, 1913, BY R. SRINIVASACHARI, B.A. AND S. KAMALASANAN, B.A., AND REVISED BY B. V. KAMESWARA AIYAR, M.A. PRINTED AT THE SRI VIDYA PRESS, KUMBAKONAM AND PUBLISHED BY M. A. SUBBIAR, BOOK-SELLER, PUDUKOTAH. Price Rs. 6.

The book contains full and clear notes on the poetical selections for the Matriculation and School Final Examinations. The introductions to the poems and the concise biographical sketches of the poets will be really helpful to the young readers of the selections. The notes leave nothing to be desired whether by way of allusions, explanations or illustrations. They do to the pupil what a teacher is expected to do to him. This, in our opinion, is the defect of the notes. As Mr. B. V. Kameswara Aiyar himself says in his Introduction: "If anything, the notes appear.....to be a trifle too full, not leaving much for students' self-help." By being given too much, it is needless to say, that the student is deprived of the chance of development by self-help, which of all others, needs to be encouraged and fostered in the Indian student. We hope that when the authors make a similar attempt they will give help where only help is needed and leave the rest to be supplied by the pupils themselves.

V. That this Conference is of opinion that from the scope of English History (Group C) for the S. S. L. C. Public Examination the outlines of English History be omitted and that a special portion alone be prescribed and that the outlines of the subject be transferred to Group B.

VI. The Conference is of opinion that in S. S. L. C. Public Examination in Physics and Chemistry, (the papers on the theory) and Algebra and Geometry, more option should be given than at present; and that in the practical paper in Chemistry and Physics there should be some option especially as the practical test is to be made compulsory in the future.

VII. That in the Public Examination for the S. S. L. Certificate in Botany, a practical test take the place of the written examination.

VIII. That this Conference, recognising the importance of religious and moral instruction to the young, recommends that the heads of schools make this subject a part of the curriculum, if it is not already so.

The first Indian Lady M.B. & C.M.—Miss C. N. Muthulakshmi Ammal who has passed the recent final M.B. & C.M. of the Madras University is a native of Pudukotah. She received her early education in the pial schools in the town of Pudukotah. She appeared for the Lower Secondary Examination and passed it with Science as the optional. In 1903, that is, the third year after passing the Lower Secondary she prepared at home for the Matriculation Examination. In December 1903 she appeared for the Matriculation as a private candidate after getting exemption from the Syndicate. Only about 10 passed that year out of about 90 that appeared from the Rajah's College. She then secured admission into the College under the special commands of H.H. The Rajah. Her progress in her College studies was steady and highly satisfactory all round. She was particularly good in English composition so much so that her essays were admired for the excellence of both matter and manner. She passed the First in Arts Examination in December 1905. She then applied to the Pudukottah Durbar for a stipend to enable her to study for M.B. & C.M. in the Madras Medical College. H. H. The Rajah was pleased to sanction a monthly stipend of Rs. 50 for five years and the cost of books was also sanctioned. She joined the Medical College in July 1907 for M.B. & C.M. Very discouraging were the accounts of the arduous nature of the M.B. & C.M. course and it was said by those who had experienced the difficulties attending the course that it was too much for a girl of her age and that she would completely break down under it and that she could be contented with the L.M. & S.

But from the moment she was admitted she took to her duties with a singleness of purpose and did her theoretical and practical work to the entire satisfaction of her Professors. She passed the first, second, third and the final M.B. successively with

credit, secured honours certificates in certain subjects and also Sibthorpe's prize in surgery. Out of about 50 students that started with her in the M.B. & C.M. course in 1907 only 6 survived for the final examination of whom only 3 passed, Muthulakshmi being the first of them. She has secured three gold medals, the Bharatha Latchmi, Sir Ramaswamy, and Lady Grant Duff. It would appear she is to take charge of the Ladies' Hospital at Pudukotah.

Sanskrit Education in Madras.—The Government of Madras have passed orders on the proposals for the improvement of Sanskrit education submitted by the Committee which dealt with the report of the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Sanskrit Schools on his tour in Northern India. In their order, the Government state:—

The Government have given careful consideration to the proposals on the subject submitted by the Committee which dealt with the report of the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Sanskrit Schools on his tour in Northern India and are now pleased to sanction the recommendations made by the Director of Public Instruction, namely:—

(1) That for the purposes of inspection and recognition Sanskrit schools shall in future be classified into three grades—collegiate, advanced and elementary, the courses of studies being fixed on the lines indicated in Memorandum No. 1847—2, dated the 3rd October, 1911; (2) that a preliminary examination shall be held at the end of the advanced course for the purpose of testing the qualifications of candidates for admission into a college; (3) that colleges and advanced schools shall be aided under Chapter VI of the Grant-in-Aid Code, the amount of grant for each institution being fixed by the Director of Public Instruction; (4) that elementary schools shall be aided on a special system, the grant being fixed at the rate of Re. 1 per year for each pupil in average daily attendance; and (5) that a system of scholarships shall be instituted in accordance with the proposals embodied in paragraph 3 of Dr. Bourne's letter, dated the 23rd December, 1911.

Scholarships.—In the colleges thirty scholarships may be instituted for award to those pupils who pass highest at the preliminary examination. I have already pointed out that the college course extends over four years and that there will be only one batch of students for these four years, there being no admissions in the intervening years. The amount required for the proposed thirty scholarships, may be made to vary in the four different years. The monthly rate of scholarship per pupil may be Rs. 7 in the first year, Rs. 8 in the second year, Rs. 9 in the third year and Rs. 10 in the fourth.

In advanced schools 72 scholarships may be instituted for the present to be awarded to the most promising pupils in elementary schools. As the course of study in these schools extends over six years, it is proposed to allot twelve scholarships in each of the six classes of the monthly value of Rs. 2

in three lower classes and of Rs. 3 in the next three higher classes.

The above scholarships may be awarded by the Director on the recommendation of the Inspector of Sanskrit Schools. It should be competent to the Director to increase or decrease the number of scholarships as occasion arises. An average sum of Rs. 5,220 will be required for payment of scholarships.

The Government are further pleased to sanction strengthening of the agency for the inspection of Sanskrit schools by the appointment of two Supervisors on Rs. 50 each, who will be included in the order of Supervisors of Elementary Schools. The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to state whether it will not suffice to allow these Supervisors the concession specified in Article 1045 of the Civil Service Regulations, in addition to the permanent monthly travelling allowance of Rs. 12-8 sanctioned for Supervisors. If it is proposed to give them a permanent monthly travelling allowance of Rs. 25 per mensem, the sanction of the Government of India will be requisite.

The designation of the Sub-Assistant Inspector should be 'Superintendent of Sanskrit Schools and Colleges.'

The rules framed by the Committee should be revised in accordance with these orders and in doing so provision should be made for the maintenance of a register showing the subsequent career of students.

As soon as final orders on the Budget estimate for 1912-13 have been issued, the Director of Public Instruction should submit reappropriation statements providing for the expenditure incurred or anticipated during the current and ensuing financial years in connection with the scheme now sanctioned.

BOMBAY.

A Ladies' College for Bombay.—An important scheme is under contemplation to establish a College at Bombay in connection with the Jesuit Fathers. The scheme proposed, which is still in embryo, is to establish a college for girls where a higher standard of University education may be obtained. There is no College in India, exclusively for young ladies, and if a young lady wishes to further her High School education, she has to attend College along with young men of different denominations. It is thought that if a separate College existed there would then be a greater number of lady candidates appearing for University degrees. In the absence of this, parents discontinue sending girls to the College, the chief objection being that they would have to mix with all classes of young men, whereas if an institution existed purely and solely for young ladies, parents would greatly appreciate it and a very important objection will be removed. The scheme meets with the approval of the Governor and the Roman Catholic Archbishop is greatly

interested. Details of the project which require serious consideration are not yet ready for official submission to the Government.

The goal of University Reforms.—The *Times of India* urges in the course of an interesting article on the goal of University reform in Bombay, that the University should institute lectureships for M. A. in languages, history and economics, mathematics and philosophy. It excludes science as the needs of science instruction are satisfied or will be, by the Royal Institute of Science in Bombay and the Ranchodlal Science Institute at Ahmedabad. And it urges the need for the University to take action in the direction suggested in view of the demands made on colleges to equip themselves for the B. A. Honours teaching and their consequent inability for the want of means to satisfy the requirements of the M. A. degree also. Our contemporary suggests the appointment of a Senate Committee to draw up a scheme and approach Government for funds, for the lectureships as well as the enlargement of the University library which at present is inadequate. The *Times of India* would not object to the lectures being delivered at Poona, Ahmedabad and Karachi besides Bombay, but it prefers their concentration at the seat of the University to create a 'University atmosphere.' Next, our contemporary pleads for the establishment of at least two more colleges, one at Bombay and one in the Karnatic districts, as the institutions are over-crowded at present and many young men are unable to get admission. Lastly, it advocates the appointment of a wholtime Inspector of Colleges who, besides inspecting colleges, will act as Adviser to the University students. The Indian community should feel grateful to our contemporary for its keen interest in the high education of our young men, unusual with Anglo-Indian papers.

—The Leader.

CALCUTTA.

Association for the Advancement of Scientific and Industrial Education.—The ninth annual meeting of the Central Council of the Association for the Advancement of Scientific and Industrial Education of Bengal was held in Calcutta recently under the presidency of the Maharaja of Burdwan. From the President's opening speech as well as the indefatigable founder Secretary Rai Bahadur Babu Jogendra Chandra Ghosh's report, we glean that of the large number of young men sent out since the establishment of the Association up-to-date, 81 have returned, of whom 53 have secured suitable employments, a position which by no means warrants Mr. Cox's all too pessimistic apprehensions as to technical scholars to foreign countries not finding work on their return. The Association has helped to start 20 new industries besides quietly solving in a way the sea-voyage question. There are 48 active and working District

Committees including one at Orissa and one so far away as Burma. The amount of annual scholarships promised is Rs. 20,000. The Government in appreciation of the very good work that the Association is doing has made a yearly grant of Rs. 5,000. A very large number of schools and colleges and students' messes have taken up enthusiastically the Four Annas Fund scheme. Students have been sent by the Association to America, Great Britain, France, Germany and Japan. Their subjects of study have been agriculture, sericulture, tanning, technical and electrical engineering, mining, enamelling, pharmacy, practical chemistry, spinning, weaving and the manufacture of matches, soaps, perfumes, buttons and glass. This year 29 students representing different communities are going to England, America, France, Germany, Sweden and Japan, scholarships ranging from Rs. 25 to Rs. 100 a month have been granted to 11 boys, and the passages of 18 have been paid for by the Association. What a record of solid good work does it not show?

New Professorships at Calcutta University.—With reference to the Government of India's disapproval of the establishment of a professorship of Indian History at the Calcutta University, it now transpires that the Government of India have expressed willingness to establish two professorships, and it has been decided to have in addition to professorship of mathematics a chair of philosophy. The Government stated in their letter that there was no objection to the establishment of the chair of Indian History if the University provided the funds; and a scheme is now on foot with that end in view.

ALLAHABAD.

Election of Fellows by Registered Graduates.

1. As soon as possible after the 30th of June in each year, the Registrar shall report to the Chancellor the number of vacancies among ordinary Fellows elected under section 6 (2) (a) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, which have already occurred, or which will occur in course of the calendar year. The Registrar shall also communicate the said information to each registered graduate resident in India.

2. Once in every year on such date as the Chancellor may appoint in this behalf, there shall, if necessary, be an election to fill any vacancy among the ordinary Fellows to be elected by registered graduates.

3. As soon as the Chancellor has fixed the date for the election of ordinary Fellows under section 6 (2) (a) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, the Registrar shall circulate a notice to every registered graduate resident in India, stating the number of vacancies, and that candidates may be nominated for election within a time to be named in the

notice. Such time shall be not less than a fortnight from the date of the issue of the notice.

4. Within the said time any registered graduate may propose a candidate for election as an ordinary Fellow. The proposal must be seconded by another registered graduate, and shall be deposited in the office of the Registrar before the expiry of the time fixed in the notice issued under rule 3. Each registered graduate shall be entitled to nominate as many candidates for election as there are vacancies. In the nomination form the proposer will be required to state that the candidate is willing to serve as a Fellow.

5. On the expiration of the period fixed by the notice, the Registrar shall, after scrutiny of the nominations received, prepare and send to every registered graduate resident in India, a list of candidates duly nominated, together with a voting paper, and shall also specify the time within which votes must be deposited with him.

6. The voting paper must be signed by the voter and shall be placed in a sealed cover superscribed 'voting paper for the election of ordinary Fellows by registered graduates,' and either delivered in person to the Registrar at the University office, or sent by registered post to him. The voting paper must reach the Registrar before the expiry of the time fixed within which votes will be received.

7. The Registrar shall deposit all covers containing voting papers in a safe in his office, until the time fixed by the Syndicate for opening them, and for scrutinising and counting the votes.

8. The Syndicate shall appoint two members of the Senate to act with the Registrar in the scrutiny and counting of the votes.

9. At the time fixed for opening the covers of the voting papers, the covers shall be opened by the Registrar in the presence of the said members, and the voting papers shall then be duly scrutinised.

10. Every registered graduate whose name is on the register shall be entitled to vote. Each voter shall be entitled to as many votes as there are vacancies, but he shall not record more than one vote for any one of the candidates. If more than one vote be recorded by a voter for the same candidate, such votes shall be reckoned as one vote. If the voter records more votes than the number of vacancies, his vote shall be cancelled. The decision of the Registrar and two members of the Senate appointed to act with him shall be final as to the validity of any votes recorded. In case of difference of opinion between them, the decision shall be in accordance with the opinion of the majority.

11. After the scrutiny is completed and the votes have been counted, a statement shall be prepared for submission to the Chancellor, showing the number of votes received by each candidate. Such statement shall be signed by the Registrar and the said two members of the Senate. Subject to the Chancellor's approval, candidates who have received the largest number of votes shall be deemed to be elected up to the number of vacancies available. In

the event of two or more candidates obtaining an equal number of votes, the Chancellor shall decide which of them shall be deemed to be elected.

12. The voting papers shall be preserved in the Registrar's office after the election, till such time as the Syndicate may direct.

Primary Education Activity in Benares.

Several preliminary public meetings in connection with primary education were held here. The result of these meetings has been the formation of a primary education society in Benares. The society has already opened eight schools within the last three weeks and the mohallah committees are being organised. If the movement proceeds at the same rate Benares will soon have schools in most of its mohallahs. Arrangements are being also made for opening schools in the villages of Benares district.

The success of the movement has been due firstly to the work of Mr. Gokhale and secondly because of the energy and enthusiasm of Mr. Lakshmi Chand, M.A., M.Sc., who took up the practical work of organisation at the right time when the country was on the crest of a wave of enthusiasm for true primary education.

The idea has by the time secured the co-operation of almost every important man in Benares. The society was started by the one, who got his training in the practical and self-reliant West, mainly with the idea of its serving as an example of self-help which might with the greatest benefit to the country be adopted in almost all the towns and cities.

Benares has begun the work and the leading men of Benares have come forward, as will appear from the fact that its President is Rai Bahadur Pandit Maharaja Narayan Shivapuri and Prof. Jamshedjee N. Unwala, M.A., F.N.B., Raja Munshi Madho Lal, C.S.I., B. Moti Chand and Mirza Akhtar Bakht are Vice-Presidents. Mr. Lakshmi Chand, M.A., M.Sc., F.C.S., A.M.S.I., is the Secretary. Many other influential men, both Hindu and Mahomedan, are on the managing committee.

MYSORE.

A model Anglo-Hindustani School.—The establishment of a model Anglo-Hindustani School at Bangalore at a cost of Rs. 203 per mensem has been sanctioned by the Mysore Government with effect from the date of the re-opening of schools after the summer vacation. The separate Hindustani classes now maintained in the Government Anglo-Vernacular School, Bangalore, will be abolished leaving only a Hindustani Munshi for the High School Section. The present Anglo-Hindustani School, Bangalore, will also be reduced to the status of a primary school on the scale of establishment recommended by the Inspector-General. The abolition of the Hindustani classes from the Anglo-Vernacular School and the reduction of the present Anglo-Hindustani School to

the status of a primary school, will result in a saving of Rs. 129 per mensem, which will be made available for meeting a portion of the cost of the new Anglo-Hindustani School as proposed by the Inspector-General. The balance required, viz., Rs. 74 per mensem, will be included in the Education State Fund Budget for 1912-13.

Education in Mysore.—From the Government Review on the report of the Inspector-General of Education for 1910-11 we learn that the number of public institutions rose from 2416 to 2460 while the number of private institutions fell from 1876 to 1807. The number of pupils in public institutions increased from 113785 to 115249 while the number in the private schools fell down from 23944 to 22904. The decrease in the number of private schools and in the number of pupils attending those schools has not been satisfactorily accounted for. The total number of institutions, public and private, thus decreased by 25 while the total number of pupils rose by 424. The percentage of boys under instruction to the male population of school-going age fell from 28.06 to 27.9 while the percentage of female pupils to the female population of school-going age rose from 5.4 to 5.6. The expenditure increased from Rs. 18,38,091 to Rs. 18,79,133 of which amount Rs. 11,81,333 was met from the State revenues.

Collegiate education continued to make satisfactory progress. The State maintains three colleges and the number of students in these increased from 391 to 438 including four female students. The results in the B.A. and Intermediate Examinations were satisfactory. At the latter examination one Brahmin Lady student from the Maharanees' College was successful. She is now continuing her studies for the B.A. in the same College. The expenditure on the Colleges was Rs. 1,36,673 against Rs. 1,21,494 in the year preceding.

The number of boys receiving secondary education increased from 14,294 to 14,772. In the year under review, as in the year 1910-11, the number of High Schools for boys was 14 of which 10 were Government institutions and 4 Aided schools. The results achieved by the High Schools, the Government review adds, were not satisfactory and the Inspector-General has been requested by Government to study the causes which led to these poor results.

The number of pupils undergoing industrial training rose from 1,230 to 1,234—a very slight increase—although the number of schools decreased by one.

Muhammadan education made some progress. The number of Muhammadan schools increased from 307 to 310 and the total number of pupils from 17,900 to 18,632 of whom 13,957 were boys and 4,695 were girls. The percentages of Muhammadan boys and girls receiving instruction to the total male and female population of school-going ages increased from 64.7 to 66.06 in the case of boys and from 22.9 to 24.55 in the case of girls.

The new Government High School.—The new Government High School in Bangalore is nearing completion. The cost of building alone has cost the Government, Rs. 180,000. The cost of furniture will bring the expenditure to 2 lacs.

TRAVANCORE.

Government Proceedings.—His Highness' Government have passed the following proceedings:—His Highness' Government approve of the proposal of the Acting Director of Public Instruction and direct that all Secondary Schools for boys, except the model school attached to the Teachers' College, Trivandrum, be put under the control of the Inspector of Secondary Schools, with effect from the 1st Edavam 1087 M. E. (14th May 1912.) The Inspectors of Elementary Schools will be relieved of their control over the Lower Grade Secondary Schools for boys from that date.

(2) The Government agree with the Acting Director that the Inspector of Secondary Schools should be given an Assistant. They therefore sanction the appointment of an Assistant Inspector of Secondary Schools on Rs. 200—20-1-300. This officer will be permitted to travel throughout the State for purposes of inspection, under the orders of the Inspector of Secondary Schools, and he will be allowed travelling allowance at the rates sanctioned to the Inspectors of Elementary Schools.

(3) The Assistant Inspector of Secondary Schools may, when so required by the Inspector, sign routine communications for the Inspector.

(4) The Government also sanction the office establishment of the Inspector of Secondary Schools being revised by the addition of a clerk on Rs. 25, and two peons on Rs. 7 each per mensem.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

A public meeting of Indians to congratulate the two new Universities in India.—A public meeting of Indian residents in the University of Cambridge and other sympathisers was recently held at Cambridge. It was convened at the request of prominent Indian students. Prof. E. J. Rapson, Professor of Sanskrit in the University, took the chair.

The President opened the proceedings with a most sympathetic and excellent address. He said: 'We are met here to send our heartiest congratulations to the two new Universities which have been started in India.' After going over the history of the movement, he emphasised the fact that religious toleration would be carried out in both Universities. There were many ties, he said, connecting Aligarh with Cambridge; in 1884-5 he remembered letters from Aligarh used to appear in the *Cambridge Review*. He emphasised the value of the residential system which was to be adopted, and gave the example of the growing importance attached to it by the University of London, which had been a purely examining body.

His firm conviction was that the work which both the Central Hindu College and Aligarh were doing needed a better and larger scope. Human beings are not like potter's clay, but like trees on which new stocks could be engrafted and it was a mistake with English education in India as it has been given since Lord Macaulay's famous minute that it tried to start entirely with new ideas and cut us off from the past. 'The value of the new Universities would be in wisely uniting the culture of both East and West. 'The object of a University was to produce citizens,' and he fitly concluded with the words used in the University sermons, 'from the new Indian Universities, may there never be wanting men to serve God both in Church and State.'

Mr. I. J. Sorabji (Fitz. Hall) moved the first resolution, 'that this meeting expresses itself in favour of the new Universities in India and requests its President to send to their organisers, messages of cordial approval of their ideals and hearty encouragement of their schemes.'

In the course of a long speech, Mr. Sorabji gave a history of the growth of the Central Hindu College of Benares, and said there was no anti-Moslem feeling at the Hindu College. The teaching of religion he defended by saying that only by learning their ancient faith could Indians be made to love their country.

The motion was seconded by Mr. A. K. Sherwani (Peter-house) who said that the idea of a University was no new one in the East, as could be seen from the ancient seats of learning at Baghdad and Cordova. He gave a history of Aligarh which was originated by Sir Syed Ahmed. He proudly pointed out that though it was called a Mahomedan College, it was not entirely sectarian, 200 students in the College being Hindus.

The second motion was proposed by Mr. Shauddin (Fitz. Hall) and seconded by Mr. Prakasa (Trinity) that subscriptions be collected from Indian members of the University towards the funds of the two Universities, the proceeds to be equally divided between the two.

Both the resolutions were adopted unanimously and the meeting adjourned with a hearty vote of thanks to the chair.

Indian Students in London. The work of a Useful 'Aid Committee.'—The first annual report has been issued of the Distressed Indian Students Aid Committee of which Sir James Wilson, formerly Financial Commissioner in the Punjab, is Chairman, and Mrs. Herbert Whyte, Secretary. The sum of £87 has been received in donations and subscriptions, and the Secretary of State for India made an advance of £100 to be repaid on recovery of loans to students. Thirty-eight applications for assistance were considered, and the sum of £172 was advanced to 12 students, of which £64 had been repaid by the end of the year by five students. Those applications were rejected which did not come from men of the student class or which asked for large sums to enable the applicants to continue their education—a purpose foreign to the objects of the organisation. The main

object of the Committee is to send back to India youths whose stay in Europe is no longer desirable, and in the year under notice five such students were repatriated. There are now (it is stated) about 1,700 Indian students in the United Kingdom, of whom 1,000 are in London. The number who get into difficulties is comparatively small, but the Committee has met with painful cases, and they urge parents not to allow their sons to come to England until full provision has been made. The report estimates the amount required at from £866 to £1,000.

The National Association of Head Teachers —

At the Lancashire meeting of the National Association of Head Teachers which was held recently in Manchester, Mr. J. L. Paton, High Master of the Manchester Grammar School, said that educational matters in the country had hitherto run far too much in parallel strata. There had been one education for the rich and another for the poor. The education had been like their Railway system. There had been a first and a third class, in which the occupants of the one and the other travelled along the same high road but were separate and never mixed. Now they were becoming conscious that a dualism of this kind could not be accepted as a national system, and a step towards reform had been taken by the Regulation of the Board of Education which prescribed that all Secondary Schools receiving the full grant from the Board

should admit 25 per cent. of free scholars from the Public Elementary Schools. By this Regulation it was recognized that the Primary Schools of the people must be the basis of a new system which was to offer an open career to the talents. The Public Elementary School with its five million children must be taken as the broad base on which to build. The only line which ought to be drawn in a national system of education worthy the name was not a line of money but a line of ability. Higher education was not for those who had the purse to afford it, but for those who had the brains to profit by it. The age at which by common consent the transfer from the Primary to the Secondary School was fixed was about 12 years, and it was not desirable that it should be postponed. The result of postponing it till after 12 years was that on a scholar entering the Secondary School there came a time of great pressure, and the average duration of Secondary School life was lamentably short for its purpose. He suggested that in the Elementary School there should be a bifurcation above the fourth standard, that was, at the age of ten, but he was aware that this was only possible in the higher schools. In a smaller school the child of literary linguistic promise ought to be transferred to the Secondary School at the age of ten. This represented a method of co-operation for which he believed the country was ready, and the general application of which would be a great gain to the national system of education.

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The Educational Review.

The most noteworthy educational event in South India during the current month is the Educational Conference of educationists that was held at Madura on the 2nd, 3rd and 4th instant under the auspices of the South India Teachers' Union. The Conference opened its proceedings with an address of welcome to the delegates of the Conference by Mr. S. Venkobacharyar, Principal, Madura College, on behalf of the Madura Teachers' Association, which formed the reception committee of the Conference. After the welcome address Mr. P. Lakshmi Narasu, Professor, Pachaiyappa's College, took the chair in virtue of his office as President of the South India Teachers' Union and delivered the presidential address to the Conference. The address is, as described by the Secretary of the South India Teachers' Union in its journal, "from start to finish suggestive and thoughtful and uncoloured by any partisan bias." The address covered very large ground, dealing with many of the vital educational problems affecting India.

Rightly did the President lay the greatest emphasis on the necessity of concerted action in improving the status of the teacher. It is the teacher that is everything in education and no pains can be spared to elevate his position. No doubt extraneous aids will be of value in the amelioration of the teachers' position in life, but in the last resort it must rest with the teacher alone what he can do for himself. Very little can be accomplished singly, but much can be done by united effort. It is our earnest desire that something should be done to create a real professional *esprit de corps* among teachers. Some of our teachers must make it a duty to stomp the country to

form teachers' associations. As the President said, "in these days of competition, it is almost imperative that individuals in every profession should combine to protect and safeguard their own interests. Have not the lawyers and the doctors in India combined together to safeguard their interests? Why should not the teachers combine to protect their own interests? Without co-operation and combination we shall not win proper satisfaction for our demands....Co-operation and organization would bring about results which no amount of clamouring and appealing would produce. We have all been reading recently about the organizations by which the labourers of England have been able to successfully demand higher wages from the capitalists. No doubt the method involves a certain amount of self-sacrifice on the part of those concerned, but has any progress been effected in any direction in this world without self-sacrifice?" Surely for their amelioration the teachers must put themselves to some sacrifice and make organised efforts.

The President's remarks about a pension fund managed by the Government for the benefit of teachers in private institutions are worthy of note. That pensions from an outside source may undermine the sturdy virtue of independence cannot be denied. Still it may be argued that a man can be independent and yet not insist upon paying personally for everything that he receives. The organization of modern society is so complex that no individual in any social group pays for everything that he receives. There are few in modern society who have not partaken of the benevolence of others. But the effect of the participation will be determined entirely by the spirit in which the benevolence is tendered. If the pension system is properly conducted, the

administrations should do nothing else than come to a judicial determination as to whether a specific individual has complied with the conditions or not. With such a principle underlying it a Government pension system for teachers in private institutions may prove a blessing. It has been pointed out that pensions have a tendency to lower wages, but we hope that any pension scheme which may be matured by the Government would not have this deleterious effect. The justification for a pension system is to be found not in its negative qualities, in its capability to prevent suffering, but in its ability to raise the quality of service among those who are assured of a pension. In facing the problem of individual and family support a teacher may put forth unusual intellectual forces for a few years, but it is against all human experience to suppose that distressing uncertainty as to his future will help for long the quality of his teaching.

Rightly did the President opine that undue importance was attached to the study of languages. He ought to have gone farther and pointed out the undue importance ascribed to grammatical and orthographic correctness demanded of the Indian student in the use of a foreign language. It is a perverse pedantry that considers it disreputable for any one to violate the ordinary forms of his mother-tongue or even of a foreign language like the English. They forget that neither Chaucer nor Spenser nor Shakespeare nor Carlyle wrote a 'correct' English and that the true object of cultivating a language is not to preserve as accurately as possible existing linguistic usage with its imperfections and absurdities but rather to develop and improve it in an appropriate manner.

XVIII

The methods suggested for improving the condition of our vernaculars are exactly the same as have been suggested in these columns. We have often pleaded for the reconstruction of our Universities upon a vernacular basis. In this presidency we ought to have at least five different teaching Universities for the five different Dravidian languages. No agreement seems to exist among teachers as to the position that the vernaculars should occupy in the secondary school course. There was considerable discussion on this question at the Conference. We believe that sooner the vernacular is made the medium of instruction in the B group subjects of the School Final Course the better would it be for the pupil and his vernacular. This aspect of the question has not received due attention from teachers, who yet bemoan frequently the deterioration of the vernaculars.

The diversity that exists between ideals and practice misleads people to regard any particular epoch in any country as irreligious. It is in the light of this experience that we should interpret the much ado about the lack of religion and morality in our schools and colleges. The very nature of education is to create a questioning spirit and it is no wonder that this spirit tends to diminish the adoration for the past, which is often the marked feature of religion. It is a mistaken idea that education may be treated like a bundle of faggots, from which each one may be taken and treated separately without any fundamental relationship between it and the others. Education is a single process and religious and moral instruction should harmonise with other instruction. We cannot employ the scientific method in teaching some subjects and exclude it from others. If the scientific method is the only method by which we can

arrive at truths which are helpful to mankind in anticipating the future, it must also be the method by which alone we can arrive at religious truths. Similarly for proper training in morals a harmonious environment is the first condition and not the mere teaching of moral precepts. We are therefore in perfect agreement with Mr. Lakshmi Narasu's views in the matter of religious and moral instruction. We very much wish that some steps had been taken by the Conference to have a conscience clause introduced into the Educational Code.

While there are various means at our disposal for augmenting the physical forces of the body, we have till now had no means of increasing mental capacity. It is indeed true that properly arranged exercise and a wise hygiene enables each individual to place himself in as satisfactory a condition as possible, but the narrow limits corresponding to the normal state can be crossed only temporarily by the aid of stimulants, which in the end do generally more harm than good.

Now, the recent investigations of Professor W. Weichardt of the University of Erlangen on the nature of physical and mental fatigue have proved that in the muscles of fatigued animals, there is a toxic product resulting from the decomposition of albumin. This product, called *kenotoxin*, has been prepared artificially, and a specific anti-toxin which neutralizes the action of kenotoxin has been found. When kenotoxin is injected under the skin of small animals, there is produced a fall of temperature, a slackening of respiration and a pronounced torpor. If the animals under experiment are previously treated with anti-kenotoxin, there is no slackening of respiration and they remain perfectly active.

Recent experiments made on man have shown that injections of anti-toxin augment not only his physical vigour but also the capacity for mental work. Dr. F. Lorentz conceived the idea of studying the action of this anti-toxin on the pupils of a class conducted by him. He attempted to determine on the one hand if the application of the method of Prof. Weichardt could furnish an exact biological measure of the fatigue of scholars and on the other hand if preparations containing the anti-toxin could serve as a means of influencing their mental capacities.

After verifying on himself the results obtained by Prof. Weichardt, Dr. F. Lorentz conducted methodical experiments on his pupils by means of arithmetical exercises, following a definite plan and completely eliminating the effect of suggestion. He sought specially to obtain quantitative results, measured by the time needed to obtain a result with a given number of figures, both in the state of perfect vigour and in the state of fatigue.

To estimate the worth of these results, Dr. Lorentz submitted to a statistical control the number of errors and the frequency of corrections. The errors, in the almost absolute absence of errors of ignorance, could be attributed only to the fatigue of the psychophysical mechanism; they are in general due to a diminution of attention and to the enfeeblement of the memory. The corrections are essentially symptoms of physiological fatigue, bodily lassitude, narrowing of the field of vision and diminution of the acuteness of vision.

The experiments conducted were as follow: Each pupil, having received a sheet containing problems for solution, was asked to begin the calculation when ordered. After finish-

ing his work, he was asked to stand at his place. These experiments were repeated twice, first before beginning the first lesson and secondly at the end of the fourth lesson. When no anti-kenotoxin was administered, the initial exercises were finished by 3 pupils in 5 minutes, by 33 pupils in 8 minutes, and by 16 pupils in 10 minutes, whereas the exercises at the end of the class were finished by 1 pupil in 5 minutes, 27 pupils in 8 minutes and by 23 pupils in 10 minutes. It is therefore clear that natural mental fatigue produces a diminution in the rapidity of calculation. Dr. Lorentz now tried the effect of inhalations of anti-kenotoxin (vaporised into the room) on the exercises given at the end of the class. He found that 3 pupils finished their work in 3 minutes, 31 pupils in 4 minutes and one pupil alone in 1 minute. This striking improvement in the capacities of all the pupils can be explained only by the absorption of minute quantities of anti-kenotoxin through the organs of respiration. On the other side, the improvement was shown by the better quality of the results obtained, that is to say, by a reduction in the number of errors and of corrections.

We can therefore say that the inhalation of anti-kenotoxin produces marked increase of mental vigour. Those of our readers who desire fuller information on this subject may refer to the Report of the IXth Annual Meeting of the German Association for School-hygiene (B. G. Teubner, Berlin, 1912).

Not many years ago the teachers in England thought that the methods of Euclid were defective and a reform movement was set on foot. Even physicists felt the need for reform in the teaching of mathematics. In the first volume of his *Electromagnetic Theory*, Oliver Heaviside wrote: "There is a society for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. I have no knowledge of its work ;

but as to the need of improvement there can be no question while the reign of Euclid continues. My own idea of a useful course is to begin with arithmetic, and then, not Euclid, but algebra. Next not Euclid, but practical geometry, solid as well as plane; not demonstrations, but to make acquaintance. Then, not Euclid, but elementary vectors, conjoined with algebra and applied to geometry. Addition first, then the scalar product. This covers a large ground. When more advanced bring in the vector product. Elementary calculus should go on simultaneously, and come into the vector algebraic geometry after a bit. Euclid might be an extra course for learned men like Homer. But Euclid for children is barbarous." Such was the prevalent opinion. The teaching of geometry by practical methods was considered to be the right method and Euclid was given up. With the giving up of Euclid disappeared also the necessity for any particular sequence in the teaching of propositions, and each teacher was allowed to employ his own sequence. Strangely before the lapse of ten years there is a cry again for a standardised sequence. No less a mathematician than Prof. G. H. Bryan suggests that Euclid's sequence might be restored with advantage, certain propositions being omitted. It is stated that the absence of a standardised sequence of propositions has led to incoherence and lack of precision in theoretical geometry, and that examiners are at a loss to gauge precisely the knowledge of the candidates owing to a lack of uniformity in the citing of authorities. According to Prof. G. H. Bryan the demand for a sequence in geometry arises from the following considerations:—

1. "A large proportion of the theorems in higher mathematics spring directly from the fundamental truths of geometry. In such cases the only condition necessary for logical

sequence is that the required geometry should be studied first.

2. "It is always the fashion to teach geometry on a deductive basis to a far greater extent than other subjects. No one teaches algebra by deductive methods, at any rate except to a very limited extent, nor are algebra questions usually set involving "proofs" of the fundamental laws.

3. "The need for a sequence is further accentuated by the sub-division of the subject into watertight compartments, called propositions, enclosed in larger compartments called books, each of the small compartments having a distinctive heading at the top and ending in Q.E.D., either written or implied."

If we remember aright, more than a year ago the question of a fixed sequence in geometry was considered at one of the meetings of the Mathematics and Physics Section of the Madras Teachers' Guild. There was diversity of opinion and a high school teacher came forward with a specially prepared sequence, which could not be accepted by others. If for the modern teaching of geometry no fixed sequence of propositions is needed, we do not see any reason for forcing any particular sequence to be adopted by all teachers. If there are really different methods of teaching geometry, as Prof. G. H. Bryan himself admits, then it would be best to leave each teacher to adopt those which he has found by experience to give the best results, and leave the examiners to themselves to make the best of the situation; for after all teaching is more important than examination.

The fifth number of the "Occasional Reports" issued from the Office of the Director-General of Education in India deals with the training of secondary teachers.

Principal H. R. James of the Presidency College, Calcutta, gives an account of the training institutions for secondary teachers in the United Kingdom, which were recently visited by him. Mr. H. Sharp, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, Eastern Bengal and Assam, gives an account of the training of elementary and secondary teachers in Prussia and some of the States of the United States. Mr. Sharp was sent to St. Louis in May 1904, with a general commission to visit the Exposition held there, to attend the meetings of the National Educational Association, and to describe whatever appeared to him of most interest, as bearing by way of comparison, on Indian education. The account published in this report forms a part of his studies in relation to that exhibition. Mr. J. Nelson Fraser, M.A., Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay, has contributed an account of the Bombay Training College for Secondary Teachers.

The sixth number of the "Occasional Reports" issued by the Office of the Director-General of Education in India is devoted to the description of some important educational buildings in India. These buildings represent not only colleges and university halls but also small boys' and girls' schools. The illustrations and plans are very good, but it is a matter for regret that no account is given of the various methods employed as regards ventilation, lighting or heating. The library of every college and high school should provide itself with a copy of this very useful book.

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NATURE STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.*

The period through which we are passing marks a distinct stage in the history of Indian education. Great and important have been the changes wrought in the machinery fitted to control education as also in the aims and methods pursued in every department of education,—elementary and secondary, collegiate and technical. To meet the demands of the new rules and regulations, a fresh adjustment had to be made and we see ample evidence everywhere of educational activity to better the financial conditions of institutions, so that teachers may be better paid and equipments improved for better teaching. This being pre-eminently an age of science upon the proper understanding and application of which depends every form of educational and industrial progress, the curriculum of science subjects had to be revised and the laboratories refitted with the latest apparatus and appliances to make better provision for experimental work by teachers and pupils. But the teaching of science to be successfully done, rigorously demands two things from us—a carefully thought out scheme, or syllabus suited to the different stages of pupils and the realization

* Lecture delivered under the auspices of the Victoria Historical Association, Setupathy High School, Madura, with practical demonstration of specimens to illustrate it, by N. S. Jambunathan, B.A., L.T., F.Z.S. (London), Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Karur Range.

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of the aim at each stage of instruction and the methods to be pursued towards realizing the same. This would naturally lead us to note three well-marked stages in science teaching.

Science teaching which goes by the name of general knowledge and nature study in elementary schools and which in the first seven classes of a secondary school goes by the name of elementary science marks the first stage. Here the aim should be the training of the eye, the ear, and the hand and the methods more observational than experimental. A higher step is taken and more of experiments are introduced in the second stage of instruction, where the power of accurately expressing what has been observed and noted, has to be cultivated among the boys. Higher still, the observational and experimental sides and the habit of drawing out correct inferences from the data of observed facts—these have to be developed at the third stage, here the aim being to give to the student some sort of a *scientific training*.

The pupil should now be conversant with all the general principles of science underlying the varied phenomena to be observed in nature. A student of nature he should be. There shall be no specialization at this stage and such a specialization may be begun with advantage only beyond this stage.

With these few general preliminaries, let me begin to examine the value of natural science as

an aid to mental discipline, and the practical methods that could be adopted in the study of the same. Natural science is the name given to a group of sciences dealing with the materials—living and dead—found over the surface of the earth and within it. The elementary phase of this subject would come under the title of Physical Geography or Physiography and the aim of the science being to instil in the minds of the boys, a knowledge of the earth and what is on it, in it, and about it.

The higher stage marks the division of the subject into three separate but interrelated sciences of Zoology, the science of animal life, of Botany, the science of plant life, of Geology, the science of the earth and her contents, such as stones and fossils.

As Geology includes the investigations into the past history of plant and animal life as determined from a study of their remains in the shape of fossils, she also found her place in the company along with the sister sciences of Zoology and Botany and the three sciences came to be grouped under the most comprehensive name of Biology—the science of life.

We, in secondary schools, have not much to do with this higher phase of the study of natural science. Our ambitions are modest and our outlook though wide enough, is still limited. The kind of natural science teaching we propose to follow is of an elementary character and we need not therefore be terrified by the long and jaw-breaking names of the ologies of science and leave these to the specialist to plod on or take delight in. The subjects contemplated to be taken up for study are grouped under a new title—"Nature Study." And what is nature study asks Prof. Thompson "but the old broad wholesome natural history—the study of our natural surroundings and what goes on there. It is just an inquisitive appreciation and intelligent outlook on natural phenomena. It is learning to interpret natural happenings; it is an application of

many sciences with a particular purpose. In nature study, we aim at seeing, understanding, enjoying, and practically learning from the natural world round about us."

Natural science then for our schools is nature study and the proper study of it would lead to a better appreciation of the facts and wonders of nature. The methods for the study of this science is nothing different from those pursued in the comprehension of the other sciences. The varied phases of plant and animal life, the changes and configuration on the surface of the earth and of the heavens—these and such other matter require to be observed, studied, and enjoyed. In addition to the observation of things under natural conditions much could be learnt by observing living nature under artificial conditions as also by experiments.

Such a study may usefully be begun and completed with the help of walks, talks, and school excursions, with the rearing of pet animals, and school gardens, with the help of dissections and demonstrations which, by the way, could be accomplished without much expenditure of money and last but not least, with the help of a school museum.

School excursions are now becoming common in Government institutions and training schools. There is no reason why other institutions could not follow their example. Facilities could be obtained for the mere asking of it and the trip could even be made self-supporting. The value of such excursions cannot be overestimated for they benefit the scholars and teachers. Many a point in Physical Geography which the teacher wants to hammer home to the boys, may become self-explained when the student is brought face to face with facts contained in the book of nature. A tiny waterfall like the one found at Nagamalai (Madura) may go to strengthen his imagination to comprehend all the wonders of a Niagara and a stroll over a neighbouring hill, may help to explain many a problem connected with the

sources and the courses of a river and the causes for fertility or the barrenness of particular spots and the changes wrought upon the earth's surface by wind and water, heat and cold.

Much need not be said about the value of a *school garden*. Children take delight to see anything growing under their view. How often have we seen them running to meet us with a whitened shoot of a tamarind seed—especially when it is their own planting. This abundance of curiosity which is a characteristic of youthful period must be given a free play in school life and all available energy should be made to flow into useful channels of activity. Boys may be made to cultivate in pots set apart for them and to conduct their experiments in plant culture. A common *hand-lens* and a *penknife* are all that may be required in the shape of apparatus. A microscope should be available in the school for the examination of things very minute in cases of necessity and such an instrument may not cost us more than 4 or £5.

Observation, manual training, and experimentation—these are rendered possible and profitable in a garden reared and maintained by boys.

Pet Animals. Closer observation and study of animal life demands the rearing of them under artificial conditions. Fishes are studied not only in ponds and streams but better still in an *aquarium* kept in the school. A glass jar with a wide mouth, containing a quantity of sand and mud, some moss or any other water weed are all the things needed and fishes or any other aquatic animal such as a frog, may be reared and observed from the egg reaching, by slow degrees of development, the adult or full-grown condition. Other land animals such as a spider or scorpion, a bird, a squirrel, or a rabbit may be reared in cages and their habits and peculiarities noted. The artificial conditions should be brought as near the natural conditions as possible by a study of books relating to such animals and the animals

reared must always be reared in pairs and breeding promoted.

The structures and peculiarities in the formation and build of the plants and animals studied, may be made known by means of dissections and demonstrations to show clearly as to how organs are peculiarly adapted for the performance of the particular functions assigned to them in the economy of plant and animal organisation. The formation of the leaf and their arrangement on the stem to have the maximum amount of sunlight on them, the structure of the flower and the care with which mother nature helps the offspring with the apparatus and appliances for flight and dispersal to "fresh fields and pastures new"—to these and such other matters, the attention of the boys may be pointedly drawn. Similar facts in connection with animals—such as the use of fins and feathers for swimming and flying and limbs for leaping and climbing may also be noted.

The scratching feet of the fowl, the climbing feet of the wood-pecker, the wading feet of a crane and the swimming feet of the duck and lastly the armed feet of the bird of prey such as an eagle or kite are other instances on the point each being particularly fashioned for the particular functions required of each organ such as scratching the ground in search of grain, wading or swimming through water in search of fishes and frogs, or grasping and tearing the prey while on the wing.

Specimens to illustrate the abovementioned facts could be collected and preserved in the school museum: which, by the way I may tell you, requires no additional outlay on the part of the management except in the matter of assigning a room and making provision for an almirah or two and bottles. The formation of such school museums have been rendered possible even in connection with elementary schools and the specimens preserved are put to their proper use in making teaching interesting and real.

Will it be too much to expect secondary schools following suit? I am glad that most institutions have such museums now, although the specimens in most places still require to be properly classified and cared for.

Every one of the items described above such as school excursion, garden, pet animals, dissection and demonstrations and last but not the least, the school museum, have now become indispensable adjuncts to the teaching of nature study or natural science of our school curriculum.

A thorough and systematic course of study based upon child culture enunciated in the preliminary part of the lecture and spread over the whole course cannot fail to make the children happy and intelligent. The senses and emotions will have also been properly trained and the formation of healthy habits of thought and behaviour facilitated. Accuracy of observation, precision in expression and a reverence for truth—these would mark them when they take their proper places in society as men.

Each will have some subject of his own liking which will be his hobby for life. It is the want of such a training, the want of some hobby or other that makes many a grown-up man among us, lead such prosaic lives as they do now—a burden unto themselves and a burden upon society at large. The cultivation of a hobby even in early life will be a means of drawing forth your best powers and making you fit to take your proper place as members of the great commonwealth of nations, to which you and I are proud to belong.

THE LAST THIRTY YEARS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

THE object of this paper is to refer to broad general facts of about a quarter of a century. The period (1880—1910) has been marked by two important Commissions that considered questions of education relating to the whole of India, by two recent Committees that took up the questions of Secondary education in this Presidency and by the Government's change of policy from withdrawal to direct part in trying to start model schools. Everybody remembers Lord Ripon's Viceroyalty and the Education Commission, presided over by Dr. Hunter. Its main purpose was to encourage indigenous talent and schools and to appreciate the worth of learning wherever found. It proposed an important measure in a line with the policy of a Viceroy who wanted to train the children of the soil in Self-Government as "an instrument of political education." The Government was to withdraw from Secondary education and hand it over to indigenous bodies. But, it laid down the essential condition of liberal grants-in-aid and further recommended that workers in the cause of education should be appreciated and encouraged by titles of honour. How far these methods have been carried out need not be described.

For reasons called 'political,' they withdrew grants from the Universities in the name of primary education and in course of time neglected even that. The withdrawal of grants or the undue variations thereof placed managers under great difficulties.

Viceroy after Viceroy came and went; but nothing noteworthy was ever attempted in

education. Then came the Viceroy of the previous Delhi Durbar the centraliser of power. He set to himself the task of introducing changes in all departments. Education came in for its share. The Universities' Commission was launched forth and piloted by Sir Walter Raleigh. Everybody knows of the Simla Conference, the Commission and Dr. Gurudas Bannerjee, and of the Universities Act. What concerns us is the enunciation of the principle with regard to depth and not breadth in learning.

It is worth inquiring whether depth and breadth cannot go hand in hand. We may ponder over the German Universities and the Prussian Secondary Schools as well and see that education is the concern of the State and that advancing civilisation has realised it as the supreme factor in national development. German Universities are helped and controlled by an Education Ministry of the State. Secondary education flourishes in Prussia under State aid. Matthew Arnold, who was on the Commission of Inquiry into the Condition of German High Schools, says: "Our mouths would water when we come to know of lexicographers amongst the headmasters of Secondary schools." Such broad questions may be left to a Matthew Arnold; but, we cannot ignore the dictum of the Curzon-Raleigh Commission and the terrible check to the spread of education in this poor country. They approached the question of University education as sufficient for compelling the secondary to adjust itself to its needs. Lord Curzon of restless activity wrote his minute on education and adopted one notable step in giving grants to Primary Schools and Universities. Secondary Schools were neglected. The Government of Lord Curzon with its ideas of political policy

exerted itself as vigorously as possible to bring down the number of educated Indians. In this he has been followed by a no less generous correspondent—of the generous *London Times* with its known representations—now known as Valentine Chirol. The hereditary class of learners must be pulled down and the question of education ought to be approached from the depressed classes to the higher castes. It is argued that the poor ryot need not be taxed for the prosperity of the learned few. It is again a matter at issue whether it is not utilitarian to promote the interests of higher education for the very instructors of primary schools must come out trained by the workers in secondary schools, themselves educated by University professors. Owing to Lord Curzon's ways, discontent spread throughout the land and secondary education was neglected. So, it came in for a larger share of consideration. In this Presidency it was reckoned an urgent matter. We shall briefly refer to previous facts. The bright side of Lord Curzon's policy and the Universities' Commission ought to be remembered. The latter inquired into the question—why was the field of originality so sterile in India as it was found to be, though half-a-century of Western education had passed away? They found that the following were amongst the chief reasons:—

1. Words and not facts were prominently in view.
2. Ideas, as a whole, were not grasped so much as detached parts.
3. Too many subjects were learned with the result that there was a very superficial knowledge.
4. Nothing concrete was attempted to any extent worth considering. The eyes and the

hands of learners were not engaged. No laboratory work was done by themselves.

These reasons were profitably noticed under the New Regulations of Indian Universities:—

1. Graded syllabuses were framed.
2. Detailed and non-detailed text-books were prescribed.
3. Specialisation in a subject or two was to be led up to.
4. Where there was practical laboratory work by students for the B.A. degree in Science, only in qualitative analysis in Chemistry, different departments of science were to have laboratory work as the necessary condition of their recognition by the Universities.

These had their corresponding applications to secondary education:—

1. Matriculation syllabuses were made full and thorough.
2. Composition, in the form of an essay, was to take the place of questions that were answered by cramming up manuals of general English.
3. Pupils were to make experiments and verify results.

It has tended to raise the standard of teaching and efficiency of schools. But ideas of specialisation rush to the other extreme to a degree in which secondary education suffers and ought to suffer. An educationist of life-long experience as teacher, Principal and Inspector, stated in his evidence before the Universities' Commission that general culture and efficient general teaching were found wanting in the "specialists," as they are called. It may be that a medium may be struck after rushing to the other end. Some particulars of this Presidency may be now proceeded with.

About 1880, the Government abolished their High Schools and handed them over to indigenous bodies. Then, a number of private schools of mushroom growth began to spring up in all parts. This ushered into existence the Madras Educational Rules of 1890, also revised later on. It made discipline better but it lessened the growing number of pupils. The fees were raised; grants-in-aid were not liberal; but managers were compelled to spend more and more largely on buildings, apparatus, library and other equipments. "The Life of School Work," as the *London Times* would call the schoolmaster was neglected. In this connection, we may mention that, in one of the northern countries of Europe, the schoolmaster is, from the very date of appointment given a cow with fodder. The neglect of "The Life of School Work" was one of the reasons for the "slaughter of the innocents."

This attracted the sympathy of Sir Arthur Lawley who expressed it in his speech at Tanjore. This was followed by the organisation of two Committees—one by the University called the Matriculation Failure Committee and the other, the School Final Board by the Government. Attention is requested to what is already on record in *The Hindu*, and *The Educational Review*.

The University Committee recommended a number of remedial measures for the avoidance of failure and the promotion of efficiency. The University men had taken enough trouble to frame the New Regulations and work them out in a more liberal spirit. They allowed failure in one subject of the Matriculation under a certain condition. Only for one year had the University its fresh trial; its work was not to continue, but to be minimised. The School Leaving Certificate was accepted as the equivalent for the

Matriculation. Government, for political policy, control secondary education and use the University as their instrument. We shall reflect on the chief conclusions of the Matriculation Failure Committee:—

(1) The true spirit of education was sacrificed by the Matriculation certificate having been accepted as a qualification for entrance into the public service and for admission into University Colleges.

(2) An educationist trained in a Western University deposed that 30 per cent. of the plucked candidates deserved admission into colleges and that the Madras Matriculation was more stringent than others including some in Britain.

(3) Development of pupils' intellect should proceed on inductive lines as the hereditary tendency was to be deductive. We may consider the first point. If it was really an evil and a vital evil to ignore the necessity for trying to find out whether pupils were fit for the University or office work, how has the School Final scheme remedied it? It has, on the one hand, allowed pupils to appear any number of times and, on the other, offered to the University to transfer to it savings out of the examination. Germany foremost in education has a bifurcation into real schools and gymnasia training pupils for the life and the University respectively. In Madras, the old blunder has been emphasised. In our sister presidency on the west coast, conferences were held and circulars sent to all the schools before a School Final scheme was to be formulated. Here, for want of a Mehta, no schools were consulted. Before the new syllabuses were published, the Matriculation ceased to be. The citizens of this presidency began to work out the new scheme. Yet, we

cannot but applaud the one great advantage of the scheme—that it removes the dread of the annual failure, and that it further allows choice of subjects with supplementary courses to backward pupils. Moreover three years' progress is recorded.

Have we taken steps to secure possible advantages? The scheme is, no doubt, good in its own way; but those who work it out have only made things worse. The number of exercises and entries has bulged out enormously at the cost of physical exercise or intellectual growth to teachers and pupils alike. In the place of an annual examination, we have a series every hour and day. As Professor Ramanatha Aiyer said in his felicitous language, a house divested of one devil has come to be occupied by a number of them. Somehow or other, in the city of Madras and elsewhere, there is overdoing as well as undoing. An Executive Engineer, a retired District Judge and parents have spoken to teachers or managers. Nay, one of our ladies sending a number of children to schools bitterly complained. So far do schools observe formalities akin to ceremonies of dead religions. Moreover, such is the amount of writing work that managers who have been asked to make the headmaster a purely supervisory teacher of model lessons find him engaged in clerical work. Inspectors may help managers to get *corresponding gain to the taxation that school funds have to bear*. Schools and the Department must therefore reflect on simpler methods of recording daily work. Now is realised the truth of J. S. Mill's dictum: "In political as in philosophical theories, success discloses faults and infirmities which failure will never disclose." In any large scheme, however, patience is required. It may be hoped that the evil will

be duly remedied. If people concerned show a fair degree of intelligence and interest, the schools that are now felt to be dens of woe will become the true Edens of earth. If they will not do this, it will be said that, as the scheme is not responsible for this state of things, they have not risen equal to the occasion. The result will be that only the public examination will be valued. It will only take the place of the old Matriculation examination. Schools ought to escape from this predicament. The beneficent intentions of the Government, as far as workable, ought to be acted on. But, the step-motherly kindness of the Government to secondary education may be viewed in the light of what appeared in a recent issue of 'the Hindu' regarding the last meeting of the Norwich Federation of Teachers. It was then said that our present sovereign had expressed his intense pleasure at the sight of the thousand children. The influential daily organ of British opinion then adds that free secondary education is a necessary corollary to free primary education and an indispensable condition for the growing needs of citizenship.

To resume the thread: More in favour of the scheme was hitherto set forth. But the danger to unattached High schools remains to be said. Principals are given discretion. They may prefer pupils of High schools attached to their colleges. It is, after all, quite human. Principals know them better than others; so parents prefer the attached high schools. It is not sufficient to reply, as Sir M. Hammick did, at the Hindu High School, Triplicane, last year, that if the Intermediate examination results become worse by the admission of their own inferior pupils, they will learn a lesson. The

fact is that parents prefer attached ones and that, when they find it impossible to get admission there for their children, they turn to unattached ones. If it is granted that only pupils of the same kind as before join attached schools, failure at the Intermediate may teach a lesson; but, it is open to objection as the best pupils are sent there. From an educative point of view which is the end of the new scheme, what is the result? The attached schools unduly buttressed have got an increase in the number of pupils. They had not shown any superior advantages of supervision which is now becoming more nominal. But, any one who wants to point out the bright side of the scheme may well say that the number of admissions into colleges from the entrance class is greater this year than before. Thus, from one school out of 120 sent up for the public examination, 80 were admitted; but, if the Matriculation had only passed pupils on the results of only such subjects as related to the students' optional ones at the Intermediate, the number would have been equally good. But this is not the point at issue. This year, the Hindu High School, Triplicane, has suffered. What need be said of others? The question may be, therefore, urgently taken up whether, in accordance with the Universities' Commission, high schools and colleges ought not to be kept in altogether different buildings and under altogether different managements. One more advantage of the scheme may be considered. The Matriculation examination insisted on pupils passing in all subjects or all but one. In the case of pupils who mean to take up Mathematics and Science for the Intermediate, or History and Logic, prominence may be given to results necessary for them. They need not be bothered with other subjects. Principals

have during the year exercised their discretion to the greater advantage of specialisation. It may be that general culture as tested by severity of examination has its use; but in this century of past accumulated knowledge neither the time nor the energy for mastering many subjects is available. If the dread of annual failure is avoided and attended with an immense gain in the interests of true education, this dropping of subjects is another distinct advance. It is more in a line with the Intermediate and B.A. examinations than the Matriculation.

As indicated at the outset the period of the past thirty years has been marked by extremes of policy. The Government withdrew from the field. They retrace their steps and want to assume a direct part. Without discharging the greater responsibility in financial matters, they practically control secondary education through the new scheme. The change in the extremes of policy goes hand in hand with educational methods. Where there was a series of examinations—the Lower and Upper Primary, the Lower and Upper Secondary, and the Matriculation, the change has been made in favour of the other extreme of the only public examination completing the school course. Matters treated of hitherto may be thus summarised:

The period is marked by extremes of State policy and *educational methods*.

Indigenous institutions met with encouragement in Lord Ripon's time. Grants varied after his Viceroyalty and efficiency was checked. Lord Curzon curbed the increasing strength of learners. But, it has a remarkable educative effect. The Madras Government, in pursuance of his policy, control secondary education; but, the bifurcation of

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the German system has not been duly considered.

The School Final Scheme may be worked in an educative spirit if school authorities adopt a more sympathetic attitude.

It seriously affects unattached high schools and unduly strengthens attached ones that had not been found to show any superiority. This must lead to an urgent consideration whether high schools and colleges ought not to be placed under different managements, according to the spirit of the Universities' Commission.

The new scheme is more in a line with the Intermediate and B.A. examinations than the Matriculation. More liberal grants to private schools are urgently needed.

Experiences and views of civilised countries in Europe and America go to prove that secondary education is one of the growing needs of advancing citizenship.

The prayer has only to be expressed in conclusion that education may be viewed apart from political policy varying from time to time and that, in the light of the improving world's civilisation, the enlightened British power guiding the destinies of millions in India may help them to grow more learned, better and wiser by the Grace of God.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

CLASS-MARKS AND THEIR VALUE.

EDUCATION, in its truest sense, comprises all the influences which contribute to the formation of character and is at the same time a preparation for the work of life. So then, the real educator has not merely to furnish the minds of the pupils with suitable information but has also to cultivate and develop their mental, moral, and physical capacities.

ties in the best possible way. It was considered that the old Matriculation was defective in confining itself to testing the knowledge of the pupils by a written examination only paying no heed to the other aspects of education. The main object in introducing the School Final Scheme was to study the progress made by a pupil during a certain definite period of his school course, to test his knowledge in all possible ways by oral and written examinations, and by the assigning of marks to his records of work as his note-books and the like, and to see whether good habits of thought and conduct have been cultivated in him.

Though it is a little too soon to judge of the merits of the School Final Scheme yet a study of the results of these two years clearly shows that at least one of its main objects about the value attached to school work has not been fulfilled. It is well-known that in most of the colleges the admission of pupils holding completed S. S. L. Certificates is based on the marks obtained by them at the public examination. A similar system is adopted as regards the selection of pupils for technical institutions as also for appointments in service. Thus a boy who gets 30 % in English at school and 40 % at the public examination stands a good chance of succeeding if his marks in the other subjects (obtained at the public examination) are fair, whereas in the case of a boy who gets 50 % or even more in English at school and only 35 % at the public examination, the chances are very few indeed in spite of his getting good marks in the other subjects. This disparity in the marks of a pupil both at school and at the public examination is due to a variety of causes. First the public examination is purely a written examination of the pupil in particular subjects for a specified

short period, whereas marks are awarded at school for all the work which a pupil does, oral, written or practical, every day and for the whole year. Secondly different examiners aim at different standards and no two examiners agree in awarding marks to the same pupil in the same subject. Lastly some pupils shine well in an oral or a practical test while others in a written test. Hence it would be advisable to judge of the merits of pupils by taking the combined average of the marks obtained at the public examination and at school, moderated by the School Final Board if there be any necessity for doing so.

In some schools it is strange to see that the class-marks are ignored altogether even for the matter of awarding promotions to pupils, particularly in schools where the forms are divided into sections for the average of the class-marks varies in different sections of the same form or even if the class-marks are taken into account different minima are prescribed for the different sections of the same form and the pupils of a section are promoted on the merits of that section. The hints and suggestions to managers and teachers of secondary schools clearly lay down the principles on which the annual promotions should be based. The marks obtained by pupils in class work, both oral and written, should be considered and the regular work of a pupil should have greater value in determining his promotion than mere success in examination. Again promoting pupils of the same form on two distinctly different standards is really ludicrous and creates an aversion in the minds of the pupils and the public for the school and affects the popularity of the institution to a considerable extent. In this case a boy of section A who gets, say, about 35 % in English, gets a pro-

motion, whereas a boy of section B of the same form who gets about 40 % in English is detained, the marks in the other subjects in the two cases being nearly the same. Any high difference in the class-marks of different sections cannot exist if the pupils are classified into sections on a good system, if marks are assigned after a careful consideration of the merits of the pupils and if effective supervision is brought into play. The pupils of the sections should as far as possible be nearly on the same intellectual level and the headmaster should check the entries in the marks register every month and should see that any undue leniency is not exercised. He may occasionally examine the pupils to see the relation between his marking and the class teacher's marking and to have a better idea of their fitness for promotion. In any case a difference of about 5 % in the class-marks cannot highly affect the results and so can reasonably be allowed.

If the essential merit of the new scheme, viz., the taking into consideration of the school-work of a pupil be lost sight of, and if the school and class-marks are to play only an insignificant part, the School Final Scheme cannot be considered to have effected any great improvement on the old Matriculation and it will only be another example of the common saying "As you were."

P. RANGANATHAN.

EFFICIENCY AND CHANGES IN THE STAFF.

'A Headmaster' writes in the April number of your valuable monthly that frequent changes in the staff of a secondary school has a great deal to do with the want of efficiency in the secondary education; that con-

stant appearance of advertisements in the columns of the Madras Dailies is a proof sufficient to show that such changes exist, and that in the middle of a term also; that the difficulty is increased and efficiency spoiled all the more by substitutes not being appointed in the place of those that leave, by the management which is very willing to relieve a teacher immediately he puts in an application to that effect; and that the Department must pass and enforce the rule that no teacher should leave a school in the middle of a year or term and that it must view with disfavour any management which does not pay attention to the strict adherence to this rule.

I have read with great interest the principle thus enunciated of not allowing masters to change from school to school in the middle of a year or term, with the object of safeguarding the interest and efficiency of schools. I do not think any one will take objection to the principle; but the means 'A Headmaster' suggests for working out the principle is the departmental pressure. I am sure the Department of Education has efficiency before every other consideration in regard to a school. Still I do not know if the department will take so such responsibility as seeing to the continuance of efficient teachers in the same school; nor do I think that departmental coercion is necessary in a matter of such importance in which the managers of schools also are expected to be interested, though not primarily.

The department will not, for it cannot, take the responsibility of seeing that there is the least number of changes possible in the staff during the year and that there is no change at all in the middle of a term. The responsibility, then, would be very great indeed. This

will make the officers of the department arbitrators between the managers of schools and the teachers; will make them judges to decide which is in the right—the management or the staff. The teachers that change school in the middle of a term or year are not so many sheep merely fascinated by a change. I can speak with my experience as a teacher for as many years as ‘A Headmaster’ has had and I do not believe that any teacher changes as often as he could wish under the circumstances; first, because suitable vacancies do not occur as often as there is an advertisement; and secondly, even when suitable vacancies from a salary point of view are advertised for, the school—I mean, the management—must be as good as the one he leaves. It is very rare that a teacher is compelled to leave a post for something decidedly worse, however much in his opinion a change may be desirable; and in very many cases he does not change of his own free will, but because he is obliged to change for reasons beyond his control.

In most cases a teacher that is leaving a school does not do so because he has better prospects in another school, but because somehow or other the treatment is not so good as could be desired. The manager at the time of the appointment promises to pay the teacher a certain amount and the ‘poor state of the finance’ comes, only for this case and the teacher is requested to be satisfied with less ‘for the time being.’ An increment is promised from a certain date and that date is postponed till the Greek Calends. Sometimes with an ulterior object of bringing their own men the heads of institutions take offence at anything and everything that a particular teacher does and thus convince him indirectly of the necessity of looking out for a job else-

where. I have known cases where the staff has been actually starved by non-payment of salaries and in spite of privations the staff has been very conscientious in the discharge of its duties. In out of the way centres managers are not wanting who give masters notice to quit their service because some one or other of their distant relations has been rebuked for non-preparation of lessons or impertinence in class, &c. In some of these cases if the department is approached it is unable to do anything in private institutions. The case is one of civil contract between the teacher and the manager and there have been occasions when courts of justice had to be resorted to, to settle disputes between the management and the teacher. I do not mean to say that the management is the only source of all this trouble; but the trouble may be minimised if the management remembers all that it promises and acts up to all that it remembers. In very many cases even for the fear of being hastily judged by the people, no employee in any department, much less a schoolmaster, dares to speak of the hardship he is subjected to.

Thus I believe I have shewn that the idea of the necessity for a change is first put into the teacher’s head by reasons outside himself and it would be unfair to charge the teacher of crimes for which he is not responsible. They are men and they have feelings and it is but right to expect that these are not unnecessarily wounded. What can the department do in such instances—when the teacher does not suit the whim and caprice of the management? A teacher in a private school is humming a note to himself within the four walls of the masters’ room long before the school work begins. The manager happens

to pass by, gives him a sharp reproof—too sharp for the teachers’ self-respect to calmly submit to. Sometimes the management interferes even with the private rights of teachers, as men and as citizens. In every case of vacancy, an advertisement appears in the columns of the Dailies immediately, whether the appointment is made or not. How shall the department be reasonably expected to put down such practices unless an appeal is open to it? If Inspectors are authorized to enquire into such cases as have been enumerated above I fear the number of Inspectors will have to be doubled in order to successfully cope with the increased work. Changes in the staff are even now reported to the Inspectors of Schools, but not always and necessarily; and they have a chance of knowing the changes only at the time of inspection; by that time it might be several months since a teacher left an institution and the incident connected with his separation might have been even forgotten. Hence it does not appear to be worth while troubling the department for such simple matters as can be easily remedied by both the employed and the employer meeting each other half way.

‘A Headmaster’ fears that the teacher who is on the look-out for a job elsewhere, may not take interest in the work on hand, but try some how to while away his time and thus impair the efficiency of teaching. I have come across many cases where the pupils were not informed previously of the departure of one of their teachers, either by the teacher concerned or by any one else till the very last moment. No suspicions arose in the minds of the pupils or even of other teachers by any indifference to work shown by the departing teacher. Of late there has come a necessity to intimate privately at least to some of the leaders of the class about a teacher’s departure, because these are days of

farewell addresses and photos to the departing gentlemen and these cannot be got ready in a few hours. The managers or heads of institutions take a keen pleasure in presiding on such occasions to say what they do not exactly feel—for policy very often gives us the courage to hide or twist facts—and to wind up the function by saying that their friend leaves them for brighter prospects, for ‘fresh fields and pastures new.’ In this connection I may say that it is not difficult to find cases where heads of schools are taken into confidence, so to say, by the management thus preventing them from recommending any increase of salary to the lower staff, if the procedure is of a headmaster recommending for and the manager of a private institution, giving the increment. Thus when the head and the management join together, woe to all the assistants who are left helpless and whose voice will not be heard even if raised.

From all this one can see that there does not exist any necessity or desirability for the department to come between the management and the staff. These are questions which can be easily settled by the management and the school staff. The management must act honourably, if not generously by the staff and the staff must realise its responsibility towards the young minds entrusted to its care. No amount of legal binding will set right things in the sphere of mental work; it is the realisation of the moral responsibility that must help the teacher in keeping up his spirits even in times of depression caused by circumstances far beyond his control.

I quite agree with ‘A Headmaster’ in thinking that the staff should be as unchanged and permanent as possible; but I do not think it right that a teacher should continue in the service of a manager when the latter does not like him and is ever on the look-out to find

loop-holes in his work at school or is indifferent and partial.

(ANOTHER HEADMASTER.)

TAMIL TYPE-WRITER.

WITH reference to an article in the *Educational Review* of February 1912 under the heading "Reform of the Tamil Alphabet," I wish to write as follows:—

In connection with the preparation of a type-writer for the Tamil language, I wanted to reduce the number of Tamil types consisting of more than 300 into as small a number as possible and have succeeded in reducing them to 69 types. By the adoption of this method, the requirements aimed at by Mr. T. G. Aravamuthan can be attained without making any alteration in the existing system of the types. With a view to reduce it to a still smaller number, I consulted several Pandits and learned men as to whether *அ, இ, ஈ*, could not be written as *ஊ, ஞ, ஞா* and *ஊ, ஊ, ஊ, ஊ* as *ஊ, ஊ, ஊ, ஊ*. None of them did approve of this reduction. If the convenience anticipated could be attained by the reduction of the types, the above method may be adopted immediately as it does not clash with the present mode of writing the language. On the other hand, if the alphabet itself be changed as proposed by Mr. Aravamuthan, then, it would become very difficult for the new student population to get through the innumerable books of very great importance already published, when once they have become habituated to a new notation of the alphabet.

T. V. SUNDRAM AIYAR.

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN BOMBAY.

REFORMED RULES REGARDING PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The following Resolution No. 1402, dated the 5th June 1912, regarding the division of primary schools into full primary and rural schools and standards for rural schools, is published by the Government of Bombay for general information:—

With the object of reducing the vast mass of illiteracy still prevailing in the rural area of this Presidency Government decided recently that the necessary extension of teaching facilities should be undertaken through a simpler and more rudimentary medium than that afforded by the existing form of primary school. It was accordingly directed in Government Resolution No. 2049, dated the 19th June 1911 which was published in Press Note No. 2183, dated the 8th July 1911, that primary schools should in future be divided into two classes—(i) rural and (ii) full primary—and that the course for rural schools, which are intended for the children of agriculturists, should extend over four years instead of six, as at present should be complete in itself and should be simplified so as to impart to the pupils a thorough grounding in the three R's and nothing more. In order to assist clever boys of the agriculturist class attending rural schools to proceed to the higher standards in full primary schools a system of scholarships was advocated, and the Director of Public Instruction was requested to submit detailed proposals for the institution of such scholarships and to indicate the source from which the cost should be met. He was also asked to convene Divisional Committees for the framing of a simplified curriculum for rural schools in each division and to submit their reports with his views thereon. Having now carefully considered these reports and the views of the Director of Public Instruction, the Governor-in-Council is pleased to issue the following orders.

2. The existing primary course consists of seven standards and an infant class. There are, however, many primary schools which teach only five or six standards and the Governor-in-

Council entirely agrees with the Director of Public Instruction that it is not desirable or necessary to reduce schools of this description. Schools, however, which have been teaching up to the 4th standard only, or in which the 5th and 6th standards have been only spasmodically and scantily attended, should in every case be reduced to the status of rural schools, the few boys who desire to carry their education further being provided for by scholarships. Henceforth a full primary school must teach regularly up to the 6th standard at least.

NOMENCLATURE.

3. The nomenclature already proposed for the two classes of schools, viz., "rural schools" and "full primary schools" should be retained. The Director of Public Instruction is no doubt right in his contention that it is rather the courses than the schools which should be designated as "rural" and "full primary" respectively, but in practice it will be found convenient to apply these designations to the schools themselves. There is no anomaly involved in describing schools which teach up to the 5th or 6th standard only as "full primary schools," for they may always be regarded as susceptible of expansion up to the higher standard in the event of a real demand for more advanced teaching arising in them.

4. In view of the existing rule that no boy should begin to learn English unless he has passed the vernacular 4th standard, those boys in rural schools who may wish to proceed to the Anglo-Vernacular course will have to join a primary school teaching the longer course in order to go through the 4th standard. Scholarships will therefore be required in the case of:—

(a) Boys from rural schools proceeding to the 4th standard of a full primary school with a view to qualifying for Anglo-Vernacular school; and (b) boys from rural schools intending to complete the vernacular curriculum at a full primary school. Since they are intended for boys in indecent circumstances, instances of scholarships under (a) will probably be comparatively rare, and a parent who intends ultimately to send his

son to a remote Anglo-Vernacular school would probably have sufficient means to incur the slight additional expense of sending him away from home one year earlier to enable him to pass through the 4th standard. The Director of Public Instruction expects the grant of scholarships under (b) to be unnecessary if the schools at present teaching up to the 5th or 6th standard are maintained as such, but it is probable that there will be some reduction of schools under the conditions described in paragraph 2 above, and, as education progresses and the desire for it spreads, there is sure to be an increasing number of boys from purely rural areas desirous of taking the full vernacular course. The Governor-in-Council is therefore of opinion that provision should be made for scholarships under both (a) and (b).

The Central Division Committee proposed that the value of the scholarships should be Rs. 5 per mensem, while the Northern and the Southern Division Committees recommend Rs. 3. As the scholarships are intended to cover nothing more than the bare increase of cost involved by a boy's living away from his home, their value should be limited to Rs. 3 per mensem. They should be granted only if there is no school teaching the longer course in the village, or within walking distance of the village, where the boy resides. The tenure of scholarships under (a) should be for one year, and of those under (b) for four years. No examination will be instituted for the grant of these scholarships and nominations to them will be made by the inspecting staff, suitable candidates being brought to their notice by the teachers.

With regard to the number of scholarships the Central Division would fix it at 5 per cent. of the total number of rural schools in the Division; the Southern Division would give three scholarships per taluka, while the Northern Division would take the number of boys passing the vernacular final examination from rural schools as the basis of calculation. The Governor-in-Council considers that inasmuch as the scholarships are of a purely compensatory nature, and are intended for a specific object, it is not possible to fix any general limit as to their

number. They should be given strictly according to actual requirements, and these can only be gauged as the system gradually comes into working order. It may be expected that the number will gradually increase, though any considerable demand from a particular locality would certainly point to the necessity of establishing a full primary school there.

THE MINIMUM AGE.

At present the minimum age of admission to primary schools is four years. The Central Division proposes that the minimum age should be six years; the Southern Division proposes seven years; while the Northern Division proposes five years. Government see no sufficient reason for making any change in the present age limit.

The omission of the agricultural reader has been proposed on the ground that the existing course is overloaded and because the mere reading of the lessons in the agricultural readers is considered to be of little use unless accompanied by practical demonstration. It has therefore been suggested that the readers should be used merely as guides by the teachers who would take the children out once a week into the fields and give them practical instruction on the spot. The Governor-in-Council considers that in the rural schools as they will now be constituted, there is no time for such extra subjects and that during the short period of schooling that the children will undergo attention should be wholly concentrated on giving them a thorough grounding in the three R's. In the full primary schools on the other hand the majority of the boys have no practical need of such instruction. Finally, there is the general objection that the teachers are for the most part themselves ignorant of the subject and unable to impart useful instruction in it so that its retention in the curriculum would in most cases be of no practical value. For these reasons the Governor-in-Council directs that the subject be entirely omitted from the primary curriculum.

The Central Division proposes instruction in village accounts in the fourth year of the course, but the Director of Public Instruction has omitted this subject from his draft. It is altogether too advanced for the children who will attend the rural schools and it is doubtful whether the average untrained teacher in a rural school is competent to teach it. Under present conditions the majority of agriculturists soon pick up a working knowledge of the subject by themselves. The exclusion of this subject is approved.

In paragraph 6 of Government Resolution No. 2049, dated the 19th June 1911, the Central Division Committee were asked to consider whether both the Balbodh and the Modi script should be taught or only the former, and to state reasons for their recommendation. The Committee are in favour of instruction in both scripts, their reasons for recommending the teaching of Modi writings are:—

- (1) That the omission of Modi writing from the course would render it hopelessly unpopular.
- (2) That public, private and business Marathi correspondence in rural and (for the most part) in urban areas is carried on almost entirely in Modi script.
- (3) That legible Modi can be written at a far greater pace than legible Balbodh, which, being naturally a rectangular type, degenerates at once into very indifferent Modi when written fast.
- (4) That without a good knowledge of Modi reading and writing a boy would be greatly handicapped in his after-life.

The Director of Public Instruction, agreeing with the Committee, has included both Balbodh and Modi in his draft curriculum. On general grounds there is certainly no inherent objection to the teaching of the two forms of script and the Committee's recommendation is accepted. With these remarks, the Governor-in-Council is pleased to approve the draft curriculum for Marathi rural schools submitted by the Director and appended to this Resolution, and to direct that it should be published in the "Bombay

Government Gazette." The Director should be requested to submit corresponding standards for Gujarati and Kanarese rural schools.

The retention of Modi in the standards renders necessary the preparation of two improved Modi readers for standards II and III. The Central Division Committee recommends that the matter and language of the new readers should be simple that they should be written in two different styles of approved penmanship for standard II and for standard III, and that they should contain forms of private and official correspondence in current use and forms of bonds such as Karjarokha, rent notes, etc., and should consist of between 40 and 50 pages. This recommendation is approved and the Director of Public Instruction should take the necessary steps for the preparation of readers on these lines.

THE CURRICULUM.

With regard to the important question of the correlation of rural and full primary schools the Governor-in-Council, while admitting the necessity, the interests of complete simplification and of adaptation to local conditions, of eliminating such extra subjects as kindergarten occupations, object-lessons, etc., from the course for rural schools, considers that it would be a retrograde and highly undesirable step to effect a similar reduction in the curriculum of the corresponding standards in full primary schools. The latter schools are in most cases provided with one or more trained teachers competent to impart this form of instruction and possess the requisite equipment therefor, while the children on their part have the greater leisure and regularity of attendance which admit of their benefiting by such modern methods of teaching. It is certainly not necessary for the purposes of correlation that there should be complete identity in this respect between full primary schools and rural schools, especially if it means that the former schools must suffer because of the disabilities of the latter. Provided that grammar be put back to the 4th standard, a boy, who has passed the 3rd standard of a rural school should

be able to take his place in the 4th standard of a full primary school without being at a material disadvantage, notwithstanding the fact that he will not have been taught the extra subjects above referred to. This is all that is required for practical purposes and uniformity need not be pushed further. Even in the case of rural schools the omission from the curriculum of kindergarten and similar subjects should not imply retrogression to the position obtaining before 1901, for lessons on colour, etc., are included in the readers, and it is expected that teachers will, according to their ability, adhere to kindergarten methods in the teaching of all rudimentary knowledge. Ultimately, as the personnel of the elementary schools is raised to a higher standard of efficiency, and as the advantages of modern methods of instruction are better appreciated by parents, it will be possible, the Governor-in-Council hopes, to restore these subjects to the curriculum in their entirety.

Subject to the modifications indicated by these remarks Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction that the standards in the rural schools should be the same as the corresponding standards in the full primary schools.

Government have decided that the power of deciding the allocation of the two classes of primary schools should rest with the Educational Department.

THE COMING CONGRESS OF UNIVERSITIES.

EDUCATION AND THE EMPIRE.

TWO GREAT IMPERIAL TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION.

The *Times* writes in the Empire Day Edition.—The Congress of the Universities of the Empire, to be held in London in the first week in July, will excite general interest, spreading far beyond what is known as the educational world. A great autonomous gathering of 52 Universities, representing almost every variety

of organization, of race and of creed, uniting in complete intellectual freedom the ancient learning of the East and the scholarship of the West, is in itself sufficient to strike the public imagination and to remind even those who are accustomed to regard educational matters as something apart from the practical needs of life of the responsibilities which the Empire imposes on the British race.

It is true that, in so far as the discussions of the Congress are concerned with details of internal organization and the more technical aspects of education, the layman, at any rate in the mother country, will observe his traditional attitude of non-interference or indifference. But the constitution of the Congress and more especially the fact that it meets at a time of profound political and social anxiety, will give rise to certain definite expectations. There is every reason to hope, judging from the programme which was published in the *Educational Supplement of The Times* on November 7 last, that these expectations will be fulfilled.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR SUBJECT RACES.

The self-governing peoples of the Empire brought face to face with the representatives of other races will be reminded that they are responsible for the moral and intellectual development of their fellow-subjects in the Dependencies of the Crown. This responsibility has been fully accepted by the mother country as one of the burdens of Imperial Government; the self-governing Dominions, on the other hand have hitherto confined their attention to the native races within their own borders. They are, however, beginning to show a recognition which this Congress should confirm, of the claim which inheritance makes on them with regard to the vast populations of the East under British rule.

In every department of literature education has been taken to task in recent years for forcing upon the people of India, and particularly upon the governing classes, a civilization which is foreign to their natural development. In the political sphere it has been

blamed for the unrest which a short time ago threatened the destruction of the very foundations of Government and order, whether as cause or effect, it is beyond doubt that the political changes which have lately been carried out have been accompanied by an increase of educational activity and persistent demands for reformed educational methods. The astoundingly rapid assimilation of Western ideals by independent nations who are India's neighbours in the East—the outstanding feature of the world's history which marks the opening of the new century—makes it impossible, even if desirable, to ignore these demands. How they should be met is a question for which the public may rightly look to the Congress for an answer.

THE INDUSTRIAL PROBLEM.

There is another question, possibly less attractive and possessing fewer of the element of romance, which will come under the notice of the Congress. It is one which affects the very heart of the Empire but directly concerns the governing portions, the mother country and the Dominions, alone. At the present time capital and labour, on whose harmonious co-operation, in the existing organization of society, the welfare of the State depends, are in sharp antagonism with one another. The industrial worker is discontented with his lot and in active and militant combination with his fellows, is not only endeavouring to secure a better and more independent position for himself, but is aiming at the reconstruction of society and the State. He believes that an economic basis alone will suffice for the social organization of the future.

The rapid increase in the efficiency of machinery makes his work daily more specialized; it emphasizes the division of labour and has given him a narrower outlook on life and fewer points of contact with society. Some of those moral and intellectual powers which go to form the complete human being have been strengthened and deepened in him at the expense of most of the others. For this again education is by some held largely responsible. And indeed where technical education has unduly hastened

the process of intellectual specialization it is certainly open to blame. The English have perhaps been the greatest sinners in this respect, the practical requirements of the moment ever being their first consideration. The representatives of the Universities of Australia and New Zealand will be able to discuss this question at the Congress with all the weight and experience which the exceptional relations of capital to labour and of labour to the State in their respective Dominions gives them.

The Universities can do much to counteract and to defeat the tendency to premature specialization which is the greatest educational danger of the time. Even where, as is generally the case, they possess no direct powers of control over the lower branches of education, they do indirectly influence the whole sphere of secondary and elementary schools by the standards of admission which they maintain. Where they insist, for entrance to all their departments, on evidence of a sound general training they set the tone throughout the educational system over which they preside and encourage the schools to resist influence urging them in an opposite direction.

UNIVERSITIES AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

But Universities no longer live in a heaven of their own, lifted high above the terrestrial sphere of technical education. It is now universally admitted that the highest kind of technical education should be of University rank, based on the same foundation of general education as is required for the pursuit of other studies. It is therefore obvious that the question of the standard of admission bears directly as well as indirectly on one of the chief causes of the present social unrest. The duty of the Universities is then clear.

It is at all costs to insist on the *maximum* of general education as a foundation for specialization within their own sphere. To reconcile this principle with the practical requirements of life and individual intellectual limitations in the secondary and elementary schools, to obtain the *maximum* of general education for those entering

the lower grades of technical education, is a task in which they can assist by their example and by leading the public which is very ready to accept their guidance, along the right line of educational policy.

Within the last few years we have seen in England the growth of institutions, planted in the shadow of our Universities, but independent of their authority, in which the working man is trying himself to make good the shortcomings of an educational system which did not provide him with the facilities to which in a democratic country, he was entitled in his youth. It will indeed be disastrous if the working classes are thus to establish a complete system of education founded on class exclusiveness and proceeding from and sanctioning that narrow economic outlook which is opposed to all that is best in human nature.

These are some of the political questions which the Congress of the Universities of the Empire will have to consider. Those who hold that the highest scholarship can only thrive in seclusion from public turmoil are inclined to forget that the fate of Archimedes did not advance the science to which he was devoted.

MR. BALFOUR ON LITERATURE.

THE VALUE OF THE CHEERFUL NOTE.

Mr. Balfour proposed the toast of "Literature" at the dinner held at the Whitehall Rooms on May 16 to celebrate the 122nd anniversary of the Royal Literary Fund. Mr. Owen Seaman presided over a distinguished gathering.

The Chairman proposed the toast "Prosperity to the Royal Literary Fund."

He said that the appeal which that charity made was not impersonal, but of the nature of a debt of honour. Nobody, he hoped, imagined that the trivial price that might be paid for a good book was any measure of its real value or that once he had bought it his account with the author was cleared. The value of a good book was beyond the price of rubies, and the payment received by the authors of such books seldom warranted on the part of their wives or daughters, a very large display of that expensive jewel,

(Laughter.) Their list of yearly subscribers was relatively small, and it was to the annual dinner that they had in large measure to look for the raising of the means required for the carrying on of their work. The services of the committee were of course unpaid, and the office and other expenses were of course kept down to the very minimum of what was essential if the very delicate work of the society was to be conducted by experienced hands with dignity and decency. He mentioned that because he noticed only the day before in *The Times* a letter criticizing the ratio between the working expenses of the fund and the amount distributed in grants. The letter, he was sure, was written without malice; yet, if the writer, himself a very prosperous author, had wished to do an injury to that fund, which existed for the benefit of the poorest members of his own profession, he could hardly have chosen a better moment for his purpose than the very eve of the anniversary dinner and a few days after the appearance in the Press of an appeal from the Chairman. It was perhaps not quite fair to call attention to the cost of those anniversary dinners without stopping to consider the very large amount of money which they brought in to the fund. If the result of the appeal made in connexion with those dinners was a net profit of between 500 and 700 per cent., it sounded to him like a fairly good investment. (Cheers.) He asked them, as members of the reading public seriously to consider how deep a debt they owed to the makers of poetry and romance for the renewal of their youth. He pleaded the cause of those who had bravely set foot on the steep paths of the sacred mountain and fallen by the way. (Cheers.)

MR. BALFOUR'S SPEECH.

Mr. Balfour proposed the toast of "Literature." He said:—

From the point of view of the after-dinner speaker I suppose all toasts may be divided according to the magnitude of their subject-matter into three categories. You may have those which are so small that it is hardly possible to beat them out thin enough to fill up a speech. (Laughter.) You may have those which are of that degree of complexity with which the speaker may be expected adequately to deal. And you have those which are so obviously large that to cover such a vast area neither an after-dinner speech nor even the volumes which industry and research pour forth year after year can hope finally to compass or to exhaust. Of those three categories I have no doubt that the last is the most convenient for the after-dinner

speech. If you have got to deal with the first, your difficulty is to find the material. If you have got to deal with the second, you are severely criticized if you do not cover the ground. (Laughter.) No human being expects you to cover the ground of Literature and criticism disappears almost before the speaker rises by the consciousness of almost every one of his hearers that even if he be gifted with the tongue of angels he can neither cover the ground nor can he say anything which will give the smallest impetus or impulse to those great movements of the human spirit of which Literature itself is the product.

LITERATURE AS AN AFTER-DINNER TOPIC.

And yet though Literature be thus in the third and most agreeable category of subjects of after-dinner speaking, it has some defects. Is it to deal with the past, the present, or the future? It is folly to try to touch upon the past. We do not drink the health of the Immortals. Their position is assured. Nothing which any speaker can say, whether he be an after-dinner speaker or in whatever position he may be to address the public, can add to their fame. He cannot illustrate their merits, he cannot alter the opinion of any human being as to the claim which they have upon our affection and our regard. Is a speaker to deal with the future? Of the future of Literature, luckily, no man shall know anything. I say luckily because I am not one of those who believe that such a subject can be so far brought under the rule of scientific law that you can prophesy from the present, what is to come. Then are we to deal with the present? Who would venture on this or, indeed, on any other occasion to try to appreciate the merits, the comparative merits, of living authors, or to say what niche of Fame they are going to occupy in the future or how they will compare with their predecessors or how they will influence those who may come after them? But you have only got to look at the writings of distinguished critics to see how carefully they fight shy of any estimate of contemporary merit. They deal with the past splendidly, adequately; they deal with it in these days in a manner which our forefathers never dreamt of and which our forefathers could not rival. But of the present they do not feel themselves so far as I can form an opinion, to be adequate judges. They neither pronounce their views of the merits of the living nor do they attempt to forecast the relative fame which they will occupy in the future. Therefore it will be admitted that if you are neither to deal with the past nor the future and if you are confined to the present under the conditions which I have endeav-

oured to describe, the task of any man touching on the topic of Literature is not an easy one.

And yet, difficult though it may be how interesting it is, for we are told by great critics that the literature of an age is its picture, that if you look at the past and really grasp the character of the literature which appealed to it you understand that past, that a generation cannot express itself more clearly than in the literature it produces and the literature it encourages. We must therefore conceive ourselves: we of this generation: we sitting at this table and the whole society of which we form a fraction we must conceive ourselves as having our photographs, our cinematograph, taken month after month by the literature which we buy, which we read, which we admire, and which we absorb. That is going to represent us to the future critic. By that, according to this theory, we shall be judged. That is the picture which is going down to posterity.

PUBLIC TASTE AND GENIUS.

I think there is force in this contention, which must impress everybody who reflects upon it. Yet I would venture to suggest to those who advance this theory in its more extreme forms that it may easily be pressed too far. As I understand the theory, it depends upon this that there is at each epoch, at each moment of time, a public taste which admits certain forms of genius or talent to suit itself and which pushes out the remainder, which acts as stained glass acts upon light, letting through rays of a certain quality and character and absorbing the rest. And if you are going to accept this view that there is a particular public taste at a particular moment depending wholly upon the character of the society of the time, then I think there may be truth in that doctrine. But, let us always remember this taste itself—this taste which is supposed to act as a differentiating medium—that it is a thing which itself is capable of being changed by the action of literature by the action of genius and of talent. It is not that talent finds itself face to face with this kind of transparent medium only letting through certain rays and pitilessly rejecting others. That does not represent the facts. Taste can be changed. Taste is a matter of manufacture. Every great producer will tell you—every great producer of luxuries will tell you—that he has not only got to produce the things which the public want, he has got to make the public want them. And when he has made the public want them we call that good business. A similar process, but with a

very different motive, is carried out by the man of genius, by the man of originality, by the man whose natural gifts do not run precisely in the line of contemporary fashion, but rather force him and press him on to a new mode of expression of ideas which may also be new. He also can change the taste by which he is to be judged. He also can act upon this translucent screen which lets through some rays, rejects some, and absorbs others. And it is interesting to watch not how the public taste compels one kind of literature and one kind of literature alone, or literature within a limited class of literary effort, to succeed, but how despite itself the public is made by the force of genius to accept some new mode of expression, some new ideal of art, some living change in the perpetually living process of the human spirit.

Do not let us look at artistic or literary production in too mechanical a fashion. Literature is not the result of merely what are called sociological causes. It is not only not that result, but it is not determined by that. It is determined by the inter-action of those causes and the individual genius which no scientific generalization can class, which no scientific prophecy can foretell. Therefore it is that I, for my part, am reluctant to see literature treated in what is called too scientific a spirit, because I think that science in dealing with this progress of the free human spirit is really going far beyond—I will not say its future capacity, for I do not wish to set bounds to the power of science—but far beyond anything which it can do at present. We must take genius as an accepted fact, and when we have so taken it, it is folly to try and bind it down into the limits of any formula whatever.

THE MEN IN THE ADVANCED GUARD.

The making of taste by a great man of letters or a great artist, or a great school of art is one of the most interesting phenomena, as I think in one of the most fascinating subjects of study—namely, literary and artistic history, and I sometimes feel as if imperfect justice was done to those who begin to make the taste by which the efforts of subsequent genius are rendered possible. We talk of the fore-runners of a particular movement, a particular literary development, a particular artistic or musical development, and we analyse the gain which greater successors obtain from their works—how these greater successors borrow a particular method and develop a particular mode of using their artistic instrument. But I think we sometimes forget another and quite different service

which these fore-runners did. They began to make the atmosphere, the climate, possible in which their greater successors are to flourish. They started the taste which their successors are going to use. You will constantly find, therefore that the beginners of a great literary or artistic movement are far inferior to their successors, but you have to acknowledge that without them, without in the first place, the additions and changes they have made in artistic method, and without the changes they have made in that taste, that æsthetic climate in which alone the new works can flourish, their greater successors would never have obtained the deserved fame which has enshrined them in the love of posterity.

I think I said earlier in my speech that I did not much care for attempts to reduce literary history to a science, and I feel that perhaps in the observations I have made I have run somewhat counter to my own canon. The pleasures I derive personally from literary history are biographical. They are the pleasures of feeling myself brought into direct contact by the writer with great men who have long passed away, and another pleasure not at all to be despised of being brought into contact with the living and contemporary taste of the critic himself. That double pleasure I individually derive from literary criticism and I think the two things together make up so far as I am concerned the sum of those great feelings of gratification which literary history has always given me. If that be the true way of considering those whose business it is to deal with the great men of letters of the past I suppose I ought to try before I sit down—I will not say to offer a criticism upon the present, but to give expression to a personal predilection with regard to contemporary literature.

THE CHEERFUL NOTE IN LITERATURE.

There was a brilliant novel written by a contemporary author which narrated the cheerful successes of the hero who went from one fortunate enterprise to another until at the end he reached the goal of his ambitions. The novel ends with the final triumph of the hero, and a friendly critic observes, "After all what has this man done? With what great cause is he identified?" The novel ends with the answer of another friend to this carping critic. "After all, he has contributed to the great cause of cheering us all up." I am constantly being asked to contribute to causes of one sort or another. (Laughter.) They are very seldom, I regret to say, causes which are likely to cheer us all up, I hope

they are useful, I believe in many cases they are necessary; but that great function they do not perform. I think myself that is a great function, it is one of the great functions, of literature. I do not at all deny, of course, that things sad, sorrowful, tragic, even drab may be and are susceptible of artistic treatment, and that they have been and are admirably treated by great literary artists; but for my own part I prefer more cheerful weather.

I think that literature is less cheerful than it was when I was young (Laughter). It may be that it is because I am growing old that I take this gloomier view of literary effort. But still I personally like the spring day and bright sun and the birds singing and if there be a shower or a storm that it should be merely a passing episode in the landscape to be followed immediately by a return to brilliant sunshine. While that is what I prefer, I of course admit that the great picturesque striking storm is magnificent subject for artistic treatment and as well worthy of the efforts of great artists. I am not quite sure whether the dreary day in which nothing is seen, in which the landscape does not change in which there is a steady but not violent downpour of rain in which you feel that you can neither look out of the window nor walk out of doors, in which every passer-by seems saddened by the perpetual and unbroken melancholy of the scene—I do not say that that ought not to be treated as a subject of literature. Everything, after all which is real is a potential subject of literature as long as it is treated sincerely, as long as it is treated directly, as long as it is an immediate experience no man has the right to complain of it. But it is not what I ask of literature.

What I ask from literature mainly is that in a world which is full of sadness and difficulty, in which you go through a day's stress and come back from your work weary, you should find in literature something which represents life, which is true, in the highest sense of truth, to what is or what is imagined to be true, but which does cheer us. (Cheers.) Therefore when I ask you as I now do, to drink the toast of Literature, I shall myself *sotto voce*, as I drink it, say not literature merely, but that literature in particular which serves the great cause of cheering us all up. (Cheers.) I couple the toast with the name of one of the most distinguished of living critics, my friend Walter Raleigh. (Cheers.)

SIR W. RALEIGH ON AUTHORS.

Sir Walter Raleigh responded to the toast:—

He said he supposed there were more readers and writers than there had ever been. The

crowd of modern literature was too great. Some people feared they would be drowned and suffocated in it. He had no fear of that. Natural selection worked. The first editions did not wear, and the time of an author was the time of his reprint. He had no sympathy with the current Browning Centenary. Those who were celebrating it were in the nature of insurance agents; they were not judges of the permanence of Browning's work. A great author not only took time to be known to be great, he took time to become great; time added to his greatness. That was a supplement to Mr. Balfour's doctrine that the author made his public. Might he add to that that the public, in the case of dead authors, made them? Great literature was literature which was found useful under circumstances that were never conceived in the mind of the author. (Laughter and cheers.) They could not jump a reputation or a fame in literature as they jumped a mining claim. They could not hustle it through the tribunal which was to determine it as they hustled a Bill through the House of Commons. Some people lamented that authors were not recognized in their life-time, and that they did not get pudding and praise and everything they wanted. He could not share that regret. He thought it was well that a prophet should not be extravagantly honoured in his own time. Human nature at its best and greatest was frail and vain and the greatest of men would have his head turned by worship. They must protect themselves against their great men. (Laughter.) Humanity had always had an instinct of how great a claim it was that they made. The claim of the great authors was to enslave them. When people burned the prophets and persecuted them, it was with some sense that a country could only have a few prophets if it was going to remain a free country (Laughter.) The complaint of the poverty of authors had never come from the good authors. They knew that they had themselves to thank for it. Authorship was a kind of self-pleasing melancholy, a living array of phantasms of one's own creation in one's own world. The best thing he knew of that Fund and its administration was that he knew nothing. (Cheers.)

THE DONATIONS.

The Secretary announced that the list of donations was headed by 50 guineas from the King, the Patron of the Fund. The stewards that night had subscribed nearly £1,600. The total sum, which has been exceeded only twice in the 121 years' history of the Fund, amounted to exactly £2,500. (Cheers.)

Lord Tennyson proposed the health of the Chairman, and Mr. Seaman's reply brought the dinner to an end.

THE FIRST DIET OF UNIVERSITIES.

"The world looks to us to become a great and pioneer University, not clogged by tradition nor yet hampered by too immediately utilitarian views. We stand for the education of the future. England is awakening to the need for higher education in every rank of life... The educative future of the English-speaking communities is dependant on our action, which will be imitated in many a city of the Empire." Those were Sir Oliver Lodge's words addressed to the Professors, students and citizens of the Midland capital, on November 28th, 1900, the date of "our first meeting as a Complete University"—the earliest University of the new type.

Since then five Universities of its kind have arisen—Bristol, Sheffield, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester. They were in the first place "University Colleges," of which the two most distinguished were Owen's of Manchester, and Mason's of Birmingham, originally founded, by the munificent donors whose names they bore, as popular colleges without any chartered title, almost exclusively for teaching in the practical arts. Subsequently merged in the Victoria University, established in 1880, they next seconded, to begin the world as separate Universities, each on its own account, but adhering to a common scheme of studies, in conformity with the needs and the aspirations of the new democratic epoch. "Out of the diamond of the Victoria University," said Lord Rosebery—in a characteristic speech delivered not long ago at Liverpool University—"you have produced half a dozen splinters each equal in radiance to the original University, and they are now going lustre to half-a-dozen cities." The conception of a University had been transformed in the forty years that had elapsed since the speaker was a sort of lay monk at large in the "learned cloister" as he called it, of Oxford. The "disinherited," for whose fathers the "cloisters" had been piously founded, were knocking at the "cloister" gates, or planning new colleges of their own, with an outlook upon the world more various and wide. And so, again to quote the ex-Prime Minister, "you find that every great city in the Kingdom is demanding, as the complement and crown of its municipal life, that it shall have a University within its boundaries." Crown of the municipal life!—an arresting expression con-

sidering how near the time was when the municipal Fathers of England considered they fulfilled their duty when they scrubbed the streets and put rioters in goal. Still more arresting was Lord Morley's short speech, before the same audience, on the intellectual and more equipment which the new Universities should provide for the rising generation, at a period 'when not merely forms of government but the very structure of society were to be subjected to popular scrutiny.' The six Universities are now sufficiently developed and sufficiently experienced, to give their answer to that all-important question, and to take a leaping part in the approaching assemblage in London of the delegates from the fifty-two Universities of the British Empire—an assemblage that provokes a rough but significant contrast with the Councils and the Diets of a Church which in the barbaric past sat in judgment upon the faith and the morals of Christendom.

To the question of University training, Mr. Asquith, who is to be a member of the Diet has repeatedly, within the last ten years given the answer. "Do not let your University become a factory for turning out Specialists." "A University is not a technological institution." "You would not exchange your *litteræ humaniores* for a king's ransom." The practical Lord Haldane has often told his academic audiences that the Germany of his admiration is "the creation of her poets and philosophers." Not that there is any incompatibility between the claims of literature and science, as instruments of education. To quote Mr. Balfour, himself a philosopher and man of letters, "you must drink deeply from both sources of inspiration." It is purely and simply a question of how you handle your literature and your science. And indeed there was a time when it seemed as if the "polytechnic spirit," as it was called, might control the new educational movement and when scholarly critics like Mr. Churton Collins were horrified at the prospect of Young England emerging from his technological institute as "a skilled craftsman and an accomplished scientist in a small way, but little better than a Caliban in all that pertains to taste, to feeling, to general intelligence, wholly ignorant of the history of his country, of its institutions, of its literature, and in all probability wholly indifferent to them." It was a time when to certain eminent politicians the University of the new type was merely a "commercial asset." But this dismal view of the higher education fell far below the rising standard of that same period. "A man needs know-

ledge not only as a means of livelihood but as a means of life," was the chosen motto of the University Extension Society, the precursor of the new Colleges and Universities. The educational ideal of the new democracy is proclaimed in those seventeen words.

It is the ideal that inspires the entire scheme of studies in the Universities of the new type. In this scheme, which is common to Bristol, Sheffield, Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, and Leeds alike (with some exceptional developments attributable to local needs and advantages), nothing is more remarkable than the eminence accorded to what are usually called the subjects "Humanities," and the extent to which even the studies of the more immediately utilitarian order are pervaded by "the Humanities." In these young Universities, the bride of a great population which is nothing if not practical, the student who would take honors in Greek and Latin be able to read Plato "with his feet on the fender," and Lucretius as easily as Tennyson. Their classical test is also more various, more "humanist" even, than it used to be, not so very long ago, in the "cloisters" of Oxford and Cambridge, and in the Scottish Universities, for it requires, in addition to the linguistic attainment (and as its chief end), a knowledge of the life, literature, art, political and historical career of the people who spoke and wrote the most beautiful and most stately of human tongues. Many an old collegian brought up on the Greek and Latin classics, and contemplating this comprehensive, intelligent handling of them, may regret the shortcomings of his Alma Mater. Lord Morley's faith in the perpetuity of his "Ancients" is securely based. They are as indispensable to the biography of the human race as is the tale of his youth to the biography of the individual. It must also be noted that in the educational scheme of the new Universities "the Humanities" have a larger reach than of old. They include modern languages and literatures, and even such subjects as Icelandic, Gothic and the Provençal dialects; and the history, constitution, and administration of foreign States. Birmingham gives close attention to "the making of modern Germany," and the civic, literary, artistic, and religious life of France, and even to the *Entente*, with some strong denunciation of the "nefarious influence of the most blatant section of an irresponsible press on both sides"—a deliciously original departure from academic aloofness. In the new Universities the international interest is very much alive. No one need fear lest the teaching should manufactur-

fractional men, lop-siding their brief passage, on their fragment of a "speciality," between the eternities.

The permeation of the utilitarian courses of instruction, by the spirit of "the Humanities," is exemplified in the Birmingham Commercial Faculty, whose students, just because they are become "business men" (says the official notification), must qualify in "subjects long recognised as elements of liberal culture." Among the subjects they take up are modern languages, Latin, mathematics, psychology, ethics, some one or more of the experimental sciences, the history and institutions of modern nations (e.g., "France, Germany, Spain and Spanish America") and the "forces . . . influencing contemporary statesmanship." So the commercial course of three years is in itself a liberal education. A striking testimony to the value which commercial men themselves attach to a liberal, an "all round," education for their young specialists, is the recent formation of an "Appointments Board" at one or two of the Universities, including Cambridge. The innovation was borrowed by business men from dollar-hunting America, whose captains of industry are unsurpassed in the world for their patronage—even though it be not a wholly disinterested patronage—of scholarship, literature, philosophy, and the fine arts—of all that is understood by liberal culture. The Board is not an agency charging fees or commissions to either side, but simply a free registry of students who, in the opinion of their tutors and professors, can concentrate upon a particular form of activity—in manufacture, in commerce, in engineering, in the State service, in the municipal service, as in hygiene, in education—the strength of character and the intellectual resource developed by a general training.

"As a University aims at putting its members in possession of the best results of human culture, so must it devise means for diffusing these results, and fostering an interest in them, among the masses of the people." So says Sheffield of the cutlers and the saw-grinders, in making her arrangements (as the others do) for her "Extension" and "tutorial" classes. Young workmen who have given to these classes the scanty hours left after the daily effort to keep the wolf from the door, have stood an examination test equal to the honors standard at the old Universities. Many a University man is there, who—with any considerable experience of the extension movement—has been deeply touched by the eager response of minds, hitherto untutored, to the charm of classical literature; has, perhaps with feelings the

reverse of self-complacent, contrasted his own fairer destiny with the lot of some among his audience, whose minds have been starved for lack of intellectual sunshine. "Chill penury . . . froze the genial current" of their souls. The few who have emerged have left unnumbered others in the depths. The saddest tragedy in the world is this tragedy of waste.

The general realisation of this truth inspires the new educational movement. It is the incentive of democracy, for what is the democratic ideal but the unprivileged development, to the highest stage of which they are capable, of all the best faculties of man, individually and collectively? The cultivation of human life as the finest of all the arts is the mission of democracy. Nor is the new conception of the function of the University in a democratic society the possession of an intellectual *élite*. It is of the people. The historian of social England will have fewer tasks more pleasant than to record how the people of those laborious towns bestirred themselves for the creation of their colleges and universities by royal charter; how far the maintenance of the new institutions municipal revenues were assigned, and magnificent bequests and donations made by individual citizens with a promptitude as gratifying as their generosity; how in a "materialistic" age the conception of knowledge, "not only as means of livelihood but as a means of life" was kept steadily in view; how the direct influence of the Universities on the people and of the people on the Universities was attained by Courts, committees, delegates representing the counties, the municipalities, the school boards, the trades and manufactures, the hygienic and charitable organisations, the University Settlements, the Extension and other literary and scientific societies, the technological institutes of each region of which the University town was the capital. And just as the "industrial unrest," when stripped of its separable accidents, so the rise of the new Universities, is a symptom of the movement of civilisation towards higher forms of existence—higher than Plato dreamt of, or the Stagyrite, with his definition of man as "a citizen by nature." The envoys from the fifty-two Universities of the British world about to assemble in London are training the artificers of the democratic State. They stand on the threshold of the Third Renaissance.—*The Nation*.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

The 'Hindu' on "Government and Secondary Education in Madras."

In the course of a long editorial on the question of Government aid to Secondary Education in Madras the *Hindu* writes as follows:—

The changes brought about in 1906 in the Grant-in-Aid Code, as regards the provision that before any grant could be made, Managers should guarantee a portion of the deficit, the practical insistence on the levying by Managers of the standard rates without allowing 10 per cent. reduction which had been in force previously, and without taking into calculation any free studentships which may be allowed by the management, as was done before,—constituted a violent departure from the policy which Government had been pursuing for a number of years, and placed a strain on schools which many have not had the strength to bear, as the doleful history of institutions which have gone out of the aided list will well show. Facts have an inconvenient and annoying tendency to remain unaltered despite the able and determined onslaughts made on them, and the official description of the very just and modest proposals of Mr. Seshagiri Aiyar to revert back to the old state of things, as practically amounting to a call for the abolition of the Grant-in-Aid Code hardly does justice to well-known facts of which Government are fully aware, and is scarcely calculated to enhance the prestige of official pronouncements. Dr. Bourne sought to find support for the rule in the Grant-in-Aid Code as revised in 1906 as to the necessity for Managers to find half the deficit in the Education Commission's report which, he said, contained 'an absolute recommendation' that the highest amount of aid expected from public funds should be half of the deficit. This is quite inaccurate, for, any amount of search in that report cannot reward the ardent student of Madras educational policy with the find. The fact is that this *obiter dictum*—for such it is—is found not among the recommendations, which are all printed in italics, but somewhere else, where the Commission discuss the claims of a school which, in point of efficiency, equipment, etc., is on a footing of equality with a State institution in the same place. There are no model schools at present in existence, which could afford guidance to Government or the public in arriving at the amount of grant that can be given to an aided institution and to indent for help on that statement, which was applied by the Commission to an imaginary condition of things, is to take up quite an untenable position.

The 'Times' on Shakespeare and Religion.

The Headmaster of Eton, in his sermon at Commemoration Service of the Stratford Festival, took the unexpected line that Shakespeare was not a religious poet; and in doing so very likely shocked some of his hearers. Books have been written about Shakespeare's religion; an effort has been made to prove that he was a Roman Catholic, his idolatry starts with the assumption that he was everything a man ought to be, and if they think that he ought to have been religious, they use very scrap of religious allusion in his play to make their point. The negative method employed by Mr. Lyttelton is much safer and does more honour to the genius of the poet. We may be sure that, if religion had been one of Shakespeare's chief interests, he would have expressed it, not, merely in occasional passages dramatically appropriate but in the choice of his characters and the very structure of his plots. Nobody can pretend that he did so. Not one of his chief characters, either of those who seem to be drawn from his own experience or from the closest and keenest observation, is religious; nor is religion a main interest in any of his plots. We can see that he had a morality of his own; and the chief point in it seems to have been the very Christian virtue of forgiveness; but that virtue in his case appears to have been based rather upon a large understanding of human nature than upon a passionate desire to do the will of God. In fact Shakespeare was a man rather of the type of Lionardo than of Michelangelo; and his art is the art of the Renaissance, not of the earlier ages of faith. That is the reason why the drama was a natural means of expression for him; for by means of it he could express the boundless curiosity of the Renaissance, its interest in all the processes and conflicts of life. His plays are experiments not theses and his peculiar power consists in representation rather than in proof. There is no writer who takes so little for granted about life or who seems to be so incessantly upon a voyage of discovery. Once or twice, as in *Measure for Measure* and *Troilus and Cressida* he seems to start with the desire to prove something; but in both cases he tires of it. *Measure for Measure* is only made into a play by means of a conventional ending; and *Troilus and Cressida* is no play at all, but a mere fragment concluded with doggerel by another hand.

The Elementary School System of England,

by Mr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of
Leeds University.

It will be remembered that the elementary school system of England has been criticised rather strongly by a certain class of people who ridicule the modern reformers in their efforts to relieve wretchedness and induce the State to do its duty by the children. Sir William Anson was one of these, and his remarks, containing half-truths, formed the subject of a sober and dispassionate discourse by that eminent educationist, Mr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University. Mr. Sadler agreed with Sir William in his ridicule of the exaggerated claims put forward on behalf of the elementary education system in England, without any reference to his quality. Sir William had truly said that it was no more possible to make a child clever by keeping it within the four walls of a school than it was to make a man a Christian by keeping him within the four walls of a church, or a statesman by making him go through the division lobbies. This was true enough, said Mr. Sadler, but it did not touch the central point of the situation. What the school could do was to give an opportunity for the gradual and healthy development of the powers of mind and body—a development which was often thwarted by the conditions of juvenile wage-earning employments and by the short-sightedness or ignorance of parents. Great natural capacity, Mr. Sadler pointed out, was running to waste in all directions by our failure to adjust school training to the varying temperaments and aptitudes of different children, and still more by our allowing the period of school training to end too soon, instead of dovetailing it into improved conditions of employment. Modern education, he further said, fell indeed woefully short of the real needs of the nation, but the remedy for its defects lay in a new spirit and method in teaching, in better conditions of school life, and in economic and social reforms which would improve the circumstances of wage-earning employment. It was along these lines that educational reform was steadily advancing. Railing accusations against it provided a new flavour for the jaded palate of the newspaper reader, but did little to lighten the lot of the children of neglectful parents or of the victims of inconsiderate employers.

Mr. Balfour on Oliver Cromwell.

Mr. Balfour was the chief guest at the Commemoration Feast of the Worshipful Company of Grocers. In responding to the toast of "The honorary freemen of the Company," which was proposed by the Master, he said his duty was not to respond to the glowing eulogies of his friend in the chair, but to speak for other members present and absent of that Corporation. The Master had reminded them that that was a commemoration feast of the company. It was a commemoration feast of an event of which they all wore an emblem in their button-holes, an event which called to public mind the universal enthusiasm, broadly speaking, irrespective of party or religious or civil differences, that welcomed back Charles II after his exile, again to resume the ancient traditions of the country. Why was it that at that time there was this almost unbroken feeling of satisfaction that those traditions were resumed? It was not because Oliver Cromwell was a statesman indifferent to tradition. If anything was clear about that eminent though rather tragic figure in British history it was that the force of circumstances compelled him to deal as supreme ruler with the destinies of his country. He did his very best in the new circumstances to continue what he had found. He was no doctrinaire of the character of some few of his contemporaries; he was no doctrinaire of the type hundreds and thousands of the best educated men in all countries were at the time preceding and during the French Revolution. He was of a very different type of mind—if he (Mr. Balfour) might say so, of a very British type of mind. If he failed, as with all his genius he did fail, it was not because he was indifferent to the traditions of his country. It was not because he had some cut and dried theory as to how men in the abstract should be governed or how Englishmen in particular should be governed; it was because by the force of circumstances over which he was in part responsible, but over which he was certainly not alone responsible, that he found himself compelled to break with traditions of the past. It was no use his trying to put up under different names, with broken continuity, institutions similar to those of the past, but which, nevertheless, were in no feature in unity with that history to which the English people were profoundly and deeply attached. Therefore it was that the whole country turned back to the old traditions.

University Education:

British and American Systems.

At a meeting of the Royal Colonial Institute on the 23rd April, Mr. A. E. Shipley, Master of Christ's College, Cambridge, read a paper on 'Universities and Practical Education.'

Mr. Shipley said that it was to the problem of fitting men for their practical post-academic life that he wished to call attention. The Americans set great store by the practical nature of education, and one of the results of that was that not infrequently boys who in the ordinary course of events would leave school at 14 or so, prompted by their own wishes and desires, went up to the high school where they maintained themselves, altogether or partly, by working during the vacations and putting in a couple of hours a day after school at any odd jobs that might be available. In that way the path from the school to the University was a straight one. The number of those who trod it included many able men, some of them inherent leaders, who would in other circumstances be condemned to pursue their careers under the load of ignorance.

But it should be pointed out that the system in America, where men could put 'themselves through college' was, as it stood, beset by many grave disadvantages. Columbia University had 7000 students and Harvard over 4000, with teaching staffs that were very far from adequate. This meant that the priceless feature of individual instruction and attention would be neglected. The student soon perceived that all he had to do was to take careful notes (and the lectures were too often given in a form from which notes are easily taken), 'cram up' these notes, and he would pass the necessary examinations, getting a college degree as a reward. That degree he would use as a handle for getting a job. Such a system did not produce leaders; on the other hand, it reduced every one to the same level. It stifled originality. Several Americans had told him that comparatively few things were actually invented in America, that most inventions came from abroad but were eagerly taken up and exploded in the States. Where

the American really shone was not as an inventor but as a manufacturer. It was a striking fact that originality was rare in America, and it must be accounted for by the educational system. Yet America, as much as other nations, needed leaders, but she would scarcely get them from her overcrowded Universities.

The remedy was either a gigantic increase in the teaching staffs or else a more rigorous elimination of the first-year students. The second course would be the better, for there could be no question that many men passed mechanically through college and derived no advantage from it. If the students were vigorously sorted in their first year, the teaching staff would then be freed from the onus of imparting knowledge to men who would never derive any benefit from it, and the remainder could be given individual instruction and some be made capable leaders. At present the older English Universities were producing the best men, but the field from which they drew was small. By making slight reforms, America could be on the same footing as the English University, with the added advantage of a universal field from which to select their raw material.

The college man needed to be brought into ultimate contact with the realities which lay outside his college precincts. That could only be successfully accomplished by practical educational travel under the direct supervision of an association capable of directing the student in his search for information. The 'grand tour' used to be considered essential to the complete education of a gentleman, and if it were necessary then, it was needless to urge its greater utility to-day. The man who had been stimulated by experience of other methods was an important progressive factor in the scheme of things. Such practical educational travel was provided by the Association for the International Interchange of Students which had been founded in 1909 under the presidency of Lord Strathcona. Mr. Shipley ended his paper by an explanation of the aims and object of the Association.

Technical Education and Industrial Development, by Sir Theodore Morison.

At the King's College, London, Sir Theodore Morison read an interesting paper on 'The relation of Technical Education to the Industrial Development in India.' He discussed in the first part of his lecture some of the arguments advanced by those who take the view that it is no use sending Indian students abroad for practical training. It is sometimes said that these young men spend their time in learning things which they could learn more cheaply in India. It is also urged that the great obstacle to the industrial development of India is the want of skilled labour. What is the use of officers without men?

The lecturer seemed to state these and other objections to technical training abroad without offering very adequate replies to them; and he made it quite clear that such training is not in itself a sufficient guarantee that the future of Indian industrial enterprise is assured. But he believes that a beginning must be made with the educated classes, who are always alert to initiate new movements of thought and action. The sooner we get the educated classes to work upon the industrial problems of India, said he, the sooner we shall find the solution.

What India wanted most of all, the lecturer proceeded, was the application of financial ability to scientific processes. It was no use expecting young Indians just returned from the West to pioneer new industries. People would never invest their money in such doubtful enterprises. The young men must find their places in some existing industry. The best organized and most successful industries in India were not generally accessible to the Indian technical scholar. He gave illustrations of this, and pointed out that even Indian firms hesitated to employ young beginners. He went on to show how it was that the Swadeshi movement had so largely failed in India, and said that in most instances it was a case of the blind leading the blind, with the usual consequences.

The Novel in Bengali regarded as a form of art, by J. D. Anderson, I.C.S.

ON May 29th, Mr. J. D. Anderson, I.C.S., Bengal (retired), University Teacher of Bengali at Cambridge, read a paper to the India Society on the Novel in Bengali regarded as a form of art. It was very important, he argued, to note the precise debt which Indian art, whether literary or pictorial, owes to European culture. There is a form of borrowing which, though it may be mistaken for plagiarism, is a necessary condition of advance in art. It was Bunkin Chandra Chatterjee's admiration of English novels which led him to adopt the novel form as a means of expression. But the characteristic novel of the Bengali novelist is a different thing from the English novel. It happens that one of the most interesting of B. C. Chatterjee's novels has precisely the same plot as Edward Rod's "La Vie Privee de Michel Teissier." The Bengali novel preceded the French one by some twenty years, and Mr. Rod has said that his tale is based on the private life of Parnell. There has evidently been no plagiarism, or indeed common influence or origin of any kind. Even if there had been borrowing on either hand each work would on its own merits be original; since in each the treatment of the common theme is absolutely original, and each novel belongs unmistakably to its own school of art. Some critics have lately discovered that the new pictorial school of art in Bengali as represented by Mr. Avanindranath Thakur and Mr. Nando Lal Bose resembles modern French painting. It can be shown that the resemblance, if it exists, is merely a coincidence. So is it with literary art in Bengal. Europe supplied a new treatment a new technique, but the native artist put the fresh methods to indigenous uses, and the resulting work of art is as purely Indian as anything in Sanskrit literature. It would be futile and ungrateful to deny that India owes a debt to Western culture, but the nature of the debt must not be misunderstood. Mr. Anderson quoted several illustrations in support of his thesis.

England's Debt to German Education.

At the meeting of the Allgemeiner Deutscher Neuphilologen-Verband, at Frankfurt-on-Main, Mr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, delivered, at the Committee's invitation, an address on 'England's Debt to German Education.' The other selected speakers were Professor Ferdinand Brunot, of the Sorbonne, Paris, who spoke on 'L'Autorité en Matière de Langage,' and Professor Heinrich Morf, of Berlin, who spoke on Linguistics.

In the course of his address Mr. Sadler said that of all foreign influences upon English methods of teaching and educational ideals the German had, during the last 100 years, been the most formative and penetrating. It had touched every grade of our education from the Kindergarten to the University. To Froebel and his followers was chiefly due the more evolutionary, gentle, and spontaneous training of little children. The official definition of the purpose of the public elementary school, now printed in the Code of the English Board of Education, bore the impress of the ideas of Fichte and of Herbart. Compulsory attendance at school was in great measure the outcome of German example. School hygiene and the medical inspection of school children owed much to German precedent, especially to the researches of Hermann Cohn, of Breslau, into the eyesight of children in 1866, to the appointment of a school doctor at Frankfurt in 1883, and to the establishment of a school dental clinic at Strassburg in 1902. The part now borne by the English Government in the organization of secondary schools, and in the subsidizing of University studies, was in large measure due to German precedent. The encouragement of higher technical instruction of University rank was the direct result of German example. The new methods of teaching modern languages owed much to Viëtor, of Marburg, and to Dörr and Max Walter, of Frankfurt. The new movement for a re-arrangement of the course of language-teaching in the classical schools (with the provision of a com-

mon basis of modern studies for all pupils up to 12 years of age and the postponement of Latin till 12 and of Greek till 14) had been inspired by Dr. Reinhardt's reforms at the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfurt which in turn were a development of Dr. Schlee's experiment at Altona. The new conception of the continuation school, at once technical and humane, organized in direct relation to industry but with a broad civic purpose, was mainly derived from German sources, and especially from the work of Dr. Kerschensteiner at Munich. German educational ideas had been popularised in England by a succession of great writers—S. T. Coleridge, Thomas Carlyle, Charles Dickens (who was an ardent Froebelian from 1855), Herbert Spencer, and Matthew Arnold. They had also been diffused amongst us by many English residents of German birth or stock; by statesmen like the late Prince Consort, by scholars like Max Müller, by teachers like Miss Heerwart, Mme. Michaelis, and Mr. Sonnenschein.

In our schools and colleges the courses of study and methods of instruction owed a great debt to German scholars and men of science, not least to Grimm, Bopp, F. A. Wolf, Niebuhr, and Liebig. Our courses of professional training for teachers were much indebted to the writings of Herbart and to the personal influence of Professor W. Rein, of Jena. But perhaps the greatest debt of English education to Germany lay in our having learned, though as yet imperfectly, from German thinkers, and especially from Fichte, Wilhelm von Humboldt, Hegel, and Friedrich Paulsen, that the encouragement and intellectual guidance of all grades of national education is one of the highest functions of the State, provided that the State is enlightened enough to give freedom to the investigators and to the teacher, and to plan wisely for far-off returns, not with the narrow purpose of securing money profit, but with faith in the character-forming power of great ideas.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Intermediate Examination in Law.

The following gentlemen have been appointed to conduct the Intermediate Examination in Law to be held in July 1912, from 1st to 4th, both days inclusive:—

Mahomedan Law and Law of Persons:—Shams-ul-Ulama Muhammad Yusoof Khan Bahadur, B.L., Mr. A. Rasul, M.A., B.L., Bar-at-Law, Babu Krishnaprasad Sarbadhikari, M.A., B.L., and Babu Janendranath Basu, B.L.

Law of Transfer:—Babus Birajmohan Majumdar, M.A., B.L., Karunamoy Basu, M.A., B.L., Samatoshchandra Dutt, M.A., B.L., and Mohini-mohan Chatterjee, M.A., B.L.

Law of Real Property, etc.:—Messrs. B. K. Acharyya, LL.B., Bar-at-Law, J. M. Sengupta, LL.B., Bar-at-Law, Babus Asutosh Mukerji, M.A., B.L., and Hiralal Chakraborty, M.A., B.L.

Law of Contracts and Torts:—Messrs. B. K. Ghosh, M.A., B.L., Bar-at-Law, Prithwiraj Mitra, B.A., Bar-at-Law, Dr. Saratchandra Basak, M.A., B.L., and Babu Nareschandra Sengupta, M.A., M.L.

New Mathematics Chair.

To commemorate the Royal Visit the Calcutta University proposed the establishment of two chairs of History and Mathematics. The Viceroy disapproved of the first in view of the establishment of a history professorship at Delhi. The Calcutta University Syndicate has selected Dr. Haridas Bagchi to be lecturer in mathematics, and the Senate will now move the Government of India to sanction the appointment.

An Appointment.

Mr. G. Findlay Shirras, on special duty with the Finance Department, Government of India, is appointed to act as a member of the Syndicate of Calcutta University during the absence on leave of Dr. E. Denison Ross.

Notification of Examinations.

The Matriculation Examination in 1913 will be held on the 3rd of March 1913 and following days.

Applications and fees for admission to the Examination should reach the Office of the Registrar on or before the 18th of January 1913.

The Intermediate Examination in Arts and Science, the B.A. and the B.Sc. Examinations in 1913 will be held on the 17th of March 1913 and following days.

Applications and fees for admission to the aforesaid Examinations must reach the Office of the Registrar on or before the 1st of February 1913.

The Preliminary Scientific, the First and the Second M. B. Examinations in 1913 will be held on the 7th of April 1913 and following days.

Applications and fees for admission to the aforesaid Examinations must reach the Office of the Registrar on or before the 22nd of March 1913.

The L.T. and the B.T. Examinations in 1913 will be held on the 25th of March 1913 and following days.

Applications and fees for admission to the abovenamed Examinations must reach the Office of the Registrar on or before the 8th of February 1913.

The Preliminary Examination in Law to be held in January 1913 will be held on the 6th, 7th, and 8th January 1913.

The Intermediate Examination in Law to be held in January 1913 will be held on the 13th, 14th, 15th and 16th of January 1913.

The Final Examination in Law to be held in January 1913 will be held on the 20th, 21st, 22nd, and 23rd of January 1913.

Applications and fees for admission to the abovementioned Examinations should reach the Office of the Registrar on or before the 7th of December 1912.

The M.L. Examination in 1912 will be held on the 31st of December 1912 and on the 2nd and 3rd of January 1913.

Applications and fees for admission to the Examination should reach the Registrar on or before the 28th of September 1912.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

Election of Fellows by Registered Graduates.

The following are the rules relative to the Election of Ordinary Fellows by Registered Graduates:—

1. The Syndicate shall maintain a register, on which any graduate of the Allahabad University who—

(a) has taken the degree of Doctor or Master in any Faculty, or

(b) has graduated in any Faculty not less than ten years before registration shall be entitled to have his name entered and retained in such register 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 an application in the prescribed form, obtainable from the Registrar, and shall forward the same to the Registrar along with the initial fee of rupees ten, and either the first annual fee of rupees two or a composition fee of rupees twenty. The Registrar shall thereupon cause his name to be entered on the register: provided that his application form and fees have been received by the Registrar on or before the 10th day of February 1913, or not more than one year from the date on which he becomes entitled to registration under regulation 1. The date on which a graduate has taken a degree or graduated in any Faculty shall be the date, on which he is admitted to the degree.

3. The date of the diploma of his degree shall be the date from which the period of ten years under regulation 1 (b), or of one year under regulation 2, shall be calculated.

4. Any graduate, who is entitled to registration under regulation 1, but fails to apply for the same before the expiry of the period specified in regulation 2, shall, in order that his name may be entered on the register, pay in addition to the fees prescribed in regulation 2, an additional fee of rupees ten.

5. Every registered graduate, who has not compounded for his annual fee, shall pay an annual fee of rupees two, not later than the 30th June of each calendar 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 thereon in any subsequent year 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 twenty.

7. Registered graduates shall notify to the Registrar every change of their address.

Affiliation of Colleges.

Government has sanctioned the affiliation to the

Allahabad University of the undermentioned colleges up to the standards noted against each:—Muir Central College, Allahabad, up to the M.A. standard in Economics with effect from the 16th July; Christian College, Allahabad, up to the M.A. standard in Economics with effect from the 1st July; and the Central Hindu College, Benares, up to the M.A. standard in Philosophy with effect from the 1st July.

The New Senate Hall.

The new Senate Hall of the Allahabad University, the erection of which is now nearing completion, is to be opened at the end of July, or the beginning of August.

DACCA UNIVERSITY.

Interesting details of the Meeting of the Committee.

The first meeting of the Dacca University Committee took place on the 20th instant. The proceedings were more or less informal, but it is gathered that an effort will be made to make the Dacca University as near an ideal one for Indian conditions as possible. The University will make an immediate provision for 2000 students. It will have four colleges including the two already existing, namely, the Dacca and the Jagunnath College, affiliated to it.

The new University will occupy the buildings now occupied by the Dacca College and also the abandoned Secretariats of the late Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam. It is thought that the vacant Secretariats will make very suitable colleges. Although the students will be encouraged to live as boarders in the University hostels those who like to attend the lectures as day scholars will be allowed to do so. Fees will be far from prohibitive. There is a difference of opinion as to whether the Law College should be affiliated to the proposed University. This question will be threshed out at a later sitting of the committee. Among other details not yet settled are the constitution of the governing body of the University and the qualification for the admission of students.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.

Conferring of Degrees.

News have reached Simla that the Cambridge University have conferred the degree of Litt. D. on Mr. J. H. Marshall, C.I.E., F.S.A., Director-General of Archaeology in India.

EDINBURGH UNIVERSITY.

A Post-Graduate Degree in Education.

Edinburgh University is considering the institution of a post-graduate degree in education. The subjects of examination suggested are logic, metaphysics or moral philosophy, psychology (general and special), history of education, experimental pedagogy, comparative education, and educational administration. Candidates according to the "University correspondent," will also be required to present a thesis and give evidence of having undergone a course in theory and practice of teaching and of possessing a reading knowledge of French or German or Italian. There is no British University at present which grants a separate education degree though the subject may be taken at London as part of the B.A. course.

LONDON UNIVERSITY.

At a meeting of the University of London held on May 30, Sir William Collins, the Vice-Chancellor, in the chair, the following resolution was carried:—

'That the Senate welcome the efforts of Lord Haldane and of other friends of University education in London to raise funds towards the present and future needs of the University, and have referred to a special committee the consideration of the most suitable site for the University.'

A committee, consisting of 13 members, in addition to the three official members, was appointed to consider and report on the question of an adequate site for the head-quarters of the University, and generally on the question of accommodation from the point of view of the University as a whole, with power to communicate with persons and bodies at their discretion.

IMPERIAL UNIVERSITIES.

Papers and Discussions.

The following is the detailed programme of papers and discussions at the Congress of the Universities of the Empire to be held in London in July:—

TUESDAY, JULY 2.

10 A.M.—Chairman, Lord Rosebery, Chancellor of the Universities of London and Glasgow, and Lord Rector of the University of St. Andrews, by whom the Congress will be opened. (1) Question of division of work and specialization among

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Universities, paper by Sir Alfred Hopkinson, Vice-Chancellor of Manchester. (2) Inter-University arrangements for post-graduate and research students, paper by Principal Peterson, McGill University.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 3.

10 A.M.—Chairman, Lord Curzon of Kedleston, Chancellor of the University of Oxford. (1) The relation of Universities to technical and professional education and to education for the public services, papers by Professor A. Smithells, University of Leeds, and Mr. Stanley Leathes, C.B., First Civil Service Commissioner. (2) Interchange of University teachers; conditions of interchange, paper by Dr. J. W. Barrett, University of Melbourne.

3 P.M.—Chairman, Mr. Balfour, Chancellor of the University of Edinburgh. (1) The problem of Universities in the East in regard to their influence on character and moral ideals, papers by Sir Frederick Lugard, Chancellor of Hongkong University and Dr. J. C. R. Ewing, Vice-Chancellor of Punjab University. (2) Residential facilities, including colleges and hostels, paper by Mr. E. B. Sargant.

THURSDAY, JULY 4.

10 A.M.—Chairman, Lord Rayleigh, O.M., late F.R.S., Chancellor of the University of Cambridge. (1) Conditions of entrance to Universities and the possibility of equivalence and mutual recognition of entrance tests to degree courses, paper by Mr. P. E. Matheson. (2) Action of Universities in relation to the after-careers of their students; papers by Mr. H. A. Roberts and Miss M. G. Spencer.

3 P.M.—Chairman, Lord Haldane, Chancellor of the University of Bristol. Provision of courses of study and examinations for other than degree students, papers by Mr. J. A. R. Morriott and Rev. D. H. S. Cranage.

FRIDAY, JULY 5.

10 A.M.—Chairman, Lord Strathcona, Chancellor of Aberdeen and McGill. (1) The establishment of a central bureau, paper by Dr. G. R. Parkin, C.M.G., Organizing Secretary of the Rhodes Scholarship Trust. (2) The position of women in universities, paper by Miss H. M. White, Principal of Alexandra College, Dublin. (3) Representation of teachers and graduates on the governing body of a University, paper by Sir James Donaldson, Vice-Chancellor and Principal of the University of St. Andrews.

Reviews and Notices.

THE REVISED ENGLISH GRAMMAR: A NEW EDITION OF THE ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR (BASED UPON THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY) BY ALFRED S. WEST, M.A., TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE. (THE UNIVERSITY PRESS, 1912).

Mr. A. S. West is so well-known that he needs no fresh introduction to Indian teachers and students. He has taken his information from the best authorities and used his own discretion and originality in the arrangement and treatment of the matter. Chapters I to V gives a short history of the English Language, a knowledge of the constituents with its position in the Indo-European Family of Languages and an idea of sounds. Chapter VII treats of Etymology. These chapters are specially good. The hints on Essay-writing (pp. 299—326) also deserve particular notice.

Even in these days when English Grammar is neglected in the Madras Presidency, as questions require answers in the form of composition, study of a language requires reference to an authoritative elementary text-book in grammar if pupils are to improve themselves or be improved by their teachers. We should therefore heartily like to see it in the hands of all Sixth Form pupils appearing for the Matriculation and the School Final Public Examination. It is a relief to turn to such a book written on a rational basis from books hitherto in use, written in such a manner as to promote cramming.

PROGRESSIVE PRACTICE-BOOK IN "DIRECT" ENGLISH COMPOSITION—ORAL AND WRITTEN—BY PERCIVAL WREN, M.A. (OXON), ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, BOMBAY. SECOND EDITION. (K. & J. COOPER.) Price Re. 1-2-0.

Part I of the Book is useful for the Primary School in the analysis and synthesis of sentences as well as oral composition and conversation. It extends over 108 pages. The exercises given are quite suitable.

Part II treats of Story-writing, Letter-writing and Essay-writing. This may be very well used in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd Forms of Secondary

Schools. The hints on Story-writing are good. The book really deserves to be used by teachers. The treatment clearly shows that it is written by one who is practical and gives what is practicable in the "Junior Course for Indian Boys." So, we request reference to the four stages of writing that are given. The hints and exercises given under each stage must be gone through by the teachers themselves. It is not our desire to praise, without reason, books of this kind.

Any teacher who earnestly likes to use the book may look at the four stages given and convince himself of the utility of the detailed hints. The exercises are also quite suitable.

It is not one of the catch-penny books but one really helping rational work on an intelligible plan. It may be well used in Primary Schools and Lower Secondary Forms.

PHYSIOLOGY, BY W. D. HALLIBURTON, F.R.S. (J. M. DENT & SONS, LTD., LONDON.) 1s. net.

This is one of the volumes of Dent's scientific primers and the name of its author is a sufficient guarantee of its excellence. The main facts of modern physiology are given in an elementary way in language as free from technical terms as possible. The anatomical information has been reduced to a minimum. The book forms a good introduction to the study of more advanced manuals. The author reminds the reader that physiology, being eminently a practical subject, should be studied with demonstrations, and that a great deal may be done in this direction without the use of any elaborate or expensive apparatus.

NARRATIVE GEOGRAPHY READERS, BOOK I, BY GEORGE F. BOSWORTH, F.R.G.S. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD., LONDON.) 1910.

In this book much geographical information is imparted in easy language in the form of reading lessons.

A GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE, BY T. ALFORD SMITH, B.A. (LOND.), F.R.G.S. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD., LONDON.) 1912.

This is one of the volumes of Macmillan's Practical Modern Geographies. The lessons in the book consist of (1) practical exercises, based chiefly on map-reading and statistical tables; (2) a short description of the region; (3) questions which require descriptive answers. An elementary knowledge of physical geography is

assumed, and some questions are given also on this branch of the subject. The maps in the book are very clear and accurate. Interesting statistical tables prepared from different works of reference add additional value to the book.

A SYSTEMATIC GEOGRAPHY OF ASIA, BY GEORGE WILLIAM WEBB, B.A. (METHUEN & CO., LTD., LONDON.)

This book forms the third of a series of five books forming altogether a systematic geography of the world. It is designed to give on modern lines a good general idea of the geography of Asia. It consists of two parts, the first dealing in broad outline with the main characteristics of the great natural regions into which the continent is divided and the second being devoted to a more detailed study of the countries. The method of treatment is logical and emphasis is laid on the connection between physical structure, climatic conditions and economic facts. There are a few maps and diagrams.

A CLASS-BOOK OF PHYSICS, BY R. A. GREGORY AND H. E. HADLEY, B.Sc. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD., LONDON.) 1912.

This is a reprint of the same book which we reviewed some two years ago and is called the Indian edition. We find no other difference. What we said of the original book applies as well to the present reprint.

PRELIMINARY MECHANICAL DRAWING FOR SCHOOLS AND EVENING CLASSES, BY JOSEPH T. TWELEVEN. (LONGMANS, GREEN & CO., LONDON.)

From his experience as a teacher for many years the author found that it was an easy and natural transition from elementary plane and solid geometry, already known to the pupil, to the first stage of technical drawing. The author embodied this idea in a scheme, and was sent to the Glasgow Exhibition by the late London Educational Authority as one of their exhibits. The same scheme is further developed in the present book. The general outlines of the scheme are:—(1) a knowledge of the construction of regular figures; (2) the adaptation of regular figures to simple pattern drawing and coloured designs; (3) proficiency in drawing simple solids, including sections, employing three methods of projection, namely, orthographic, isometric and oblique; (4) an application of the knowledge of plane and solid geometry to the scale drawing of nuts,

screws, bolts, rivets and their combinations. The book contains many diagrams, of which twelve are coloured.

ELEMENTARY TRIGONOMETRY, BY W. E. PATERSON, M.A., B.Sc. (THE CLARENDON PRESS, OXFORD.) Price 3s.

The treatment in this little volume is very elementary and contains everything required for beginners in Trigonometry up to and including solution of triangles. There are small but interesting and instructive chapters on the graphs of simple Algebraical and Trigonometrical functions and on Projection. The chapter on Projection includes a discussion of Vector Quantities, their composition and resolution and furnishes with a geometrical treatment of Demoiivre's Theorem. There is a very large collection of examples both simple and varied. The author has given a complete list of the letters of the Greek alphabet with their names for reference. This is very desirable as Greek letters are used so frequently in Trigonometry and other branches of mathematics. A table of five figure-logarithms is also appended. The get-up is excellent. We unhesitatingly recommend the book to all beginners and are disposed to call it a 'School Trigonometry.'

AN ELEMENTARY TREATISE ON STATICS, BY S. L. LONEY, M.A. (THE UNIVERSITY PRESS, CAMBRIDGE.) Price 12s.

This is a companion volume to the author's *Dynamics of a Particle and of Rigid Bodies*. The book contains both elementary and advanced portions of Statics. The elementary portion consists mostly of important articles selected from the author's *Elements of Statics*. In the advanced portion a knowledge of the ordinary processes of the Differential and Integral Calculus is assumed. Also in the chapters on Forces in Three Dimensions a knowledge of Solid Geometry is assumed. There are also chapters on Graphic Solutions, Shearing Stress and Bending Moment and Attractions and Potential. The book consists of three hundred and ninety-three pages of well got-up matter. The collection of examples is large and many illustrative examples are fully and clearly worked out. We can safely recommend it as a text-book in Statics for students studying for the B.A. (Honours) of the University of Madras. The book should also be in the library of every College where mathematics is taught as a special subject.

GEOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS, VOLS. I—III, BY W. G. BORCHARDT, M. A., B. SC. AND THE REV. A. D. PERROTT, M. A. (G. BELL AND SONS, LTD.) Price 2s. 6d.

This treatise on Geometry covers the same ground as Euclid I and II and has been divided into three volumes. Volume I covers Stages I and II of the Board of Education Circular No. 711. Stage I deals with the fundamental concepts of Geometry, i.e., of volume, area, lines, points and directions. Stage II treats of the most important elementary facts of Geometry (included in Eucl. I. 1—33) in an experimental way. After each fact comes a number of practical exercises, the aim of them being to make the truth sink home into the mind of the learner. At the end of Stage II or Vol. I of the treatise, drawing to scale is introduced, and a number of problems on Heights and Distances are added.

Vol. II gives rigid demonstrations in the Euclidean style of the properties of triangles and parallelograms; and Vol. III deals with areas—unit, areas of triangles and parallelograms [Eucl. I, 35—43], verification of algebraic identities, theorem of Pythagoras, its application to finding square root, projections and extension of the theorem of Pythagoras. The whole of the second book of Euclid is included in Vol. III. Riders and Graphical exercises bearing on Theorems are interspersed and at the end of each of Volumes I and II, miscellaneous questions are given in the form of a large number of Test Papers.

Important loci and such important theorems as on Intercepts and Concurrency, which are not Euclidean propositions but are highly important are also treated of and named Theorems A, B, C, etc.

The get-up of the book is very neat; and the spirit of it is commendable. The book may be recommended for class use and libraries.

THE RATIONAL ARITHMETIC FOR RURAL SCHOOLS, BY GEORGE RICKS, B. SC. (LOND.) (MACMILLAN & Co.).

The Rational Arithmetic for Rural Schools is divided into six courses and is issued as Teacher's Books and Scholar's Books, each course costing 8d. and 3d. respectively. We are in receipt of scholar's books, 3rd year and 4th year courses, and we thank the publishers. The spirit of the books is much the same as of the Rational Arithmetic (girls' edition) by the same author, which has been reviewed by us recently. The series will be good reference books in Primary and Lower Secondary classes.

THE STUDENTS' COMPANION TO GEOMETRY, BY K. DEVA RAO, B.A., L.T. (SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & Co., MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS.) Price As. 8.

This little volume has been compiled with a view to place before a student preparing for the Intermediate Examination of the University of Madras all the important theorems in *Theoretical Geometry* as given in the Syllabus for the said examination. There are in the Syllabus several theorems not given in the ordinary text-books in common use in several colleges. To students that confine themselves to such text-books and do not care to go beyond them this little volume will be of immense help. As Mr. Deva Rao says in his preface the booklet is meant 'to supplement and not to supplant any of the standard works in Geometry.' We congratulate Mr. Deva Rao on the humble attempt made.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The National High School, Proddutur.—This school has been in existence for the last 7 or 8 years. The Special Committee consisting of Messrs. G. Venkatramayya, C. Sundarachari and another which took up the management of the school during the current school year certainly deserves to be congratulated on the satisfactory way it conducted its affairs during the year and the financial strength, the Committee and the Headmaster Mr. K. Krishna Rao brought to the institution. By enlisting the public sympathy and support during the year the school has now secured donations to the extent of Rs. 10,000. With the deeply lamented death of Mr. Y. Nagayya, a leading Pleader of the place, the other day, the school gains his princely bequest of Rs. 10,000.

It is also proposed to approach some philanthropists in and around Madras for contributions in aid of the school. The school affairs are now decidedly encouraging.

It is hoped that the Director of Public Instruction will be pleased to grant permanent recognition to the school.

Government Model Schools.—The Government of Madras have, in G. O., dated 6th instant, passed orders on the budget estimate for 1912-13, submitted to them by the Corporation of Madras. It may be recollected that a loan of Rs. 4,42,000 was proposed to be raised in the open market for, among other purposes, model school buildings (Rs. 75,000). In his letter to the Government, sent along with the budget estimates, the President of the Corporation had said that the original estimated cost of each

model school building—Rs. 10,000—had been found to be inadequate, as much as Rs. 3,040 being the average cost of the site of each building so far acquired, and Rs. 10,700, each on the average being the amount of the accepted tenders. He further added: "It is now considered that more extensive sites than those provided in the above cases should be acquired for the schools in order to provide the necessary play grounds. A better type of building is also recommended by the Engineer and it is estimated that the cost of the improved type of building and of the larger extent of site required will amount to Rs. 20,000 for each school." The Government remark that the estimated cost of the model school buildings need careful examination and have desired that all possible economies should be effected in regard to them in consultation with the heads of the Education Department.

Hospet Students' Union.—A correspondent writes from Hospet:—"The hall of the Board Secondary School, Hospet, presented a scene of great activity and enthusiasm on the night of the 15th inst., when the members of the Hospet Students' Union celebrated the 1st Anniversary of the Union. The proceedings began with a meeting with Mr. P. Venugopal Naidu, B.A., B.L., District Munsif, in the chair. After the Secretary's Annual report was read, Mr. B. Gopalachari, B.A., addressed the young men. The Chairman made a short and interesting speech. Mr. K. Viswanatha Rao, garlanded the Chairman and thanked him and various other persons who largely contributed towards the success of the Anniversary. After the meeting was dissolved the members of the Union entertained the audience with a performance of Harischandra in English.

Admission of students in the Engineering College.—Under the old rules of the College of Engineering, it was provided that candidates for admission into the engineer class should have passed the B.A. Degree Examination and should have been under 22 years of age on the 30th June of the year of admission, but under the revised rules sanctioned in July last candidates who have passed the Intermediate examination are eligible for admission to this class, provided they are under 20 years of age on the 30th June of the year of admission. It would appear that some of the students of the Senior B.A. class in the Madras Christian College have represented to the Principal that after passing the First Arts examination they joined the B.A. class and took up mathematics as their optional subject in the hope of taking the B.A. degree so as to render themselves eligible for admission into the engineer class within their 22nd year—the limit fixed under the old rules—but that under the revised rules they are precluded from admission as ordinary students with privileges as to guaranteed appointments, scholarship and prizes for the reason that they will be over 20 years of age on the 30th June next. The Principal, College of Engineering, reported to the Director of Public Instruction that the revised rules would work

hardly in the cases of such students who have not had any notice of the change in the age limit when they joined the B.A. class in view to qualify themselves for admission into the engineer class. The latter, therefore, requested Government to authorize the admission into the engineer class of the College of Engineering as ordinary students in July next also of applicants qualified under the former rules, i.e., those who have passed the B.A. Degree Examination and will be under 22 years of age on the 30th June next. The Government of Madras, have, in G. O., dated 25th January, authorized the admission of such students.

A School Day Gathering.—The 'old pupils' of the District Board High School of Thiruvallur celebrated its Annual Day on the 16th instant, the events of the day being spread throughout the whole of it.

In the evening, a public meeting was held at the High School Hall, Mr. C. V. Krishnaswamy Iyer, District Munsif, presiding, at which Mr. P. A. Subramania Iyer, M.A., Headmaster of the Tenali High School, an old student of the institution delivered an address to the students.

Grants for Village Schools.—It is notified in the current *Fort Saint George Gazette* that the following will be inserted between Chapter IX and Chapter X of the Grant-in-Aid Code as Chapter IX-A., "Grants to enable villagers to erect and equip village school-houses:—"60-A. Grants may be promised towards the erection or enlargement of village school-houses or to provide living quarters attached to the school for a teacher provided the villagers undertake to furnish sufficient materials and labour to complete the building. Grants may also be promised for the equipment of such school-houses. A village school which had received aid under this chapter shall remain the property of the village and will be in immediate charge of the Village Munsif. The grant for building shall not ordinarily exceed Rs. 100 and for equipment Rs. 50. The latter amount shall be spent upon school furniture and equipment only. The inspecting officer should approve the plan and the list of articles to be purchased and will be held responsible for the carrying out of the contract. Grants not exceeding the above limits may be sanctioned by the Inspector of the Circle. In exceptional cases where it is proposed to exceed these limits the previous sanction of the Director must be obtained."

Grant-in-Aid Code—Alterations ordered.—The Government accept the proposals of the Director of Public Instruction with regard to the grants for school buildings and for hostels or boarding houses for students. The most important changes are—(i) an increase in the maximum rate of grant from one-third to one-half of the total cost of work, the cost of any modification that may have been required by the Public Works Department being taken into

account; (ii) the offer of grants for the execution of extensive alterations and repairs to buildings which have been newly purchased for school purposes; and (iii) a general revision of the form of application and of the procedure, which will, it is hoped, avoid the delay that often arises from the incomplete manner in which applications are submitted. Chapter VIII of the *Grant-in-Aid Code* as thus revised is printed as an annexure to this order and will be published in the "*Fort St. George Gazette*."

Government Scholarship.—The Governor in Council approves the selection of Mr. Kuruvilla Zachariah, for the Government scholarship tenable in England by natives of India, which has been placed this year at the disposal of the University of Madras.

Opening of Elementary Schools.—The Government of Madras have approved proposals submitted by the Director of Public Instruction for opening 108 elementary schools during the current year in 41 municipalities, and have sanctioned a payment of Rs. 99,262 to the municipalities concerned to meet the cost of the new schools. The expenditure will be met from a lump provision of Rs. 4 lakhs under the Education Grant in the current year's Budget. The municipal councils will be requested to see the new schools established without delay. Every endeavour should be made to avoid interference with Mission or other schools that are successfully working or are unwilling to be taken over.

Laboratory Assistants included in the Educational Department.—The Director of Public Instruction had requested that Government will be pleased to include "Laboratory Assistants" in the Educational Department under column B, article 2 (2) of the Public Service Notification as he found that it is difficult to fill up by qualified men the posts of (1) botanical museum and herbarium-keeper and (2) zoological laboratory and museum-assistant on Rs. 20-2-30 each sanctioned for the Presidency College in G. O. No. 120, Educational, dated 14th February 1912. The Principal of the above institution reported that the best of the applicants were two unpassed candidates with practical knowledge of laboratory and museum work, one of them being acquainted not only with herbarium work but has also skilled in the work of preparing and staining sections of the microscope, while among the passed candidates are clerks and teachers with little or no experience of this kind and that the qualifications necessary for these posts were those of a technical nature rarely to be found among men who have passed any of the general educational tests laid down in article 1 of the Public Service Notification and that such posts should consequently be excluded from the operation of that article. Government have approved of this proposal.

CALCUTTA.

The Bengal National Council of Education.—It needs no recounting on our part the various circumstances which gave rise to the establishment of National Education in the land, chief among them being the need felt for an all-round and comprehensive system of useful education instead of the purely one-sided State Education. Towards the fulfilment of this object, the Bengal National Council was ushered into existence about 6 years ago and we feel sure, the review of the work done in that institution and the methods employed towards the attainment of its object, would prove a useful study for our readers. The internal management of the National College and School is in the hands of a Managing Committee, but for the advice of this Committee on matters of teaching, etc., a Teachers' Board was formed during the year 1911, representatives from which are also sent to the Conferences of the National Council. There were 18 recognised institutions under their control on the 31st December 1911, which are periodically inspected and reported upon, by the members of the Council. In the year 1910, a revision of the schemes of studies was made, according to which the Kindergarten system in the Primary Department was greatly encouraged. The students of this Department are, we are told, made to feel as little as possible, the burden of their work and take to it as a pastime. In the first years, primary students are taught to read and write and count up to 100 in the course of four months, while devoting one year towards the teaching of simple division in Arithmetic. Drawing, drill and pictorial lessons are treated as essential parts of their education. English is taught orally in the 2nd and 3rd year so that the students there are able to frame short sentences in English without committing serious mistakes. At the end of the primary course, students finish compound division of Indian money in arithmetic, while in Bengali, they are found able to read story books with ease and to recite poems with appreciation of their meaning. Some of the special features of the administration of the National Council, are the equipment of special departments for the training of students such as the Bengal Technical Institute, the Dyeing Department, Engineering, Biological, Geological Departments, and so on, all of which are under the direct supervision of experts. Of them all, the Bengal Technical Institute including the workshop and the Physical and Chemical laboratories forms the most important and valuable feature. Some alterations have been made in the course of study in this Institute, such as the addition of a preparatory year to the 3 years' course in the Secondary Department and the opening of a Mechanical Apprentice class for the teaching of carpentry, foundry, mechanical and electrical fitting, electro-plating and so forth. Students of the Primary Department are given training in mechanical and electrical fitting, carpentry, drawing and surveying, of course it being optional with the students to take up any one of

them. Preliminary instruction is also given to them in Algebra, Geometry, Physics, Chemistry and English. The students of the Secondary Department may take any one of the following for study: Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Dyeing and Bleaching, Industrial Chemistry and Economical Geology and Mineralogy, together with workshop practice in each case. Another important feature connected with this Council of Education, is the aid and facilities given towards research work. Various investigations have been completed in this direction, to wit, the discovery of a new *alkaloid* and so on and various publications have already been made in Bengali and in English and valuable books are now in preparation. Such in brief are a few lines in which a thirst for education has been created in the minds of our young men, by the Bengal National Council. Besides themselves trying to give a complete education for the young men, they send brilliant students to Universities on the Continent and to America for higher courses of study. Now, going to the financial condition of the Council, we find the total receipts for the year 1911 amounted to Rs. 1,23,963-4-7, from the National College and various recognised schools, while the total expenses came to Rs. 1,16,236-15-0, leaving a balance of Rs. 7,203-15-0 in the Bank of Bengal and Rs. 522-6-3 in cash, at the end of the year. Besides tuition fees, the income of the Council is derived from three sources, *viz.*, endowments, subscriptions and donations. There is only one point more to be said in this connection and that is about the Library. It now consists of 6,606 volumes of the estimated value of Rs. 12,245. But in order to successfully carry on the research work, a more fully-equipped library is essential which means more money, for which the Council make an appeal, which, we trust, will be liberally responded to by the generous public.—*The Hindu*.

All-Bengal Hindu Educational Conference and the Pod Community.—Last March, a meeting of the Bratya Kahatriya (Pod) community was held at the residence of Babu Notober Mandal at Sarupkati, thana Hasanabad (24 Pargannas). In accordance with the second resolution, adopted by the All-Bengal Hindu Educational Conference in its sitting on the 25th February last, the methods to be followed for the spread of education amongst that section of the community were discussed. About 100 delegates from Khulna joined the meeting; in all about 500 persons attended. It was decided to start a fund for the spread of education amongst the Pods of Bengal. Everybody attending the meeting promised to contribute his mite to the fund; and the total amount promised on the spot was about Rs. 1,732. Babus Notober Mandal and Devnarain Halder have promised to help in the collection of money. The total collection upto the 1st May amounted to Rs. 217.

A centre at Dacca for holding Commercial Examinations.—The Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, has written to Professor S. K. Mukerjee,

Principal, Commercial Academy, Dacca, informing him that the Government of Bengal has sanctioned, as a tentative measure, the establishment of a centre at Dacca for holding the Commercial Course Examination of the Education Department. The examination will be restricted to short-hand and type-writing. Mr. Biss, Principal of the Training College, Dacca, will act as local Secretary. As Professor Mukerjee has volunteered his services without remuneration, he has been requested to be so good as to assist Mr. Biss in holding the examination and conduct the preliminary test examination for the selection of suitable candidates.

New admissions into the Presidency College.—The Principal of the Presidency College, Calcutta, writes to the Calcutta papers:—

"I should be obliged if you would publish the following statement about new admissions to the Presidency College. The admission of new students has proved an increasingly difficult matter, since, in 1907, it became necessary to fix a limit of numbers. Under the authority of the governing body the limit of the first year admissions is now 65 in each of the two classes F.A. and F.Sc., or 130 in all. As, further, 35 Mahomedan students are admitted on privileged terms, the number of admissions remaining for other candidates is 95; or roughly 50 for each class, F.A. and F.Sc. The total number of applications received this year has been much over 500 (Mahomedan 100) and of the applicants, some 400 (Mahomedan 60) had passed the Matriculation examination in the 1st division. I think it may mitigate, if it does not altogether remove, the natural disappointment of those who have not been admitted and the dissatisfaction of their fathers and guardians, if these simple but inexorable facts are known. It is impossible to satisfy all aspirations, or even all reasonable claims; the endeavour has been in this as in previous years to make the selections on principle, and neither arbitrarily nor by chance. The considerations to be weighed are several in number. The dominant consideration has necessarily been the Principal's judgment of the best interests of the College."

BOMBAY.

Primary Education in Bombay.—With the object of reducing the vast mass of illiteracy still prevailing in the rural areas of the Bombay Presidency, Government decided recently that the necessary extension of teaching facilities should be undertaken through a simpler and more rudimentary medium than that afforded by the existing form of primary school. It was accordingly directed that primary schools should in future be divided into two classes—(i) rural and (ii) full primary—and that the course for rural schools, which are intended for the children of agriculturists, should extend over four years instead of six as at present, should be complete in itself and should be simplified so as to impart to the pupils a thorough grounding in the three R.'s and nothing more.

Having now carefully considered these reports and the views of the Director of Public Instruction, the Governor in Council has issued the following among other orders:—The existing primary course consists of seven standards and an infant class. There are, however, many primary schools which teach only five or six standards, and the Governor in Council entirely agrees with the Director of Public Instruction that it is not desirable or necessary to reduce schools of this description. Schools, however, which have been teaching up to the 4th standard only, or in which the 5th and 6th standards have been only spasmodically and scantily attended, should in every case be reduced to the status of rural schools, the few boys who desire to carry their education further being provided for by scholarships. Henceforth, a full primary school must teach regularly up to the 5th standard at least.

In view of the existing rule that no boy should begin to learn English unless he has passed the vernacular 4th standard, those boys in rural schools, who may wish to proceed to the Anglo-vernacular course, will have to join a primary school teaching the longer course in order to go through the 4th standard. At present the minimum age of admission to primary schools is four years. The Central Division proposes that the minimum age should be six years; the Southern Division proposes seven years; while the Northern Division proposes five years. Government see no sufficient reason for making any change in the present age limit. The Director of Public Instruction, agreeing with the committee, has included both Balbodh and Modi, in his draft curriculum. On general grounds there is certainly no inherent objection to the teaching of the two forms of script and the committee's recommendation is accepted. With regard to the important question of the correlation of rural and full primary schools, the Governor in Council, while admitting the necessity, in the interests of complete simplification and of adaptation to local conditions, of eliminating such extra subjects as kindergarten occupations, object lessons, etc., from the course for rural schools, considers that it would be a retrograde and highly undesirable step to effect a similar reduction in the curriculum of the corresponding standards in full primary schools. Ultimately, as the *personnel* of the elementary school is raised to a higher standard of efficiency and as the advantages of modern methods of instruction are better appreciated by parents, it will be possible, the Governor in Council hopes, to restore these subjects to the curriculum in their entirety.

The Sir G. Clarke Technical Laboratories.—In connection with Sir George Clarke Technical Laboratories and Studios a Pottery Department has been founded by the Government of Bombay to develop pottery industry in India by means of scientific research in connection with the materials used in its production, by introducing modern methods of manufacture and by improving the quality of designs used by potters. To carry this out a small permanent staff is employed. Attached to the

Department is a school in which students are trained. Particulars regarding the course of training, scholarships, admission of students, fees, etc., are published in the Government "Gazette."

The Educational Conference—Bombay Representatives.—It is understood that the Bombay representatives at the Educational Conference to be held in Simla in July next will be Messrs R. Prior, Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, and T. Savage, Headmaster, Cathedral High School, Bombay.

Donation to found a College for Arabic study in Bombay.—His Highness the Aga Khan always laid stress upon the importance of the study of the Arabic language so that the hidden treasures of ancient literature may be laid bare. At present there is no Arabic school worthy of the name in the Bombay Presidency where old literature can be studied in true spirit. Haji Ahmed Hassan now promised Rs. 75,000 to found an Arabic College in Bombay in honour of the visit of the Pir Saheb of Baghdad.

A College for girls.—An important scheme is under contemplation to establish a college at Bombay in connection with Jesuit Fathers. The scheme proposed which is still in embryo, is to establish a college for girls where a higher standard of University education may be obtained. There is no college in India exclusively for young ladies and if a young lady wishes to further her high school education she has to attend College along with other young men of different denominations. It is thought if a separate college existed there would be then a greater number of lady candidates appearing for University degrees. In the absence of this parents discontinue sending girls to the college the chief objection being that they would have to mix with all classes of young men whereas if an institution existed purely and solely for young ladies parents would greatly appreciate it and a very important objection will be removed. The scheme meets with the approval of the Governor and the Roman Catholic Archbishop is greatly interested. Details of the project which require serious consideration are not yet ready for official submission to the Government.

BHAVNAGAR.

Education in Bhavnagar.—The past year was one of the most eventful ones in the annals of British India and of the Indian States, on account of the epoch-making event of the Royal visit. It was particularly eventful for the Bhavnagar State. The pervading note of the administration report of the State for 1911-12 is the deep interest of His Highness the Maharaja in the well-being of his subjects.

The importance of education is well realised by the Maharaja. In commemoration of his birthday in 1910 His Highness ordered the reduction of fees in vernacular schools from four annas to one anna. This evidently had the desired effect, for we read

that the monthly average number of pupils on the roll throughout the year rose from 15,148 to 15,834, and the average daily attendance from 11,479 to 12,646. What is more satisfactory is that the cultivator class has begun to shake off its lethargy, and become alive to the benefits of education. The Maharaja's birthday in 1911 was commemorated by the opening of a few more primary schools and by other useful works. As a mark of his devotion to the interests of his *Alma Mater* His Highness compiled and published in six volumes an elaborate book entitled 'Forty Years in the Rajkumar College.' Kunvari Shri Manhar-Kunvarba, the Maharaja's daughter, made 'excellent progress' in her education during the year. The Maharaja-Kumarika's artwork is well appreciated wherever it is exhibited, and during the year of report it won for her a diploma from the 'Festival of the Empire' Exhibition in London and a medal from the 'Old Bombay' Exhibition. Bhavnagar, we are told, pioneered the cause of female education in the province, the Majiraj Girls' School being the first girls' school opened in Kathiawar.

MYSORE.

A Training School of Hygiene for men.—The Government of Mysore appointed a Committee, sometime ago consisting of Mr. A. K. Pani and Mr. J. Bhore, with Dr. Srinivasa Rao as President, to consider the question of opening a School of Hygiene for training men locally for the posts of Sanitary and Assistant Sanitary Inspectors. The Committee recommended the opening of a school at Bangalore for the training of Sanitary and Assistant Sanitary Inspectors tentatively for two years from the 1st July 1912. This has been sanctioned by an order of the Government dated the 3rd instant. It is provided that admission to the above school will be restricted to candidates who have passed the Matriculation Examination or the School Final Examination or who have passed successfully the Examination in any High School for selection to the Matriculation Examination. The course will extend for a period of six months from July to December and not more than 20 students will be admitted for training at a time. Each student will pay a fee of Rs. 45 for the entire course. The syllabus for the course will be as exhibited in the appendix attached. There will be 115 lectures and demonstrations on the whole, of which 40 will be devoted to Sanitary Engineering, 15 to Sanitary Law, disinfection and outdoor work with the Health Officer, 30 to Elementary Physics, Chemistry, Physiology, Meteorology, Statistics, Sanitary appliances, etc., and 30 to General Hygiene, Infectious Diseases and Bacteriology. An examination will be held in Bangalore in the latter half of December and a fee of Rs. 5 will be payable by each applicant for the examination. It will consist of four written papers of two hours each, besides oral and practical examinations. A certificate will be issued to every candidate who duly passes the examination. The lectures for the course will be delivered and the demonstrations conducted by the Sanitary Engineer

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to the Mysore Government and his Assistant, the Health Officer, Bangalore City, the Superintendent of the Public Health Institute and the Assistant to the Superintendent. The honorarium for each lecture or demonstration will be Rs. 10. The examination will be conducted by the lecturers named above with the help of two other officers, one of the Public Health Department and another of the Public Works Department. An honorarium of Rs. 50 will be paid to each examiner. The lectures will, for the present, be delivered partly in the Bacteriological Institute and partly in Sir Seshadri Iyer's Memorial Hall. Appointments of Sanitary and Assistant Sanitary Inspectors will be filled up only from among those who have passed from the local school.

TRAVANCORE.

H. H. The Maharajah's College.—All the students sent up from H. H. the Maharaja's College in the History Branch have come out successful, there being five in the first class and about twenty in the second.

Vaccination of school boys.—His Highness' Government had appointed a special committee to report on the subject of improving the present state of things regarding vaccination in Travancore. The Committee has now recommended as follows:— "That children should be first vaccinated when they enter the Elementary School, that they should be re-vaccinated when they enter the Secondary School, and that they should be again re-vaccinated when they appear for the School Final Examination or when they enter the College." And the Government have called the attention of the Director of Public Instruction to the matter.

COCHIN.

Public Examinations.—A correspondent writes:— The results of the Cochin School Final Examination have already been published, and if we are to generalise from the experience of the 1st year, the future of the school-going population in Cochin does not appear to be particularly encouraging. The supersession of the old Matriculation Examination by the new fangled School Final is supposed to be in the interests of the students; but if the proverbial "slaughter of innocents" is the test, I am afraid the remedy is worse than the disease.

In the late Intermediate Examination, out of the 65 students sent up from the Ernakulam College, 36 have been declared successful, of whom 8 are placed in the first class.

H. H. Rama Varma, the 21st Prince of the Cochin Royal family, has passed the M.A. Degree Examination in Literature. He is only the first of the many illustrious princes to win such high academic distinctions in the future.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

A Library for Indian Students—Sir T. Raleigh's gift.—The Secretary of State for India in Council has accepted a scheme submitted by the Managing Committee of the house at 21, Cromwell-Road, South Kensington, for a new development of the excellent work carried on there for the benefit of Indian students, who are estimated to number about 1,000 in London and 700 in other parts of the United Kingdom. In addition to the success which has been achieved by the Adviser of Indian Students, Mr. T. W. Arnold, and of the Bureau of Information under his charge ample opportunities have been provided for recreation and social amusements by the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society; and the young men temporarily residing in the house have always expressed themselves grateful for the arrangements made for their comfort. But hitherto there has been no provision for helping resident or visiting young Indians in their studies. The library maintained by the Northbrook Society, dealing mainly with Indian and Oriental subjects, has been appreciated, but has not met the need of the many youths—mostly on the rolls of the Inns of Court—desiring to prosecute their professional studies in spare time.

The decision to meet this need originated with a spontaneous offer from Sir Thomas Releigh, a member of the India Council and formerly legal member of the Viceroy's Council, of such portion of his extensive collection of law books as will be suitable for reference and study, together with the book cases containing them. This generous offer has enabled the Managing Committee to formulate a scheme for utilizing the spacious lecture hall as a library. The wall space available there and in an adjoining waiting room is sufficient to accommodate from 11,000 to 16,000 books (according to size). The Secretary of State has granted £150 to fit up the hall with shelves and with desks, the latter being removable when the room is required for meetings, and has agreed to supplement the nucleus of a library formed by Sir Thomas Raleigh's gift by the transfer thereto of surplus law books from the India Office, while the Government of India is placing 21, Cromwell-Road on the list of institutions to which law reports and legal publications are distributed. When this has been done, the India Office will provide a non-recurring grant to make up any deficiencies in the library, and more particularly to purchase additional copies of the text-books most in demand, so that they may be available simultaneously for several students. The Secretary of State in Council has also agreed to make a grant of £100 per annum for supervision and upkeep. Though in the first instance the library may be confined to law books steps will probably be taken to make the institution useful to Indians not reading law, as for instance those of them studying at institutions near Cromwell-Road for reaching science and engineering. Sir Thomas Releigh has acceded to the request of the Managing Committee to advise upon the expenditure of the special grant for completing the library in its original form.

Indian Students in England—Sir Arthur Lawley's Speech.—Sir Arthur Lawley, presiding at the annual meeting of the National Indian Association, said that after close observation in Madras he greatly admired the self-sacrifice of parents to send their sons there but that they often failed to realise the magnitude of the experiment and factors in the problem. London was a vortex of temptation. No wonder there were some cases of grievous failure. Parents could not do better than bring their sons into touch and association with thoughtful English people. In conclusion he wished the experiment of education there all success as a means of more closely linking the East and the West.

Technological Training for Indian Students.—The Secretary of State for India has appointed a committee to inquire and report as to the facilities available for Indian students for industrial and technological training in this country, with special reference to the system of State Technical Scholarships established by the Government of India in 1904.

The Committee is constituted as follows:—Sir Theodore Morison, K. C. I. E. (Chairman), and Sir Krishna Gupta, K. C. S. I., members of the Council of India; Mr. J. H. Reynolds, M. Sc., lately Principal of the Municipal School of Technology at Manchester; and Professor W. E. Dalby, M. A., Professor of Civil and Mechanical Engineering at the Imperial College of Science and Technology at South Kensington. The Secretary to the Committee is Mr. P. H. Dumbell of the India Office.

As regards the existing system, it may be explained that for some years past it has been the practice of the Government of India to send to this country a limited number of picked men as technical scholars. They come, as the name implies, for training in various branches of applied science, and the intention is that when they have completed their course they shall return to India and, as a rule, take up work in the particular industry for which their training may have fitted them. The range of subjects for which these scholars have been selected in the past is very wide; there have been, for instance, scholarships in mining and metallurgy, dyeing, textile industries, silk-weaving, soap-making, tanning, and engineering. But experience has shown that the system is capable of improvement in some respects, and further that, if the full benefit is to be derived not only by the individual State scholars but by the industries of India, it is essential now for Government to undertake a somewhat wider survey than has hitherto been undertaken of the facilities obtainable in the United Kingdom for industrial and technological training of this kind. It is for this purpose that the Committee has been constituted.

The Committee will visit various University centres in the United Kingdom where Indian scholars have been, or may in future be trained, and will take evidence from Professors and others on whose co-operation the success of any scheme of this kind must, to a large extent, depend. The Committee propose, in the first instance, to visit Glasgow, Leeds, Manchester and Birmingham.

The Educational Review.

Mr. F. J. Gould, who is the demonstrator of the Moral Education League, is already known in India as the writer of a book of moral tales suitable for instruction in Indian schools. He has come forward with a scheme for the correlation of school subjects of instruction with a view to character training. In this scheme which was presented for consideration at the last quarterly meeting of the Moral Education League the Herbartian principle that the whole curriculum should be subordinated to the ethical aim is taken as the basis. With a view to prevent overcrowding of the timetable, all subjects are to be reduced to juster proportions and rendered less burdensome and more rational and at the same time better subordinated to moral ends. The correlation is to be effected for the living and abiding purpose of training the young personality in the service of the larger life. At present education is suffering from scattered aims and chaotic survivals. To produce beneficial results the school teaching must follow the general plan of human evolution. The psychology of the child approximately follows the psychology of the race. Hence the younger scholars must have all their lessons associated with antiquity, and the corresponding environment. For the direct ethical instruction at that stage the moral elements must be gathered up from incidents connected with antiquity, though there may be no objection to the teacher adding modern and other illustrations from any suitable source whatever. In the second stage may be taken up events connected with the Middle Ages and the centuries ensuing till about the year

1700. Only in this second stage would the pupil's own native country come into view. The third stage, which may commence at the age of thirteen, would end in the geography of the world and the moral outlook associated with the brotherhood of man. In all this we are in perfect accord with Mr. Gould. But we still believe that all character training must be indirect and result from the example of the teacher rather than his precept.

More and more attention is being given in England to questions relating to the physical and mental development of children from Food and the child.

a national point of view. At a conference held at Guildhall last month all the subjects considered related to diet at public and private secondary schools. The general trend of opinion was that all was not well with the school child in relation to his diet. Most of those that spoke with authority and from experience seemed to think that the fault lay as much with the child as with the food supplied. The normal healthy child ought to possess sound teeth and use them effectively for complete mastication, and his natural appetite ought not to have been vitiated by feeding on highly seasoned viands. The chief medical officer of the Board of Education said: "Speaking generally, not more than a few children out of every hundred will be found who fail to bear evidence of present or past dental disease. What, however, is of even greater moment is the fact that probably the majority of school children suffer more or less serious disability in some form or other, sooner or later, from dental decay." We are inclined to think that dental disease and decay are not so common among Indian children, for the careful cleansing of

teeth is a common habit with all Indians. All the same the matter deserves investigation even among the children of India. The most important principle in dietetics is that meals should be of such a nature, or so arranged, that they will leave the mouth and the alimentary canal in a hygienic state. More than three meals daily should be avoided, as the longer the interval the more hygienic is the state of the mouth and stomach and the more perfectly adapted for the reception of a further meal. Meals should be made varied and appetizing, especially by serving vegetables in various ways. It is advisable to tell pupils a little about foods and their values.

At another conference held at the University of London the health of the child in relation to its physical and mental development formed the subject of attention. This was a conference of child-study societies existing in various parts of the United Kingdom and an address was delivered by Sir James Crichton-Browne, the President of the Central Society on the need for proper classification and education of feeble-minded children, with special reference to the discrimination of those who presented mentally abnormal qualities not amounting to feeble-mindedness and those whose mental defects might by suitable education under medical guidance be removed and their minds strengthened. Papers were also read on the influence of defects of vision and hearing in relation to the physical and mental development of the child. A discussion also took place on the instruction of the young in sexual hygiene. We in India have not given any attention to the question of child hygiene. In a country like India where early marriage is widely prevalent, the instruction of the young in sexual hygiene might be expected to produce

very beneficial results. We wish the Government would interest itself in the matter of child-hygiene as much as it is doing in the religious and moral instruction. While the results of the latter are dubious, the former would yield substantial benefits.

Under this heading Mr. Archer Vassall has contributed a valuable article to the April number of *Science Progress*, which deserves to be carefully studied by all who are concerned with the teaching of science in our schools. What he says of science teaching in England applies equally well to India, where, as Sir William Ramsay remarked in his presidential speech at the sixth annual meeting of the British Science Guild, education is in a most lamentable state. Mr. Vassall remarks truly :—

“All through their school career the majority of boys are taught with reference to an ideal far beyond their capacity and methods suitable to this ideal are in vogue. The ideal, of course is the production of such erudite classical stylists or embryo pure mathematicians as may win scholarships at the Universities.

“The result is, that work for the average boy, instead of depending on his reasoning power and stimulating his mental self-reliance, is reduced to mere memorising. Consequently, there is a loss of plasticity and a lack of resourcefulness which are highly detrimental to him in earning his own living. Now that only a small percentage achieve administrative posts and the professions are overcrowded, an increasing number of average boys seek a livelihood as producers in the Empire either at home or overseas. There is a useful place for every

citizen of adequate moral strength overseas, and it is an imperial obligation upon us to make them as useful there as possible.

“But plasticity, resourcefulness, and self-reliance are exactly the necessary attributes. Hence it becomes more and more important that science masters by their methods should seek to strengthen and not thwart these characteristics as far as possible. Especially since it is obvious that for the successful development of the resources of the empire these boys need as far as we can give it to them a knowledge of the phenomena of their environment and the laws controlling them. Even if intellect can be trained, we must not forget that she is a female. Consequently, perfection lies for the average boy not in the intellect so much as in her dress-maker; but there is a danger of our trying to deck her out in as ill-fitting garb as do some of our colleagues in other subjects.

“Ideally it would probably be best for all boys of suitable capacity to pursue the study of science and possibly engineering. They would then have been trained in accurate thinking, concise methods of investigation, and clear expression of results. With a wide and generous syllabus they would require some knowledge of their environment and the laws controlling it. If they did not lose their plasticity and their intellectual self-reliance in the process, they would prove invaluable Imperial assets in various producing capacities, even though an engineering training only produced the above results for engineering, and did not endow boys with them for all or any of their possible life occupations.

“But meanwhile, owing to causes overwhelming at present, most of the boys under consideration are not able to avail themselves

even of the systematic science which does exist at public schools. Hence the importance of organising the divisions in which such boys get their one opportunity of a little science, so as to do them the maximum of good and the minimum of harm.”

The writer then gives an account of a scheme which has been found by him to give the most satisfactory results in stimulating interest and developing a frame of mind favourable to the independent acquisition of further knowledge later on, and also in giving the boy a certain conception of scientific method. In the first part of this scheme experimental work bearing on whatever problem may be under investigation is done throughout by the boy himself, and this is accompanied by occasional demonstration, giving information, summarising and short heuristic lectures. The subject is neither chemistry nor physics nor biology, but all these subjects are drawn upon as necessary. The next course is rather more definitely chemical in its nature, involving the complete investigation of some common substance by the boys themselves. The method is to proceed from the known to the unknown, and it is during this course that a scientific attitude is more definitely fostered. The boys then pass on to more definitely physical work, such as the electric installation of a house, using not toys but real commercial instruments. They continue at this type of work till they begin its formal pursuit or are promoted beyond the reach of science.

We perfectly agree with the writer in thinking that by following this scheme a boy can in 120 hours get a good deal more scientific information and rather more scientific training than is possible in the like time

for his examination-ridden brother of similar capacity, and that a boy so trained, though he may probably be ploughed in most conventional science examinations for boys of his age, would retain his mental plasticity and his interest in scientific subjects and respond to his environment more intelligently than most of the average boys differently trained.

A noteworthy indigenous institution of Bengal is the National Council of Education which was established some six years ago. This institution has for some time past been the subject of friendly and unfriendly criticisms, but its very worst critic cannot but acknowledge that it has been doing creditable work. There are under its control eighteen recognised educational institutions, which are periodically inspected by the members of the Council. The managing committee of the Council is assisted by a teachers' board which advises the committee on matters relating to teaching and other internal management. In the Primary department the Kindergarten system has been adopted, and drawing, drill and pictorial lessons form essential parts of the instruction imparted. Students who have gone through the primary course are able to read story books in Bengali with ease and recite Bengali poems with appreciation of their meaning. Scientific studies in biology, geology, botany, &c., are conducted under efficient supervision. The Bengal Technical Institute including the workshop and the physical and chemical laboratories forms one of the most important and valuable departments under the management of the Council. In this department are taught carpentry,

foundry, smithy, turning, mechanical fitting, electrical fitting and electro-plating. After preliminary instruction in algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry and English, the students of the Secondary department may take for study any one of the groups of subjects taught in the technical institute together with workshop practice. During the last year there were about 118 students in the institute. There was some talk of this institute being abolished to make room for a technical institute to be established by Government. We hope that wiser counsels would prevail and the patrons of the National Council of Education would endeavour to maintain its prestige by developing the institute under the care of the Council instead of abolishing it. Another important feature of the work of the Council is the sending of brilliant students to European and American universities and technical institutions. The Council has given an impetus to literary and historical research and has been able to bring out many publications of linguistic, historical and educational importance. It has opened a well-equipped library, containing over 6600 volumes, costing about Rs. 12,250. Some investigations have also been made in the department of chemistry. On the whole the work done by the National Council of Education is very creditable and the Council deserves encouragement to further its work in all directions.

The need for increasing the number of colleges in India is growing year by year. The Principal of the Presidency Col-

lege, Calcutta, complains that applications for admission into the college from duly qualified students is far in excess of the accommodation

available. In Madras also some of the college classes are very congested. This shows how absurd were the criticisms hurled against the establishment of the Dacca University. We are glad to learn that the Dacca University Committee has already begun its meetings and that an effort will be made to make the Dacca University as near an ideal one for Indian conditions as possible. The University, it would appear, will make immediate provision for two thousand students, which certainly is a sufficiently large number. It will have four colleges, including the two already existing, namely the Dacca and Jagunnath Colleges, affiliated to it. The fees will be far from prohibitive. Although students will be encouraged to live as boarders in the University hostels, those who like to attend lectures as day scholars will be allowed to do so. We wish that the Dacca University will be soon an accomplished fact.

The recent wonderful discoveries in physics, such as Röntgen rays, wireless telegraphy, radio-activity, the principle of relativity in relation to physical phenomena, have so much aroused the sense of wonder in physicists that a mystical interpretation has grown up, especially in Germany, in lieu of a rational, scientific explanation. Rightly has therefore Professor Magie devoted a large part of his presidential address before the Physics Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science to setting forth the dangers of this dallying with occultism. He who values his own mental integrity and the rational activity of his own reason, should maintain the strictest criticism over the evidence submitted for the establishment of the mystical and the occult, as well as a like criticism over

the methods of argument from indisputable facts. A teacher of science, who values the intellectual integrity of his profession, must be jealous of its rational and scientific judgments and opinions and should combat by every means in his power the insinuation of the smallest vestige of yogism, fakirism, occultism or mysticism into the accredited material of his science.

We are glad to note that Mr. Taraknath Palit has donated to the Calcutta University of Calcutta property worth over seven lakhs of rupees for the foundation of two Professorships, one of Physics and the other of Chemistry, and for the establishment of a university laboratory. The gift is composed of twelve bighas of land and a building valued at 2½ lakhs and about 4 lakhs and 60,000 rupees in cash and in land. The Senate of the University has accepted the gift and has decided to supplement the gift by 7½ lakhs from the reserve fund. On the land given to the University will be erected a laboratory called Taraknath Palit Laboratory. This would be the first step taken by an Indian university to found a university college of science and technology. The Madras University has received from the Imperial Government a special grant of four lakhs of rupees this year. We hope this sum will form the basis for the promotion of research in connection with our University.

The picture has always played a mighty part in the progress of education, using the word in its widest sense. All educators at the present day are striving to develop and satisfy the impulse toward the

better and more rapid cognition of things. For this purpose, more action or its representation than teaching is needed. If such be the case, there can be no doubt about the advantage of using the kinematograph in education. Professor Frederick K. Starr of Chicago University thus speaks of the educational advantages to be derived from the moving picture :

"I have seen Niagara thunder over her gorge in the noblest frenzy ever beheld by men ; I have watched a Queensland river under the whitelight of an Australasian moon go whirling and swirling through strange islands, lurking with bandicoot and kangaroo ; I have watched an English railroad train draw into a station, take on its passengers and then chug away with its stubby little engine through the Yorkshire dells, past old Norman abbeys, silhouetted against the skyline, while a cluster of century aged cottages loomed up in the valley below, through which a yokel drove his flock of Southdowns ; I have beheld fat old Rajahs with the price of a thousand lives bejewelled in their monster turbans and the price of a thousand deaths sewn in their royal night shirts as they indolently swayed in golden howdahs, borne upon the backs of grunting elephants. I saw a runaway horse play battledore and shuttlecock with the citizens and traffic of a

little town whose streets had not known so much commotion since the sailing of Columbus. I know how the Chinaman lives, and I have been through the homes of the Japanese. I have marvelled at the daring of Alpine tobogganists and wonderful skill of Norwegian ski-jumpers ; I have seen armies upon the battlefield and their return in triumph ; I have looked upon weird dances and outlandish frolics in every quarter of the globe, and I didn't have to leave Chicago for a moment. No books have taught me all these wonderful things, no lecturer has pictured them ; I simply dropped into a moving picture theatre at various moments of leisure, and at the total cost for all the visits of perhaps two performances of a musical show, I have learned more than a traveller could see at the cost of thousands of dollars and years of journey. Neither you nor I fully realize what the moving picture has meant to us, and what it is going to mean. We are living at a mile-a-second gait in the swiftest epoch of the world's progress, in the age of incredibilities come true. The talking machine has caused the great voices and master melodies of our time, but the moving-picture machine has done more : it is making for us volumes of history and action ; it is not only the greatest impulse of entertainment, but the mightiest force of instruction."

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THE ELEMENTS OF MORALS

By AMBIKA CHARAN MITRA, M.A., Professor of Logic and Philosophy, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack. (Calcutta: S. K. Lahiri & Co.)
Price, Rs. 4.

Mr. Mitra has made his book as full as it could be though he calls it merely 'The Elements.' Any one who masters it will find himself equipped with a sound grasp of the subject such as no single book so far as we are aware, has been equal to supplying, except perhaps Mackenzie's Manual of Ethics ; and it has certain merits which the latter is wanting in. For one thing the style is much more simple and popular and is within the comprehension of the merest beginner. Another excellence of Mr. Mitra's book is the comparison of the important ethical systems of the European and Indian philosophers. This is a very valuable contribution to the subject, welcome both to the European and the Indian student. Though the author says that he restricts the book only to the psychology of ethics he has, wherever necessary, shown the connection between the various ethical systems and the metaphysical theories upon which they are based.

Each one of the chapters is made as comprehensive as possible and the *pros* and *cons* on each point are lucidly and fully considered.

XVIII

The perusal, therefore, of the book must be very helpful in the training of the mind in the habit of weighing, reasoning and judicially determining the force and validity of arguments and stimulate introspection.

The author, of course, has no claim to originality. It is difficult, if not impossible, to hit upon a new system of moral philosophy : the great constructive principles have already been so thoroughly developed by Greek and Indian philosophies that they are in the main as satisfactory even to-day as they were centuries ago. The sole function of modern ethics is to bring the old truth into living touch with the questions which pre-occupy our age. And though there is no generally accepted theory of ethics, yet, perhaps, there has never been so little disagreement concerning the problems and principles of moral philosophy as exists at present. The conception towards which the thought of the age seems to be tending in ethics is the teleological view. This view is opposed on the one hand, to Hedonistic Utilitarianism, which teaches that pleasure is the thing of absolute worth, to which virtue and morality are related as means only. As against this teleological ethics contends that not the feeling of pleasure but the objective content of life itself, which is experienced with pleasure

is the thing of worth. Pleasure is the form in which the subject becomes immediately aware of the object and its value. On the other hand, teleological ethics is opposed to Intuitionism which regards the observance of a system of *a priori* rules, of the moral laws, as the thing of absolute worth. In opposition to this teleological ethics contends that the thing of absolute worth is not the observance of moral laws, but the substance which is embraced in these formulæ, the human historical life which fills the outline with an infinite wealth of manifold concrete forms; that the moral laws exist for the sake of life and not life for the sake of the moral laws.

It is strange, therefore, to find Prof. Mitra, in defiance of all modern discoveries in psychology, favouring the intuitionist theory in its traditional dogmatic form and maintaining that 'conscience' is an '*original faculty*' of the mind: it is '*reason intuitively* discovering the fundamental principles of morality by the application of which to particular cases we decide questions of right and wrong.' "It is, so to speak," says he, "the light which discloses the moral qualities of acts." Again "conscience is intelligence *intuitively* revealing the moral principles. This *intuitive* exercise of intelligence is not the same as the inferential process which enables us to find out the moral qualities of particular acts. If a moral judgment be incorrect the error lies in the inferential process, in the application of a moral principle and not in its apprehension." He further regards conscience as an elementary faculty and takes up the position which Calderwood occupied when the 'faculty hypothesis' was prevalent in psychology, and the mind was regarded as a box with so many water-tight compartments—the faculties—each independent of the others.

He says further on: "Conscience always discovers moral principles *aright* and so it *cannot be educated*." (The italics are ours). This is opposed to the theory of evolution as applied to the human mind. To regard 'conscience' as infallible and as laying down the moral rules once for all is to forget the history of civilisation and of the development of human society. It is strange that such an opinion should be maintained by a writer in this twentieth century when the science of psychology has been developed by the investigations of William James, G. F. Stout and other eminent psychologists. We are inclined to regard conscience rather as the reflexion of custom in the consciousness of the individual. "The authority with which it speaks is the authority of all those who support and protect custom and law against the particular deviating will." It is therefore neither intuitive nor infallible and the principles which it reveals share the weaknesses of the man's education and environments. The author no doubt admits this; for on page 272 of his book he says: "Intuition implies a capacity which may develop to different degrees and forms according to the varying influence of the environment which calls it forth. Thus the notion of justice, benevolence or honesty, though fundamentally the same, admits of variation owing to variation of circumstances. Hence the necessity for explanation to render precise and definite an idea which might otherwise remain more or less vague and imperfect." But what we object to is the faulty psychology involved in holding that men are born with notions of justice, benevolence, &c. to be rendered more precise later on.

Modern psychology has altogether transferred the ethical controversy from the point

round which it mainly turned in the 18th and 19th centuries, and has centred it on the question of the *content* of morality rather than on its *origin*, due no doubt, to the doctrine of progress as expressed in the theory of evolution. What is now sought for in ethics is a scientific explanation of the principles of right and wrong in conduct at large, and the mystical way of disposing of the problem by saying that they are innate in us is out of date.

The difficulty of fully accounting for the progress in morality by the theory of evolution made T. H. Green seek for its explanation in idealism and ever since then the theory of Eudæmonism or self-realisation has held the ground in ethics, and Prof. Mitra has done full justice to this theory to the discussion of which he has devoted the biggest and most admirable chapter in his book. It is in this chapter that he gives a very lucid exposition of the philosophy of Hegel and of Vedantism, and other idealistic systems and compares them in their ethical issues with great skill and learning.

The remaining portions of the book cover all the topics usually discussed in treatises on ethics and are each full in itself, and render Prof. Mitra's book an admirable text-book on the subject suited to meet all the requirements of the B.A. Pass Course of the Madras University and of private students who may wish to gain a clear and comprehensive idea of the science of ethics.

Among other noticeable excellences of the book we may mention the clear accounts of the systems of all the ethical writers, both English and foreign, so that the student has no need to go outside the book for a history of ethics. The author makes full use of the

device which every professor ought to adopt, of impressing important points on the minds of his pupils by apt poetical quotations, epigrams and pithy sayings which strike the mind and are never forgotten when uttered by the living voice of a respected and beloved professor. The marginal notes are also very good and must be very helpful to the student.

S. MANGESH RAU.

POPULAR CULTURE: A LESSON FROM AMERICA.

I.

READING Lord Morley's brilliant address on the spread of *Popular Culture* some years ago, it struck the present writer that the philosophic statesman was putting forward a purely visionary ideal. The scheme of studies promulgated by him included a knowledge of History, Politics, Literature and Science, not with the superficial enthusiasm of the amateur, but with all the intensity of a specialist. The most impracticable idea was probably the advocacy of a study of Universal History by every citizen. It could only be taken then that the course was meant to be an ideal to be kept in mind by all attempting to bring the treasures of Learning to the masses.

It is hardly necessary to draw the distinction between the imparting of elementary education to the masses and the effort to spread *culture* among them, the task thought of by Lord Morley being the later in a specially advanced form. It is on a higher plane of thought and deals with ideas more than style, while the former is only the spreading of literacy among the people. There was nowhere an actual demonstration

of the kind of work advocated by the noble Lord and the address was therefore regarded as a pious exhortation and nothing more. There were indeed writers like Prof. Churton Collins advocating *Universities for the People*. There was also the example of the more recent British Universities and University Extensions, which had in some measure softened the rigour of the old University ideal and come nearer the people. But it was a vain search to realise the possibilities of a scheme which would embrace the *people* in a wide sense and bring them up to a really high level of culture.

It is however refreshing in an extraordinary degree to read of the remarkable success that has attended schemes of that nature in the United States of America. True to the traditions of the great Republic there are strenuous attempts made to bring down Learning from 'Closets and Libraries' to dwell not only in clubs and coffee-houses, 'but with the average 'working man and woman.' Even as the political franchise is not denied to those whose material status is not enviable, the persons who have not had the privilege of passing through the portals of a University are not banished beyond the pale of culture. If they are not able to surmount the disqualifications under which they labour it is at least no fault of the State which bestows parental attention on them and meets their needs in every direction.

The institution of imparting culture to the people by means of Free Lectures was started in America first by the city of New York in 1888 and nothing could be more inspiring than a knowledge of its lofty aims and the energy with which it has been worked. An Act of Legislature declared that the Board of Education was authorised and empowered to

provide for "the employment of competent lecturers to deliver lectures on the natural sciences and kindred subjects in the public schools * * * in the evening for working men and women." It was further enacted that no admission fee should be charged. The purpose was repeated in clearer language in the revised charter of the city which declared that in addition to the other powers expressly conferred, it will have 'power to maintain free lectures and courses of instruction for the *people* of New York.' Since 1901 the scope of the Free Lectures has been widened so as to include subjects relating to College and University studies. The suburbs of the city have also been brought within range of this benevolent and far-sighted operation.

The twentieth annual report of the Department of Education of the city of New York for the year ending July 31, 1910, which has recently been issued, affords us striking testimony of the progress under this scheme which has deservedly found several imitations in the country. The section relating to Free Lectures is among the most interesting of the chapters in the volume and the inhabitants of a country not accustomed to see any very rapid strides of progress in their educational system cannot but feel intense surprise at what has been done for Popular Culture in a single city in the course of a few months. Is it too much to hope that a study of such laudable work will result in something practical in a land where there is a more pressing necessity for the diffusion of culture among the masses?

The comprehensiveness and value of the scheme of Free Lectures is stated in the words which form the conclusion of a cheerful survey of an year's work. As the Super-

visor of Lectures observes: "It is a University, even if it has no concrete abode in some great architectural pile. It is a University, in the breadth of its purpose and the influence of its spirit, for it takes up all subjects that shall improve our men and women; it includes all kinds of teachers from all parts of the earth; it appeals to all classes—the immigrant, the partially educated, the college graduate, the teacher; and it is broadly human, for it brings its message to the dweller in the reformatory (who, perhaps is the victim of his environment), as well as to the teacher in the schools; it gives lectures on Hart's Island as well as in the Museum of Natural History; and thus helps the way to realise the dream of a social democracy 'with open door and helping hand, rich in human wealth and rich in friendly comradeship.'"

The great solicitude shown for qualifying the average citizen for *Complete Living* as Herbert Spencer would have it, is characteristic of the American Republic. But is it then not time for other enlightened Governments to appeal to the people as the great city has done? The student of educational history looks in vain for a State which had the anxiety to attend to the culture of its masses with the intensity and enthusiasm of this Western city. Here is an enumeration of the classes to whom the institution is intended to appeal: 'To the multitude who are tied to daily toil and have time only in the evening for their advancement; to those who are old before the craving of knowledge awakens; to those who have had a college education and find that even such an education has its defects; to all these persons our work ministers.' There was something like it in the City States of Ancient Greece, in Athens especially, where the citizen had the privilege

of listening to the declamations of orators in the public assemblies, fine outbursts of poetry at public competitions or witnessing some of the greatest dramatic masterpieces of the world at the theatre. 'The Olive-groves of Academe' were also open to him and the wisdom of many a philosopher could be gathered in its shady walks. When all in their favour has been said, it must be seen that there cannot be any comparison between such perfunctory and superficial attempts to administer to the citizen's sense of the Beautiful and the organised, elaborate work of a great, modern corporation one of whose declared aims is the bringing of real culture to the humblest cottage. A study of the details will serve to bear out the statement.

II.

The Board of Education has a separate department for conducting Free Lectures to the people all the over the city and its suburbs throughout the year. The Head of the Department is assisted by a committee and the work of organising the lectures devolves on them. The first paragraph in the report of this section speaks of a record of work of which any Corporation might be proud. 'A staff of 708 lecturers spoke on 1,654 different topics, before 5,196 audiences. The total attendance was 959,982.' There is no attempt made to startle the reader by a mere imposing array of statistics. It will be seen that they mean much more than what statistics generally mean in Blue Books, when the nature of the work is explained and attention drawn to the beneficent effects.

The success of such a scheme generally depends on the wisdom with which the subjects and courses of study are chosen. And

the Board of Education has not only been very comprehensive, but also discriminating in the matter. Reference may be made to the several interesting items on the list. Literature, not in its technical and higher aspects, but in its appeal to the artistic sense claimed special attention. There were nearly fifty special lectures on literary subjects and among them we find: *Great Masters of Literature, The History of American Literature, The Characters of Shakespeare and Representative American Writers.*

History has received adequate recognition in a double aspect—as a study of past records and as a great influence on the political life of a country. The privileges and responsibilities of citizenship have also claimed their attention and the imparting of political education has been declared to be one of the aims of the institution. Economics and Sociology and Politics, each in its widest sense, have been brought within the fold and it is difficult to realise the effects of what have been called *Municipal, State and Federal Lectures* on the evolution of citizenship. As the enthusiastic officer who presides over the department observes: “I look forward to a wider opening of the school-house door, so as to make each lecture centre a People’s Forum, where political discussion may be engaged in without endangering the school.....Twelve thousand young men, it is reckoned, are annually preparing to become voters, and where better than in our great school house should this army of young men be prepared by non-partisan teachers, through the lessons of history and economics, to become intelligent wielders of the right of suffrage, and where better than in the school-house shall the people discuss the great questions of the day, such as the need of child labour legislation,

tenement house legislation, public ownership of railways, or the nature of trusts?” It is a striking compliment to the usefulness of lectures organised in the branch, as well as to the intelligence of the average working man and woman of America, that there should be a great demand for the increase of these lectures.

A section which is not less important is devoted to Science and kindred subjects. It is difficult to expect the common people of even the most advanced cities of the world, to grow enthusiastic over the theories of Science for their own sake. The technicalities of the various branches of experimental Sciences are not for the masses, but popular lectures on some of the recent inventions of science must form an irresistible attraction. The attempt to introduce Mechanics and Engineering into the course has proved very successful in New York and many a labourer has expressed his gratitude for the benefits that have accrued to him by such instruction. Apart from considerations of material utility it is not too much to maintain that there is a certain amount of knowledge in Elementary Science which the average citizen must strive to obtain. As Herbert Spencer points out in his treatise on *Education*, the facts of physiology and the laws governing the human body for instance form an indispensable part of the knowledge necessary for ‘Complete Living.’

Reference must be made in this connection to a series of special lectures on Health and Sanitation organised by the Board on subjects like ‘The maladies peculiar to the American continent and the steps necessary to insure health in the home and the city.’ A course of training in *First Aid to the Injured* is another valuable experience which

the Corporation is anxious to bestow on its children. With the complexities of modern city-life and the daily increase in the possibilities of accidents, the acquirement of the slightest ability to relieve pain even temporarily must prove a great boon.

The critics who are fond of accusing the Yankee of being always immersed in the sordid pursuit of lucre, may well turn to survey the opportunities given by the Corporation of New York, for even the working man and woman to cultivate some of the noblest faculties inherent in the human mind. There are a large number of lectures on the Fine Arts, particularly on Music, consisting not merely of accounts of the great masters, but of practical expositions in popular style of the secrets of each art.

Two more groups of lectures next claim our attention. There is a generous regard shown even to the foreigner and the immigrant in their midst. The large foreign population employed in earning their livelihood in her industrial and other concerns are spoken to in Italian, Yiddish and German. The Corporation, in addition to its having opened its doors of employment to the children of a foreign soil, lectures to them with a view to impart culture, on their own literature and national history. There were during the year, for instance, discourses in the American city on *Heine* and the *Heroes of the Fatherland* in German, and on *Garibaldi* and the *Art of Rome and Florence* in Italian.

A knowledge of the geography of the world imparted, not in the style of the school manual on the subject, but with the vividness commanded by the foreign traveller and the magic lantern forms another important aspect of the instruction. Special attention is paid naturally to

America and its surroundings but Indians will be interested in knowing that there were lectures relating to their country thousands of miles away, when they did not claim great attention very near themselves. The following are among the purely Indian themes: *India: Its Picturesque Life, Street Scenes and Strange Religious Customs; Life, Religion and Art of the Buddhists; Mohamedans in India.* There cannot be a more striking piece of evidence to indicate the solicitude shown by the Board of Education to liberalise the course of lectures than the inclusion of such distant subjects.

The total number of courses of lectures during the year were distributed as follows:—

	Courses.	Courses.	Subjects.
First group:	Literature ...	12	98
	History ...	24	156
	Social Subjects..	14	97
	Fine Arts ...	17	87
Second group:	Astronomy ...	3	15
	Physics ...	10	90
	Chemistry ...	4	35
	Geology ...	1	5
	Biology ...	5	25
	Physiology ...	2	13
	Industries ...	2	12
Third group:	South America..	1	4
	Europe ...	6	27
	Asia ...	3	97

There were in addition to this, 971 lectures divided thus into the groups:—

First group		416
Second group		123
Third group		341
Special group (lectures to foreign-ers.)		91
Grand Total of Lectures	...	1,654

HISTORY TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

I propose in this article to refer to certain regrettable tendencies which have developed themselves recently in connection with the History teaching in our schools.

It may be assumed that the claims of History to an important place in the school curriculum are no longer matters of dispute, and that no subject is more fitted to developing intelligence, training judgments and to awaken imagination. It may also be taken as fairly established that, in teaching the subject of such relatively high value, sound methods must be employed. It is unnecessary for my present purpose to discuss here the question of what should be taught during the preparatory stage of history teaching. In a large majority of our schools history teaching is begun with stories from Indian history. I am not concerned at present with the degree of care with which the stories must be selected. It must be acknowledged that the selection is a difficult task and the stories themselves should be concentrated on the biographies of the more important persons, of men of action, or of events. A severely formal, connected and rationalised treatment of history should, in this stage, be avoided. But it is the method of teaching at present adopted in the lowest stage that one has to complain against. The proper method at this stage is largely a presentation which must be æsthetic and interesting, aiming also at the training of the imagination. The instruments in the hands of a teacher are a good reading book, plans, pictures, and a collection of suitable ballads. The pupils should be required to reproduce in their own language both orally and in writing stories presented to them in the classroom. But alas! what divergence between the precept and practice in a larger number of schools! It is high time that headmasters

and senior history assistants of these schools should look into the matter carefully. A large majority of the teachers of the lower classes have not the capacity to respond to the call to adopt rational methods of treatment. One need pity them. They are earnest and are anxious to do their duty; but they want help, guidance and control. Facilities should be afforded to them to study suitable books which would help them to teach the subject in the early stage. Books are few where the lives of famous men and women of our country are told picturesquely, linking their names with some impressive anecdote or some soul-stirring deed and hence the need for sympathetic guidance. These teachers should also be helped to draw up their own scheme of study which shall best accord with their own skill and capacity; for, extraneous syllabuses are positively injurious. Some of the schools are very well equipped. They have most of what is wanted for history teaching in this stage; but the difficulty is to get the teachers to use them.

But the worst evil which is fast developing into a scandal is the system of dictating notes to the children in the fourth standard and the first form. Unfortunately there seems to be no end to the notes. I earnestly implore the headmasters to see how many note-books the children in those classes are asked to use. This evil has its origin in the instructions issued by some of the inspecting officers. Seeing that the schoolmaster is a veritable slave of the text-book, these officers desire that all teaching in the earliest stage should be purely oral and that no text-books ought to be used. These instructions are well intentioned but in the practical working they have produced evils of a very serious nature. What was aimed at was that the teacher should avoid treating the subject as a pure convention and that he should make the

teaching real. The use of unsuitable text-books written by people who neither made a special study of the subject nor understood the psychology of children's minds has led men to run to the opposite extreme of avoiding all text-books. But how many teachers of the lower classes are there who have good powers of narration to justify this dispensing with of the text-book? Not having capacity to teach without a text-book, these unfortunate men have taken to notes-dictating. I would that some of the inspecting officers carefully examine the history note-books of the unfortunate children committed to the charge of such teachers. They will find the children have taken to dictation some extracts from one or other of the text-books published on the subject—all students having the same thing. The note-books do not contain what one would expect to see in them—the story narrated in children's own language. Bad grammar, bad spelling, slovenly writing are among their characteristic features.

Even in England the system of oral instruction without the aid of a suitable text-book had been tried and given up. The following extracts from a circular issued by the Board of Education on the teaching of History in Secondary Schools will repay perusal:—

"In some schools an attempt is made to dispense with the use of a text-book, and the instruction is entirely oral. This system has often been adopted as a reaction from the use of unsuitable text-books. It is not recommended, except for the very youngest forms, where the children are not yet able to read with ease, and even for them it would often be better to give the instruction by reading aloud."

"Moreover, one of the chief values of the study of history is that it affords valuable practice in the use of books. The increase

in the vocabulary, the study of the precise meaning, and, as the pupils become older and use larger books, the analysis and criticism of a well-written book, are essential parts of their historical education."

"It is, for this reason, important that the greatest care should be exercised in the choice of the book to be used. It should therefore be a book which, both in language and style, is of a high standard and slightly more difficult than a book which the pupils could read with ease alone."

"It is also important to remember that it is impossible for any single book to contain all the information that the pupils will require. Many of the most common faults would be avoided if it were always kept in mind that the object of study is not a single book, but the events of which the book is a partial and incomplete record, and that, however excellent the book is, it will need supplementing and explaining."

"The use of the book will therefore constantly vary. At the beginning of a new and difficult subject there will have to be full explanation by the teacher before the text-book is studied; when the narrative of the book is full and well written, it may be best for the pupils to read it first and for any necessary comment and explanation to come afterwards."

Another tendency to which I wish to invite the attention of the history teachers is in connection with the teaching of English History under Group C of the S.L.C. scheme. It is intended that the outlines of the History of Great Britain and Ireland should be studied and in addition a period or periods specially prescribed for the year. This is a very satisfactory arrangement. For the public examination of 1911 very few schools prepared their pupils for the questions on the outlines and the result was there were loud

complaints against the paper of that year. In assigning the marks during that year, 50% was given for the outlines and the other fifty for the special period. The teachers took the hint and for the public examination held in March last, they were careful to prepare their students for the questions in the outlines and some of them devoted as much time for the outlines as for the special period. But their disappointment was keen when they saw that in dividing the marks between the two, the examiner gave 70% for the special period and only 30% to the outlines. In India as in other countries external examination will dominate the system of instruction in schools. All parents are profoundly sceptical when they are told of intellectual instruction and look on the examination results as a test of the competency of the school-master and his school. Hence the feeling is gaining ground that much attention need not be paid to the outlines this year, because it is not likely to pay in the examination. Fears are also entertained that in distributing the marks next year, the award to the outlines may be 70%, the special period getting only the remaining 30%. Might I suggest that there must be some uniformity in this matter and something definite for the teacher to proceed upon?

It is a matter for deep regret that at the hands of the examiner the outlines received scant attention. It is highly desirable that the teachers should have always before their minds the History of England as a whole and that when the special period is studied it must only be as a part on the whole. It is within the experience of all history teachers that even under the present arrangement so much attention is being concentrated on the period that is being studied that they have hardly any time to turn their attention to the outlines. This is most undesirable.

Even in advanced countries like England

there have been doubts expressed on the utility and desirability of teaching the special periods in Secondary Schools. Professor Tout does not believe in such study. In a pamphlet that he wrote on the subject for the British Historical Association, he says: "The ideal teacher should be so to plan his historical course as to give his pupils a broad sweep of historical development and not to drive them in the details of any of the corners of history. We must therefore in the necessity of the case rigidly limit ourselves to outlines and definitely set our faces against the detailed study of special periods. If we do not, we fail to accomplish the most primary objects for which historical instruction is given."

It must be said, with due deference to the learned Professor, that the case for the detailed study for the special period alongside of a general study of the outlines is a strong one. But any thing that tends in the direction of making the teachers and the taught devote too much attention to the special period at the expense of the outlines must be discouraged. To quote again Professor Tout "a period ought to be got up in a text-book which differs from small text-books only in being more detailed and therefore more wearisome." He is convinced that "a few lurid patches of detailed knowledge in the midst of a dark background of profound ignorance" is of little value. This dark background is but the inevitable result of an imperfect appreciation of the importance of general outlines in a scheme for public examination.

The tendency on the part of the examiners to attach undue importance to the special period is producing another evil which the authors of the scheme had never contemplated. It is increasing the very fault which they wanted to correct. A special period has

to be taught for an examination and the teachers are very many who feel that, in the interest of their boys, everything that has occurred during the period should be taught to the children—that *all* facts that could possibly be told about *all* the names that occur in that period should be told. In connection with the first Reform Act when the Hanoverian period was taught last year, some teachers went to the absurd length of making their pupils commit to memory all the provisions of that Act and to boot, statistics with reference to the distribution of seats both before and after the Reform Act. For the special period, Book III of Tout is generally studied as the text-book and a large majority of teachers in their eagerness to secure a high percentage for their school supplement the information in that book by systematically giving additional notes. Tout No. III is intended for the University students and a good teacher of the High School ought to help his pupils to omit the mass of details in that book. Why wonder if the present system of teaching leads to the overburdening the memory of the pupils resulting in fatigue and overpressure without any counterbalancing training of faculty? The whole business is rapidly degenerating into cram of the most unsatisfactory kind.

This special period is prescribed with the view to give the teachers opportunities to vary their methods of teaching and to resort to more scientific methods. It is in connection with the special period that the teacher is expected to create an opportunity to get behind the scenes, and consider cause and effect, motive and character. It is also intended that source books should be largely used and that the pupils should be helped to realise how history has come to be written with the help of these sources. Books dealing with social England also have to be studied.

Comparison of the institutions and the march of events both in English and Indian histories should be instituted. There is hardly time for the work of this sort when the teacher feels that his work in the class-room is to overload the brains of the unfortunate pupils with a mass of information which they are unable to digest.

In fairness to History teachers of our schools it must be said that, in prescribing the special periods for the public examination, either the authors of the scheme do not bestow adequate thought on the subject or that the teachers have not yet begun to appreciate the difference between the schemes of studies for the School Final and the Matriculation. In England the special period prescribed is a very short one. For the School Final the pupils are required to bring up the whole of the outlines of the English History and the Tudor and the Stuart periods in addition. The Matriculation candidates are not examined in the outlines and the questions will be confined to the Tudor and the Stuart periods. Though the teacher of the School Final class has freedom allowed to him to confine himself to the Tudor or the Stuart period, still these two periods are taught and hence the trouble.

For the examinations conducted in connection with the English public schools, the scheme laid down is as follows:—

General Period, 1307—1603,
Special Period, 1558—1603,

or

General Period, 1603—1715,
Special Period, 1625—1660,

or

General Period, 1837 to the present day.
Special, Tariff Reform, Indian Mutiny, Economic History and Modern Politics.

This scheme presupposes that the preliminary sketch of English History is given in the

lower forms. The special period is a short one and there is ample scope for detailed treatment.

Indian History is relegated to Group B. It is an open secret that it has come to be greatly neglected. People are beginning to doubt if the system of having external examinations in certain subjects and dispensing with them in others has not proved a failure. There is sufficient evidence to show that a case has been made out for the whole subject of History teaching in Secondary Schools being fully gone into. It is high time that either the Department of Public Instruction or associations like the Teachers' Guild and the South India Teachers' Union appoints a committee of experts to deliberate on the question in its various aspects and issue hints and suggestions for the benefit and guidance of the teachers just on the lines of the circulars issued by the Board of Education in England.

K. A. VIRARAGHAVA CHARI.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE HIGHER FORMS IN HIGH SCHOOLS.*

By way of preface I feel I should tell you that I do not propose to myself to formulate any educational maxims or platitudes, or lay down any method of teaching English in the higher forms. I for one, if I may safely declare it, am for no particular method or methods. Given a class, a teacher (presumably the most competent man available) and his work assigned, it is not good policy to pin him down to any fixed method of procedure. The best policy is, on the contrary, the 'let alone' policy. For whatever method is forced upon the teacher, the success of it mostly depends upon the spirit in which he works it; and it is quite possible so to work it as to nullify all

its wholesome effects. Where his heart is not there cannot be his mind also. Whatever may be the value of a set method to a raw inexperienced teacher, the trained teachers at least, by whom the upper forms are mostly manned, may be spared the damping effects of cold methodism. It may here be objected that some certain rules of method are necessary for the guidance of the generality of teachers, who cannot be expected to chalk out a line of procedure all of themselves. Let them by all means be acquainted with several methods, but before they are made to follow any one, be sure they make it their own. There is not a teacher worth the name but follows a method little knowing it,—like the man who was talking prose without knowing it. The teacher is not an automaton; he has brains and heart. Leave him to them, repose faith in him, he will then show you his best work. Let the English teacher at all events be delivered from the bondage of method, for English is a subject in which the interest of the lesson entirely depends upon the freshness and good spirits that are brought into play. Any teacher of average conscience and earnestness, left to himself, is bound to arrive at a plan of work for himself, which, being his own, he pursues not willingly alone but gladly.

Let us at the outset, make sure of what the aim is of our English teaching in schools. We are often so absorbed in the details of work, that we forget to look up to our aim. Our object is no more than to enable our students to speak and write sensibly and with tolerable fluency, and if possible to create and foster in them a good taste for English literature. It should be here borne in mind that our aim should, in the first place, be to equip them with such a command of language as will serve them in daily life. We are daily taxing the boy with grammar, rhetoric and composition; but we take no serious thought of stocking them with common English for common purposes of life. Our boys who can write essays and paraphrase in decent style, cannot with any grace, write a common letter in common style, much less can they express their common ideas in common easy English. They always

talk like a book and never descend to common plain English. It is a sad pity that this should be so. The fact is we are so ridden over by the tyranny of examinations and prescribed text-books, we have no time and inclination to waste our time and energies over things which will not immediately pay.

I hope as I expect that those days have ceased to be when they sought to "make of each boy a budding grammarian, or a walking text-book with lists of exceptions at his fingers' ends." A good deal of grammatical and other stuff that we used to jam into the heads of boys is now obsolescent, though even yet we do not infrequently meet with teachers who will religiously set a number of pages in Nesfield's grammar for the next day's lesson. We are also happily giving up *transformation of sentences*, a species of mental gymnastics which did more harm than good, in that it left the impression in the minds of the boys that the several forms of a sentence may interchangeably be employed, irrespective of sense and context. A truce again to that cold operation of the *analysis of sentences*, that curious assortment of words and phrases into several compartments, which exercised no more than the mechanical ingenuity of the boys who often stowed any refractory parts into some accommodating space in the shelf. Such things must be when sense is divorced from sound.

Happily this order of things is fast changing yielding place to new—thanks to the Examination papers of the last two years. We have now on the other hand taken to other devices that will pay in the examination. We have now taken to summarising. Summary, summary, day in day out. What a sorry thing that we should be no better than examination coaches! We take no thought of our true and noble ends, expect on such occasions like this when we amuse ourselves with lofty ideals and pious resolutions. Before the grim realities of the examination-result system, they vanish into thin air.

It is necessary that the English teacher should bear in mind the vast importance of the subject entrusted to him. A knowledge of English is

necessary for the study of all other subjects of school study. In History, Geography, Elementary Science, the boys' English is called into exercise. Their heads may be stocked with knowledge and information, but the measure of their understanding can be estimated only from their presentment and expression. Command of English and power of expression lie at the root of the acquisition of all knowledge. The English teacher who is formally to deal with English must recognise the vast responsibilities of his office. He cannot afford to keep severely aloof, saying "My task is done and I go." He will have to make common cause with his colleagues, who in fact do a great part of his work incidentally. The science teacher, for instance, who asks his boys to write down an experiment, is in reality setting a composition exercise for the boys and in correcting it does the English teacher an important office—little known and unhappily far less appreciated. If ever the English teacher has any occasion to congratulate himself upon the success that has attended his teaching, let him not, while taking credit upon himself, forget to offer his colleagues their due share. After such deduction is made, he will find his honest share to be very limited. This is one good proof, if proof were needed, of the action and interaction of different branches of study upon one another and of the necessity and usefulness of the co-operation of teachers in any particular school.

The English teacher is a great potential power in a school for shaping the character and conduct of the boys. In the course of teaching English there arise many occasions when the teacher has to make some general observations on men and things, on how life ought to be lived and how it is, on the bright and seamy sides of human nature in general, occasions which, rightfully employed, may serve to awaken in boys a generous spirit and lofty ideal. Poetry especially, artistic in its nature, and appealing to the emotions of the heart, must work its secret and beneficent influence on the boy's growing character. Thus the English teacher has, as no

* A paper read by Mr. V. Mahadevan, B.A., L.T., of the Native High School, Kumbakonam, before a meeting of the Tanjore District Secondary Teachers' Association held on the 20th July in the Town High School, Kumbakonam.

other teacher can have, golden chances of making good and noble men out of the young boys; but he cannot turn them to any account on account of the examination spectre ever dancing before him.

Now, it is a common charge against the English teachers that they betray a sad tendency towards lecturing and that they discard the time-honoured method of question and answer, of elicitation. I am far from deploring and condemning such a tendency. Lecturing is, after all that may be said against it, merely putting a number of ideas together in their proper sequence and is a very lucid and effective way of presenting a subject in all its related parts. Question and answer breaks the trend of thought of pupil and teacher alike, and leads off to unsuspected digressions. Teaching by frequent questioning leads to laying undue stress on the parts, and the whole is lost sight of. The wood cannot be seen for the trees; and the danger is the parts are made to appear greater than the whole. If the teacher happens to be a good speaker, it cannot fail to have an insensible effect upon the boys who by unconscious process of imitation will catch the happy manner and fluency of the teacher. A quarter of an hour of a continuous stream of good intelligible English proceeding from the living voice of the teacher accompanied by expressive gestures is worth days and days' reading of printed stuff. In the sixth form it is no great matter if the teacher talks slightly above the heads of boys; for there is his living facial expression and living gesture to make his meaning clear. Lecturing is besides a preparation for formal lectures in the College classes and is not that, I ask, a soft and gentle way of tempting the youth to higher and higher English? I would, for my part, exhort the English teacher to lecture without any sense of compunction when the humour is on him. The blessed catechetical method and elicitation may be resorted to for the sake of variety and on some formal occasions.

It is, now at this stage of our educational

progress, needless to maintain at any cost of space and time, that any intimate knowledge of grammar is essential for proficiency in language. Enough for our practical purposes if we dwell upon such parts of grammar as are necessary for correct speaking and writing—say, *sequence of tenses, conditional moods, use of Shall and Will, use of tenses*, and so forth—points to which reference will have to be made in composition exercises. To do more than what is practically needed is vexatious waste of time. I here take this occasion to suggest that some rudiments of Prosody might be taught to the sixth form boys, just so much of it as would enable them to feel and enjoy the sweet melody of poetry.

The best part of English teaching is composition—a regular night-mare to the English teacher, the kill-joy of his life. The woeful figure with a bundle of papers under his arm is indeed too familiar a spectacle in school. Certainly no object of envy. Poor soul! he has to wade through page after page of illegible slipshod manuscript, correct it, making sense out of the rigmarole, and assign marks to it, and distribute the exercises to the boys. As he hands them over to boys, he again runs his eye over each exercise and makes his comments, while the boys receive them with rueful faces, sullen, discontented with the scant recognition meted out to their productions, and perhaps angry too, at the way in which they have been remorselessly crossed and scored. Ah! what a sorry state of things! The teacher deserves his salary and far more, if, amidst such forbidding conditions, he can keep his countenance and his temper.

The most that the English teacher can do at present is to correct the mistakes of spelling, of concord, of sequence of tenses and the like, that may lie scattered in the composition exercises, and distribute them to boys, let them make what they could out of the corrections. He probably calls a few hopefuls to his side, and points out his mistakes at some length, while the rest nearly 90. p.c. of the class must rest content with the scant attention given to them. This is indeed unsatisfactory, but there is no helping it in the

present economy of affairs. If there are two hours of composition a week, nearly one good hour is spent in distributing the papers, explaining the corrections, making some general comments over the last performance; and then there is a new theme to be announced and discussed, or a piece of paraphrase to be read out, and sufficient time given to the boys to think and write—too crowded a programme indeed for the time prescribed, and the teacher can but hurry through.

There are some very vital points besides that he can hardly dwell upon. The *matter*, the *sense* of the performance, he has no time to think of. Unwarranted exaggerations, mis-statements, illogical and incongruous arrangement of ideas, sweeping generalisations, no-paragraphing, or wrong-paragraphing,—these are matters of vital importance. Language is but the reflection of the mind, and when the mind is in fault, of what earthly use is it to be striking about its image? Much of the correction business that is at present performed is only next to no-correction. We are only paltering with the question of composition and dallying about its fringes or outskirts. We have never really gone to the heart of it.

True and genuine correction consists in entering into the mind of the boy, realising all that he thinks and feels, and pointing out the fallacies or shortcomings of the very conception, and showing how imperfect, or wide of the mark is the expression of his thoughts; in brief, how the teacher himself would think of shaping it with the given plan and thoughts of the boy. This means individual attention of the boys—'a counsel of perfection, easily said,' as you will interject. Yes! to a great extent, but then unless it is so done, it is a mockery, a cheat.

I would recommend that at least two hours be devoted to the criticism of composition exercises, two hours a week. Take a boy's exercise, read it out to the class, and invite criticisms. First, take the subject matter of the production, and ask what additions, omissions, or alterations might be made, and why. Such a discussion as

this will enable the boys slowly to arrive at a sense of proper proportion of parts, and of distinguishing the pertinent from the non-pertinent. Next take the language of the sample before you. Ask the boys to amend, to improve or touch it up. Diverse forms of sentences will now come in for consideration, proper choice of words, and discrimination of synonyms will have to be discussed, various devices of rhetoric will be tried for strength, clearness and emphasis. Such a class as this is bound to be very interesting and whatever instruction is imparted is impressed the deeper for the reason that it seems to come out incidentally.

This demands great tact and skill on the part of the teacher who should gently draw out the boys. Those that are not to the manner born may at least call up a kindly manner, and a patience not to be easily put out. The composition teacher should be a sweet-tempered, amiable, and affable character, his manners so engaging as to invite boys to go and seek his opinion of their own free will. Let the boys be encouraged to argue with him, and talk to him on sundry informal topics. Let the relations between the pupil and the teacher be free and devoid of foolish and undue restraint. Fear, shyness, and constraint have a chilling effect and only freeze the ardour of the boys. English composition, remember, is an art that cannot thrive in a cold stifling atmosphere. A degree of warmth and freedom is indispensable for the free unfolding and development of the literary art. If the teacher again is to exert any influence on the boy's ways of thinking, talking, and acting, it is only to be done by some acquaintance with them. Says a method book:—"The teacher of composition who does no more than to cultivate in his students a facility of speech has overlooked the main point. His first and most important duty is to develop character, to bring in the boy or girl the man or woman that is to be, to fit the student for the part that he is to play in life."

Well, it is no use [it is positively misleading] pretending to correct *all* the papers. Correct

what you can and that well and thoroughly, and in a manner by which the whole class may be benefited. There are some habits of boys which have to be sternly put down, but gently and in an unoffending manner. Boys have a wonderful knack of making burlesques, half-annoying, half-amusing. They will press certain big words, idioms and phrases into service at a singularly unhappy context, adorn their composition with a fair sprinkling of the flowers of speech, and exhibit the same to you, eagerly expecting applause. The poor teacher is at his wits' end and does not know whether to laugh or to weep. The innocent author means not what he writes. Pray, look not harshly at him. There is some well-meaning zeal and earnestness at bottom, mixed of course with a good deal of dross intended for showing off. Here is a test case for the composition teacher. Do what he will to awaken the boy to his fault: but let him beware of causing any despair. See that the lad goes from you with a heart and resolve to do better next time.

It may be made a rule that a boy should not employ any word or phrase of the use of which he is not sure. Let him first ascertain of the teacher whether it is in place, before he employs it in a context. For what really happens is, that the boy says it to himself a number of times, sets it down in writing, and then reads it out to himself and fancies he is pleased with the sweet succession of sounds. This wrong use, which the boy has been at such pains to make, has gone deep into his mind, and cannot be easily weeded out. The boys are not wholly to blame in this matter. There are some teachers yet—I hope the race is getting extinct now,—who used to dictate phrases after phrases to be taken down by the boys with examples; and the boys were left to understand that the merit of their composition lay in making use of as many phrases and idioms as he could press into it. Let the boys have a dictionary by their side that they might look up any word whose meaning or spelling they feel

doubtful about, but let them understand that their common dictionaries can give them no clue as to its employment in a sentence.

Let the subject of the theme or the piece of poetry be given out to the class some days before the composition day. Let the boys think it at home and come to the class prepared to speak about it. Open a sort of debating class, and urge the boys to speak and criticise freely with nothing but hints before them. As the boys are speaking, the teacher will have sufficient exercise by way of correcting the small mistakes, without browbeating them at the same time. We do seriously nothing to develop the boys' faculty of speaking. In English or other classes the boys' opportunity of speaking is limited to their answers, and extend to not more than a minute or two at the most. Such a class is a very sad and urgent want, and if the name 'debating class' sound strange and unsavoury, let it go by the name of 'Oral composition' class. This, I believe, is a good name, and may be in good fashion with a set of faddists with whom names go for much.

A school that wants a debating society wants a most potent instrument for cultivating and developing the minds of boys, and forming their character. It is a most useful and necessary adjunct to a school. Somehow it has got into bad odour, and it is cast in the face of any one who may now propose it, that "societies have come and gone, and in the light of past history they cannot thrive in schools." Teachers, at least of the rank of the conservatives, have come to look upon societies as a mischievous factor to reckon against, and those who take a leading part in them suffer under a cloud. On the contrary if properly conducted, these societies will serve as effective aids to school discipline, and foster a healthy public opinion amongst the boys themselves. Till now, the conduct of these societies was wholly left to the boys whose volatile enthusiasm soon evaporated. I now venture to suggest that the English teacher at all events

should organize one in his school, and prevail upon the headmaster to recognise it as a school institution. Not to speak of the many civic virtues fostered and developed in such institutions, they unquestionably serve as the best and most effective means of developing the boys' facility of speech.

The English teacher has thus heavy work to do, and work of the most killing sort. The success of his work depends upon the zeal, enthusiasm and cheerfulness he brings to bear upon it. If the English teacher is not in good form, I should say let him not teach at all, rather than teach coldly and drily. English literature should not be so taught, whatever else is. I ask, therefore, for more leisure to the English teacher, and a composition assistant if the classes are large. In sheer pity at least, he may be granted at least two hours of leisure a day. I put the figure low in deference to the headmasters assembled here, who may grudge even that. If the English teacher is compelled to do more hours of work and a good lot of composition work besides, his lot is a sorry lot; and he may, if he has not already done it, be recommended to promptly think of ensuring his life.

LETTER FROM THE CHANCELLOR
ON THE SUBJECT OF THE
UTILIZATION OF THE GRANTS
MADE BY THE GOVT. OF INDIA
TO THE UNIVERSITY OF BOMBAY.

GANESHKHAND,
4th July 1912.

Dear Mr. Vice-Chancellor,

The generous grants of Rs. 45,000 recurring and 2 lakhs non-recurring by the Government of India to our University open out new possibilities of the greatest importance to the Presidency. The University has developed to its present large dimensions by gradual accretions.

It has so far confined itself to the revision, from time to time and in somewhat fragmentary fashion, of courses and curricula and to the conduct of examinations. Each College has sought to maintain itself as a separate teaching University, and corporate action has been wholly wanting. The higher functions and responsibilities of a University, as they are now generally understood, remain to be accepted and turned to account.

The recent changes will render it practically impossible in future for the Colleges to be self-contained teaching units. There is now an honours course to deal with, and comparatively small classes in a variety of subjects will replace largely attended lectures in a few compulsory studies. These changes will have far-reaching effects upon higher education and they require careful organization on the part of the University in order that their full benefits may be reaped. We are thus already faced with the necessity of reforms directed to secure corporate action for the common good.

But, further, the time has come when the conception of the functions of the University needs to be broadened, in order that it may take its rightful place in leading and directing the advancement of higher knowledge in our Presidency. It should be realized that the duties of a University do not begin and end with examinations and the conferring of degrees, thus lapsing as soon as the student has graduated. A living University should not concern itself with its students alone. It should be an intellectual force in the State, spreading knowledge and creating an atmosphere in which culture and research in all the varied departments of human learning can continuously grow and flourish. I assume that these propositions would now receive general acceptance in India as elsewhere; but it may be said that the University of Bombay as not hitherto been in a position to give practical effect to them. The welcome assistance provided by the Government

of India goes far to destroy this plea. The University can now move in the direction of that wider and more vigorous life which its dignity and responsibilities alike demand. It stands at a parting of the ways, and upon the steps which are now taken, the future progress of learning in Western India must depend. It may either continue to follow lines of routine which can end only in disappointment and discredit; or it may become a true centre of light and leading working continuously to promote the advancement of knowledge and helping to forward the highest intellectual aspirations of the Indian people. What is now imperatively demanded is the laying down of a policy to serve for the future and the application of the means available to the purposes of that policy.

As Chancellor at what may well be regarded as a critical period in the history of the University, I feel it my duty to offer my personal views on the main questions which must shortly be decided. I understand that the Syndicate is framing proposals with which the Senate will duly deal; but the importance of the issues at stake is so great that I may be pardoned for indicating at this stage the principles which should—in my personal opinion—determine the allocation of the recurrent grant of the Government of India.

This grant is given with the intention that it should be employed principally for the development of the University as a teaching institution and for the improvement of the inspection of the affiliated Colleges. The first of these objects is of cardinal importance. The second is, as I shall indicate, an integral part of the necessary organization which cannot be taken in hand without careful consideration and expert advice.

The following are, briefly stated, the points for immediate consideration :—

I.—With a view to the advancement of higher knowledge it is most desirable to draw upon outside resources. I am sure that it is now possible

to obtain from Great Britain brilliant scholars of accepted authority who would come out during the cold weather and deliver courses of lectures at Bombay and Poona at least. I suggest that three such lecturers should be obtained this year. The subjects selected should not necessarily be treated from the point of view of the University examinations. The lectures should be such as would appeal to educated Indians, and would give a fresh impetus to thought and study which is greatly needed. Attendance should, therefore, not be limited to students of the University. The effect would be to raise the general tone of University teaching, to stimulate the aspirations and elevate the ideals of our students, and to arouse public interest in higher education. At the same time, the University would not be bound in any way for the future by the obligation of fixed salaries although it would obtain the services of the best available scholars. It might be possible to make this arrangement in conjunction with the University of Madras, by which economy could be effected.

II.—I understand that some of the Indian Universities contemplate the establishment of University Chairs for higher teaching in special subject. Desirable as this provision may be, I do not think that the financial position of our University is at present sufficiently strong to justify its adoption. The cost of obtaining Professors of exceptional mark for permanent posts in India would necessarily be heavy and the selection would offer difficulties as it is never possible to predict success with certainty in such cases. We have, however, not only in our Colleges but outside them excellent teachers and scholars with Indian experience whose services might well be utilized for the important purpose of post-graduate study. By offering suitable fees these services might be obtained and applied to inter-collegiate and extra-collegiate courses.

III.—Higher training is at a grave disadvantage in Bombay for the want of a well-organised

central Library available for the use of students. The University possesses a suitable building but has neglected to provide the essentials of a Library. I understand that considerable funds have been entrusted to it by private benefactors for specific Library purposes, but have not yet been so utilized. At present the Library is ill-equipped and this with the want of a trained Librarian accounts for the fact that this essential adjunct of a University has proved to be of little or no use to students. There is now an opportunity of remedying these evils. A well-qualified Indian graduate should be sent to Europe for a year's special training in Library work with a view to his appointment as University Librarian. At the same time the Library should be brought up to date by the purchase of books and the provision of necessary fittings and furniture. For immediate purposes the funds to which I have referred are available and they could be supplemented by a sum from the grant of three lakhs non-recurrent, which might reasonably be so applied. Provision for the Librarian's salary and for an annual maintenance grant for the purchase of new books should be made.

IV.—I have laid stress on the organization of the University as essential to enable it to enter upon the new activities which the needs of higher education inexorably demand. At this parting of the ways, the counsel of an expert thoroughly conversant with modern methods of University management appears to me to be vital. I, therefore, propose that the services of an expert from the Board of Education in London, or of some recognized high authority, should be obtained for a period of two years. His mission would be to examine into the working of higher education in all its aspects, to visit the affiliated Colleges, and to report to the Senate the measures necessary to bring the University into line with present requirements, and to enable it to act in a corporate capacity for teaching purposes. The result would be to provide the University with

definite lines of policy for its future guidance and to supply the organization now lacking. I am convinced that in no other way can we expect to attain efficiency and economy in carrying out the changes which are now necessary and possible.

I estimate the cost of these proposals roughly as follows :—

			Rs. per annum.
I	...	...	12,000
II	...	...	8,000
III	...	...	7,000
IV	...	...	20,000
Total			47,000

This total is in excess of the promised recurrent grant; but it will evidently be impossible to spend all the latter this year. There will, therefore, be a considerable surplus which, if my approximate estimate were fully realized, would make good any deficiency until financial equilibrium could be established, as IV is not a permanently recurring charge.

Except as regards one minor item, I purposely refrain from offering any suggestions as to the disposal of the non-recurrent grant of three lakhs. The consideration of this matter should be postponed until the adviser has reported on the general questions of policy and organization. Otherwise there would be grave risk of wasting this valuable addition to the financial resources of the University.

I have now explained my views as to the allocation of the funds immediately available. Much more is needed to enable the University of Bombay to attain the ideal which I hold before it. Funds are required for publication on a considerable scale, for the direct encouragement of research, for University extension lectures in our large towns, and for other purposes. Happily the chance has now come for a great and definite step in advance which will be assured if the lines of progress which I have attempted to trace are followed. And I am certain that if the University escapes from its

present narrow groove and becomes, as I earnestly hope, a true centre of higher learning in Western India, generous support will be forthcoming in full measure to supply its growing needs.

The period during which I have had the honour to be your Chancellor is nearly at an end. Throughout that period, as you are aware, I have taken the keenest interest in the welfare of the University, and I may claim to have been instrumental in adding three new Institutions to its inheritance. I trust that my motive in thus laying my views before you cannot be misunderstood. I have not, nor have I ever had, any object in view except the lasting good of the University, to which a Chancellor must owe special responsibilities, and the advancement on sound lines of higher education in the Presidency. In tendering my advice for the last time, I trust that it will be accepted in the spirit in which it is offered. I shall quit the office which I have been privileged to hold with great regret; but I cherish the hope that, in my retirement, I may still be able from time to time to render assistance to the University of Bombay.

Believe me,
Yours most faithfully,
(Signed) G. S. CLARK.

THE MAHOMEDAN EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE.

The following is the full text of the Presidential Address delivered by the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Abdur Rahim:—

GENTLEMEN,—I feel that I have been greatly honoured by being invited by the Committee of the Mahomedan Educational Conference of Southern India to preside at this its fourth meeting and, believe me it was very gratifying to me to have been able this year to accept the invitation.

From the report which has been read to you it is apparent that these Conferences have been of much help in diffusing education among the people

in different parts of the country and the Committee has acted rightly in holding the present session at Bangalore. This delightful city by its geographical position and climate and by virtue of its being a capital town of an enlightened and progressive Native State seems to be marked out as a proper centre of Educational movements in the South. Further, in the territory of Mysore there is a large Mahomedan population who are in especial need of all the help that you can render them. Their condition like that of their co-religionists elsewhere has reached the low water mark.

The Mahomedan world, at present, is passing through a crisis. The dangers which have been accumulating for some time past seem to darken the horizon and I have never known a time when the prestige of Islam stood so low. At the same time if you study the situation carefully it is not by any means without hope. Among all Mahomedan populations there is a large and increasing band of watchful, energetic and patriotic men who show a keen appreciation of the position of the community and are determined to find and apply the true remedy. They find that the channel of national life has long been choked with a mass of noxious, decayed matter and has to be thoroughly cleansed and renovated if the community is again to recover health and vigour—and this task they have taken up in all earnestness. The task is undoubtedly one of great difficulty but history tells us that the building or the rebuilding of a nation is not to be accomplished without prolonged, undaunted and unselfish labour and sacrifices on the part of the best men of the community. It is hardly necessary to point out that the problems which the community has to solve for itself in different countries are not the same. For instance in countries like Turkey and Persia obstacles are constantly thrown in the path of the reformer by hostile foreign powers and peoples. Here in India the Government of the country, though run by foreigners cannot be justly charged with being obstructive of reform or progress—in fact in such matters as it considers to be within its legitimate sphere of activity it has done and is doing much to advance the progress of the country. In the matter of education which is our theme the indebtedness of Modern India to the British Government is admittedly very great.

Gentlemen, we have met to deliberate over the educational needs of the community in this part of India and in due course you will be asked to discuss many questions relating to the subject. It is not expected that I should, at this stage, deal with questions of detail. I propose in what I am going to say to you to indicate some of the more

important causes which in my opinion have contributed to the present condition of the community, so that we may know what exactly we may hope to achieve by our efforts, and the direction in which these efforts should be made.

There are few among us who do not realise the depths to which the Mahomedans have fallen. For over 500 years they occupied the very summits of glory; they were the most enlightened and consequently the most powerful of the peoples of the earth. Progress was their watch-word; they unearthed arts and sciences from the ruins of Greece, Persia, Egypt, Babylonia, Rome and India, and set knowledge in the forefront of their national life side by side with religion. They did much to systematise those methods of reaching the unknown which have borne such wonderful fruits in modern times and founded more than one important science. Now they are reckoned among the most backward of communities. To what did they owe their past greatness and what have been the causes of their decline are questions which to my mind have a vital bearing on the Mahomedan educational problems of the day.

The Mahomedans were never one race nor of one ethnological type. They counted among them brown, fair, yellow and black races. Semitics, Aryans and Mongolians. The climatic conditions of the various countries which they inhabited were also of the most varied character, nor did the history of the different races which constituted the Mahomedan world bear the same common features. The Arabs of Hedjaz with whose name principally the Mahomedan civilization is popularly identified were a primitive nomadic people, regarded before the advent of Islam as wholly unnameable to any civilizing influence; the same was true of the Moguls and the Turks. The Persians and the inhabitants of Syria and Mesopotamia, Egypt and India had lost their former civilization and become decrepit and degenerate. Yet, the Arabs, the Persians, the Moguls, and the Turks, the Indian, the Egyptian and the African Mahomedans, all played a considerable part in the history of civilization. This fact along with similarity in the main characteristics of Islamic civilization in different parts of the world, and the coincidence of time when it flourished, show to my mind conclusively that its motive power is not to be found in the peculiarities of race, colour, climate or local history but in one great idea, viz., Islam. For about seven centuries Christianity had been in propagation; it had made some way against fetishism on the one hand and modified on the other hand the formalism of Judaism. But the spirit of Christianity as taught by the immediate disciples

of Christ and the early Christian Fathers was monasticism; hence Christianity before the advent of Islam had done nothing to advance secular knowledge. In fact the more ardent followers of that religion placed a ban on all arts and sciences which had been developed by nations whom they called Pagans. Islam came to the rescue; it not only entered the most vigorous protest yet made against idolatry and superstition, but also against the narrow bigotry of priest-craft and monasticism which was then the dominant feature of almost all existing religious systems. By placing religion on Reason as its foundation, by teaching that the universe is ordered by the laws of a supremely wise and benevolent Being, Islam effected emancipation of human intellect and opened unlimited vistas of possibilities before the human mind. By sweeping away priest-craft it brought every individual into direct relations with his Creator, so that humanity acquired a new sense of responsibility and dignity. The next cardinal doctrine on which Islam laid emphasis was the capability of men of all races and climes to attain the highest status. It taught that the scheme of Providence did not require that there should be a permanent dividing line between race and race and class and class. It held out to the world a message of universal brotherhood, a message which had never before been delivered to mankind in such clear and unambiguous terms, nor has been since. Then, as I have said, Islam repudiated the idea that salvation was to be obtained by abandoning the world and society. You remember the well-known incident in the Prophet's life when several religious ascetics came to him and asked him what message he had for them. One of them said that he lived in a cell and passed his days in meditation, another that he never married and the third that he fasted every day of the year. What was the reply? The Prophet did not extol them as models of religious virtues, but on the other hand administered to them a severe rebuke. He told them that he also fasted and prayed and meditated but at the same time did not fail to discharge the ordinary duties of life, and added *man ragheba an sunnati falaisa minni* "those who do not like my ways are not of mine." Such being the teaching of Islam, it was only natural that it should have been eagerly and widely accepted. The influence which Islam exerted on the development of humanity was potent and instantaneous. It tended to bring out all those qualities of man which ensure progress, indomitable courage and perseverance in pursuit of high ideals, a determination to work with God above and a heart for every fate, so that you find the pages of Islamic history filled with noble

characters too numerous to enumerate. This energising force, however, which was found sufficient to carry humanity forward for more than six hundred years in spite of many resisting and obstructive forces gradually became thin and weak, the rational spiritualism of Islam gave way to superstition and pharisaism, its stern moral discipline was replaced by a meaningless worship of forms, its absorbing patriotism almost disappeared from the breasts of its votaries, and disunion and strife sapped the very foundations of society while learning—or what remained of it—became as barren as ignorance. The consequences were inevitable, loss of power, wealth, arts, sciences and literature; in fact, of all the concomitants of a vigorous, healthy civilized national life. There were of course external circumstances which hastened the fall of the Mahomedans; but outside enemies, I need hardly tell you, would have found no foothold in the Mahomedan body politic but for its internal weakness.

Now let us consider to what is to be attributed this remarkable change in the condition of the people and to what extent Mahomedan society has been affected by it. On the face of the Mahomedan history one cause of the change is obvious, namely, assumption by rulers of Mahomedan States of absolute and despotic power in direct violation of the constitutional principles of Islam and their gradual surrender to luxury and vices. Corruption at the court spread its baneful influence in the upper classes of the society. Religion which had done so much for the progress of the people was driven away from its position at the helm of the State into seclusion where in the hands of Fuquhas it lost touch with the ever-recurring wants of life, moral, social and intellectual, and became a dead mass of rules and formulas. Literature and the arts were cultivated almost solely in order to pander to the vanity of men in power, the brotherhood of Islam remained but a name and people were taught to regard the performance of certain fixed ceremonial exercises as the sum total of the Islamic ideal.

But in this gloomy picture there is one hopeful fact; corruption never reached the great masses of the people as it did among the Romans in the declining days of the Roman Empire. The bulk of the Mahomedan people in all countries are still God-fearing and retain habits of industry and sobriety. They have hitherto remained unprogressive chiefly because they have had no proper guidance for centuries. That class of the people who succumbed to the pernicious influence of irresponsible power and wealth has almost disappeared or is fast disappearing. Your task may

be difficult so far as it concerns the descendants of such families, but on the whole you have not to work for the regeneration of a people whose energies have been sapped by vices, but of a community which once did great things and has lain fallow for a long time for want of healthy stimulus and opportunities.

I should here like to emphasise the fact that whatever part physical laws may play in the development of man, it can hardly be disputed that the progress of individuals as well as of communities is to be traced principally to the influence of ideas. Of this, perhaps no more forcible illustration is to be found than in the early history of Islam. Other striking instances in point which will at once suggest themselves to the readers of history are the Renaissance in Europe, the French Revolution and, in our own times, the rise of Japan. When there is no great idea to move a community, it generally remains more or less in a state of inertia. On the other hand, if a great idea seize hold of the people, they are bound to move on the onward path. The more one thinks of the history of the Mahomedans, the more vividly one realises the fact that their decline has been mainly due to the disappearance of ideas.

But there are many unmistakable signs around us of the return of the spirit of Islam in the community. The murmur of a new life is clearly audible. All through, even in the worst days, the body of the people steadfastly clung to the name of Islam. If now, Islamic zeal for progress is also coming back to them, as I believe it is, the future may well be regarded with hope and confidence. In my opinion therefore our first and foremost duty is to do all that we can to ensure the spread of this spirit among the people.

Let me now suggest to you the broad lines on which you must proceed to work. From what I have said, it is clear that we must first of all enlist the religious impulse of the community on our side. We have already made much advance in this respect. There are many among the Ulama of Islam, both in India and elsewhere, who are no longer satisfied with what I have called the formalism of the latter day Fuquhas. They are disposed to recognise as did the theologians of the earlier days, that the mission of Islam is to secure man's spiritual welfare through his moral and intellectual development. At the same time the present generation of Ulama, for many of whom, I may say, I entertain great respect, have not had the benefit of a liberal education and are consequently, with some bright exceptions, unfamiliar with the ways and means of progress. There is, thus, a great need in the community of a body of

men, who should be learned in the religion, and have at the same time received education on modern lines. It is with the help of such men that it will be possible for us to rapidly advance the cause of education. The Modern Christian priests of religion who are not only learned in theology but as a body are highly cultured men have been engaged for some time in diverting Christianity from the exaggerated asceticism of its earlier stage to the cause of civilization and progress. Among us, on the other hand, the teachers of religion have for several centuries been drifting away from the educational and practical spirit of Islam into barren ritualism and virtual monasticism. The fact is that the essential principles of religion which are meant for all times have to be applied in the light of existing circumstances which are never the same. Remember the well-known words of the Prophet, *La tasabbuddahra jainnauaha huaddahro*—'Do not blame the time for God Himself is Time.'

The lesson which I therefore wish to enforce is that in any comprehensive scheme for Mahomedan education it is indispensably necessary that the study of theology should find a prominent place.

Gentlemen, I believe that before long the Aligarh University scheme will receive the sanction of the legislature and the community is anxiously waiting for the fulfilment of their long cherished project. I hope and trust that one of the leading features of the new University, when it is established, will be a systematic study of our religion and religious sciences so that it may send forth men of culture who will also command the respect and confidence of the community in matters of religion. It will then be possible for us to have a body of missionaries—a race which has almost disappeared from amongst the Mahomedans of India—who would be able to present Islam in its essential features, not merely to outsiders but to the community itself. We are always ready, as we should be, to welcome new-comers into the fold of Islam, but now-a-days it must be admitted very little is done for the spiritual advancement of the Mahomedans themselves. Most of those who have assumed the role of religious teachers think that they would be sufficiently discharging their duty by instructing those that come under their influence, a few canonical rules relating to ablutions, the saying of prayers and fasting. It should be an important function of a Mahomedan University to supply to the community religious teachers with better equipment and with a wider conception of their duty. If also the example set by the Darul Ulum of Lucknow in introducing modern

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learning in its courses of studies is followed by other Madrasahs in the country the want of competent religious teachers will soon be removed. I may mention here in passing that I do not share the apprehension which was so forcibly expressed the other day by Sir Sankaran Nair in connection with the Mahomedan and Hindu Universities. On the other hand, I feel sure that such Universities faithfully conducted on the proposed lines should, instead of being a breeding ground of sectarian bigotry, provide a remedy for the evil.

Another very important branch of work which should form a special feature of our education is the study of Mahomedan history. How few there are among us who can claim even a modest knowledge of the subject! I do not mean merely a knowledge of the names of kings and dynasties or great battles but of the history of Mahomedan civilization. For instance, the history of the Moorish civilization in Spain is a sealed book to most of us. Are we sure that we have an adequate conception of all the work which the Mahomedans did in the domains of sciences, literature and arts? My own belief is that in the many cataclysms which have passed over the Mahomedan world, considerable treasures of knowledge have been buried. Is it not a pious duty which we owe to our great ancestors to unearth those treasures as far as may be possible? Our Government, all the credit to it, is endeavouring to encourage researches in Oriental literatures and sciences and you may be sure the efforts of the Government will evoke a proper response among our coreligionists in the North. You should also consider what we can do to promote this work.

Then, we cannot give too much attention to the forming of character in the education of our boys; the importance of this in any well-considered scheme of education is now almost universally recognised. Here, I may observe that, in my opinion, our youths do not lack intelligence and are not in any degree inferior to the young men of other Indian communities in natural gifts, either in the North or in the South of India. In this view I am corroborated, I am glad to find, by the deliberate opinion of the late Mr. Justice Boddam who, it must be admitted, had considerable experience in matters of Mahomedan education and whose knowledge of the community in the Madras Presidency was derived from close and intimate observation. But you will agree with me that there is a marked tendency in our young men to run wild—they show a lack of stability and determination of character. And this, in my opinion, is to be ascribed, in many cases, to the influence of unenlightened homes which serve not to strengthen.

but to soften character. We should therefore especially welcome the policy, foreshadowed in the recent speeches of the Viceroy, of creating a sufficient number of teaching and residential Universities and improving and expanding the system of hostels. I should like, in this connection, to point out to you that the Mahomedan fund for perpetuating the memory of Mr. Boddam whose great services in the cause of Mahomedan education in the South have established a lasting claim to the gratitude of the community is still languishing though he died more than four years ago and you will agree with me that we should lose no further time in discharging the debt we owe to our deceased benefactor. I suggest to you that we could not do better than erect a suitable hostel for Mahomedan students and associate it with Mr. Boddam's name. I may also here express on behalf of the Mahomedans of Southern India their long-cherished hope that Hyderabad may become the centre of Mahomedan education in the South as Aligarh is in the North and the establishment of a new regime has, it should be added, considerably stimulated these hopes.

But gentlemen, we shall never satisfactorily solve the problem of education unless and until we fully recognise the necessity of educating our girls no less than our boys. I do not suggest that the methods or standard of education should be the same in both the cases; they must necessarily vary to a great extent having regard to the part which each sex has to play in the scheme of life. But God has endowed women with intellectual gifts as much as men. Is there any reason why those gifts in the case of the former should not be fully cultivated? Islam as understood and practised in its palmiest days gave a clear answer; the Islamic laws accord the same status to woman as to man, the same rights of person and property and freedom in the use of her faculties. We are very proud of the liberal spirit of our religion and laws and of the achievements of many women of Islam who by their talents attained eminence as rulers of territories, in fields of battle, in wise statesmanship, in theology and jurisprudence, in philosophy, poetry and rhetoric. At the same time we do really nothing to develop the talents of our daughters and sisters; most of us bring them up in appalling ignorance. The greater is the pity because I believe there is a great deal of talent in the Zenana which, I may mention, was never affected by the corruption that prevailed among men in certain sections of society. In fact, if proper efforts be made to spread female education, I should be absolutely confident about the results. What the supporters of the female education have

mainly to fight against is prejudice, bred of ignorance. In the city of Madras, I have observed one curious fact: thanks mainly to the Hobart School which is now solely utilised by the girls of the poorer section of the community, elementary education is making some progress among them. But if my information is correct girls of the richer classes do not receive any education worth the name. Can it be desirable that those who claim the title of Shareef should continue to deny the benefits of education to their daughters? In this matter, we cannot do better than follow the lead of the premier Mahomedan lady of India, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jehan Begum of Bhopal whose many Islamic virtues, not the least among which are her self-devotion and courage in espousing the cause of her sisters in the face of a mass of popular prejudices, should be sufficient to inspire those whose breasts are still warmed by true Mahomedan chivalry. In this connection I should also like to make mention of the munificent gift of nearly two lakhs of rupees made by Mr. Justice Syed Karamat Hussain who after a distinguished career on the Bench of the Allahabad High Court has just retired, for the advancement of female education. By his action Moulvi Karamat Hussain has not only contributed materially to the advancement of a cause which he has at heart, but the example of one, who in religious learning occupies a foremost place among the learned Moulvies of the day, should be sufficient to set at rest any doubts that may still exist in the matter of female education. If the leading Mahomedan families of the South show a disposition to educate their girls I believe the Government will be quite ready to extend a helping hand to them.

Within the few years these Conferences, and the Mahomedan Educational Association of Southern India with its various branches have been in existence, they have undoubtedly done much creditable and useful work. But the educational position of the Mahomedans in Southern India is still very deplorable. At the last examinations only one student qualified for M.A., 5 for the B.A., 1 for the L.M.S. and 7 passed the Intermediate examination. These are the figures for the whole of the South, Madras, Hyderabad, Mysore and Travancore, and they can only be described as highly miserable and discreditable to the community. I wish to draw your especial attention to the fact that only 2 Mahomedans, I believe, have yet taken a degree in the sciences, and I must express my strong conviction that there is no future before a community which is not abreast of the times in the sciences. I do not wish unduly to depreciate the value of a literary course of studies but we cannot

too soon recognise the fact that it is fast declining in the estimation of the civilized world and the time, in my opinion, is not distant when no man will be regarded as educated who does not possess a substantial knowledge of the sciences. In India especially where the resources of the country are so entirely undeveloped, scientific and technical education deserve a preponderance of attention and I would like to impress this fact upon parents and guardians of Mahomedan students who are inclined to take to the literary course simply because it demands less application and labour.

For technical education the existing provisions are of a very rudimentary character and entirely inadequate for the needs of the country. The Anjuman of Madras is the only institution of any size which has been doing useful work among the Mahomedans in this connection and thanks to the munificence of a Hindu friend of the community, we are going to have a spacious building containing a fine hall and a splendid show-room. Now if some rich and patriotic Mahomedans were to help us, we should like to improve and extend the scope of our workshop so that it might be in keeping with the new hall and the names of the donors will be permanently associated with an educational institution of considerable usefulness and possibilities.

In elementary education the Mahomedan position is considerably more hopeful in the Madras Presidency. The recent reports of the Director of Public Instruction show that the Mahomedans do not compare at all unfavourably with the other classes, but there can be little doubt that the education of the masses among us as well as in the other communities in India is in a wholly unsatisfactory state. I am sure that you fully realise that unless education permeates the masses there will be no substantial improvement in the position of Indians among the civilized nations and we shall have to consider how best we can advance the education of the masses.

Gentlemen, we cannot disguise from ourselves the fact that the task of raising the educational status of the community is one of considerable magnitude. We may however well hope to attain success if we make a combined, well-organised and sustained effort to create a wide-spread craving for education in the community, to see that adequate facilities are provided for the education of all classes of people, that the education which is provided is suitable to the needs of the country and in the case of such students as are unable to meet the cost of education, to render them the necessary pecuniary help. The last aspect of your work is

without doubt very onerous for a community so impoverished as the Mahomedans of Southern India, and it is growing more difficult day by day. While the cost of education is increasing, the wealth of the community is by no means on the increase and the purchasing power of the rupee is ever on the decline. I know that there are many families in the Madras Presidency and in Mysore whose ancestors had ruled territories and occupied the highest dignities in the State who cannot afford to give their sons even secondary education which costs only a few rupees, for sheer want of means. Still, poor as we are as a community it is possible for us by combining our resources, by practising self-denial and by our rich men properly regulating their charities to do something substantially more in this direction than what we are doing at present. I wish here to point out to the richer men of the community that there is no more deserving object of charity according to the behests of our religion than endowments for education because, as our jurists observe, its benefits to mankind multiply from day to day and the spiritual merit of the donor is consequently enhanced.

The Government of the country recognises that education of the people is one of the most important functions and it has always acted in that spirit. I believe it is also conscious that there are numerous families throughout India, the offspring of men who filled offices in the Military and Civil Departments of the State in the days of Mahomedan Rule, who have necessarily suffered most by the change of Government. Their loyalty to the British Crown is no longer open to suspicion. These families form the bulk of the upper class of society and it is their children that are naturally expected to benefit most by higher education. Many of them, as I have said, do not receive any education worth the name because of poverty. It is due to the Government to acknowledge that it is sincerely desirous that the Mahomedans should derive as much benefit from the existing system of education as the other communities and that it does make some especial effort to education of the Mahomedans. At the same time it is generally felt in the community that the Government could properly do much more to help them in the matter of education. It is for you carefully to consider what exactly the Government can do for us which it is not doing at present. Here again if you find that you have any just grievances it will depend entirely on yourselves whether they are redressed or not. It is the principle of the British Rule in India to remove any grievance which is felt by a large body of the people, provided you convince the Government of

the existence of the grievance and the necessity for redress.

Gentlemen, I do not wish to detain you any longer. We must now proceed to business. I will only ask you to remember that on the way in which you are able to deal with the question of education depends the future of the country. It may not be within your power to restore the community to anything like the same position which it occupied in the remote past but there is no reason why you should not be able to gain for it a respectable place among the civilized nations. We have an invaluable heritage; our religion has made plain for us the path of progress, let not obstinacy and prejudice blind our eyes and paralyse our wills. We all love Islam, remember its good name is at stake. I appeal to you in the name of Islam to devote yourselves heart and soul to the cause which we have met here to advance. Combine and organise your efforts; do not falter and, God willing, we shall attain our goal.

As Sayyio Minni wal intmamo Minullahi.

"Let us make efforts and it is for God to crown them with success."

UNIVERSITIES OF THE EMPIRE.

LORD ROSEBERRY'S WELCOME.

OPENING OF THE CONGRESS.

"I am confronted with a sort of quintessence of the wisdom of the ages, and the brain power of to-day." In this happy phrase Prince Arthur of Connaught, President of the General London Committee, described the Congress of the Universities of the Empire which was opened on July 2, with every man of success. It is two years since Dr. (now Sir Henry) Miers suggested to the University of London, of which he is Principal, the advisability of summoning such a Congress. The hearty response made to the invitation when issued proves how timely was the idea. More than 50 Universities are represented at the Congress, and their delegates come from every portion of the Empire in which an academic life has been established.

Lord Rosebery, in welcoming them on July 2, in the name of the University of London, of which he is Chancellor, spoke as follows:—

LORD ROSEBERRY'S SPEECH.

It is my high privilege as Chancellor of the University of London to offer a hearty welcome

to the Congress of Universities of the Empire meeting in the capital of the Empire. This is the age of Congresses—some eminently useful perhaps some eminently superfluous; but I very much doubt if in all the Congresses that have met in London there is one in reality so vitally important, so striking in its nature, making so great an appeal to the imagination of every British subject, as that which meets here to-day. From Oxford to Sydney, from Cambridge to Calcutta, from St. Andrews to Saskatchewan, and from Dublin to the Cape, we are all joining hands to-day and singing as it were in imagination "Auld langsyne" at a meeting which represents every part and region of this world-wide Empire. And I would ask you—is not this, after all, the best kind of Empire, a form of Imperialism to which not the least Englishman can object—that of co-operation in high and noble tasks, with the common sympathy, affection, and energy which would characterize the members of an immense family!

INCREASING NUMBER OF UNIVERSITIES.

The features that must strike all of us here to-day is the immense growth in number of the Universities of the Empire. Take the year 1830, a very critical year in our history and in the history of Europe, and consider what such a Congress would have been had it met at that time. If it had been an English Congress it would have been an interesting, private, confidential meeting of two representatives. Had it been confined to Great Britain it would have been a meeting of six representatives, because while England was for centuries content with two Universities, Scotland was never content with less than four. You will forgive me, I am sure, that patriotic reflection. But suppose it had been an Imperial Congress such as we have to-day it would not have consisted of more than eight representatives—that is to say, you would have taken in Dublin and the McGill University but beyond that nothing. Eighty years afterwards we come here 53 strong. May we not believe that had Daniel Webster lived to deliver his famous eulogy on the British Empire—in a small space the most eloquent that has ever been delivered, and that by an American statesman—would he not have been able to add to his famous figure of the universal drumbeat of the Empire that it was now belted round with Universities? To what is this marvellous increase due? I think we may say that it is due to an immense demand and an immense need. It is not due especially as our old Universities were, to the instinct of pious and generally ecclesiastical founders. The

development in our Universities has taken a totally different turn. Whereas formerly, had new Universities been founded, the founders would probably have chosen the sequestered solitude of some Cathedral city like Wells or Canterbury, so as to attract those youths who demanded learning, and keep them in cloister from the dangers of too free intercourse with the world, the new Universities meet the demand of great cities which require that they should be situated in their midst. Oxford and Cambridge satisfied the wants of England for centuries, and nobly they did their work, but with the increasing complication of our civilization, together with the increase of our population, our commerce, and our wealth, it was felt that those two Universities could no longer do for us what we required, and every great city seems to consider it a matter of pride and a necessary appanage of its own position that it should hold a University within its walls. I have pointed out how many Universities have been founded in the last 70 years; but in the 12 years of the 20th century which have already passed, no less than five Universities have been founded in England alone. That surely is a remarkable and striking feature of our times and that has been going on all over the Empire.

Each University represented here has its own separate task to undertake, differing probably in some one respect, at any rate, from the task of every other University. Fifty-three Universities, in a word, represent 53 problems, and though I cannot wish for a moment, as I think that every University must work out its own salvation in its own way, for any idea resembling centralization in any form or shape because centralization or federation of the Universities of the Empire would in my opinion be a poisonous idea demoralizing to them and vital to their growth and development, yet I cannot but help hoping that this Congress, when it shall have separated, will leave behind it in some shape or another some permanent channel, however slight, through which the Universities of the Empire can continue to communicate with each other when necessity shall arise, either as to methods or as to men, or to obtain hints from each other as to the best working out of their several problems.

THE EMPIRE'S NEED OF MEN.

Whatever your different tasks and problems may be, there is one need common to all of you, the great need of the age, which is the need of men. I suppose the work of Universities may

be roughly divided into three parts—the part of research, which can take its own burden so long as it is sufficiently equipped with funds, for every University will do as much research as it has money to undertake; then it has the training of the higher intelligences, who also, if they have fibre, can take care of themselves. But the great mass of students have nothing to do with either the one or the other. They are pass men wanting their degree as a stamp of their education, or else as a means of earning their bread. That, after all, is the important part of the University—they and the teachers who control them, because to form the men I am asking for you cannot appeal to any professor or any class. You cannot have a class of character or a class of morals; but you can infuse character and morals, and energy, and patriotism by the tone and atmosphere of your Universities, and of your professors. So far as you in your different Universities can fulfil that task of sending out men—I care less about their brains than their character for the purpose I am speaking of—you are rendering by far the greatest service to the Empire that any bodies within the Empire can render. I have spoken of the increase of Universities, but think of the enormous development of the requirements of the Empire as compared with what they were 70 years ago. A century ago one Prime Minister sufficed for the whole British Empire, and we had some difficulty in finding him. But now the whole Empire is dotted over with Parliaments, each requiring not merely members, incorruptible, earnest, honourable members—I do not ask so much for brains, because brains come wherever there is a career for ambition—but Ministries and Prime Ministers, who are supposed to be the most important of all. These are the requirements that have developed all over the Empire, and for which we have to find men, or more strictly speaking, you have to find them, because it is the University alone that can supply the sort of men that is required. Take again the enormous development of municipal life—again dotted all over the country—for which we require equally honourable, incorruptible, strenuous men if these municipalities are not to degenerate into something very perilous to the well-being of the State. Where are we to get the men for these purposes if not from you? I sometimes wonder if the Universities sufficiently recognize the function that they have to discharge for the Empire, in furnishing it with men to carry on its work. If you fail in that—I will not say you are of no use to us, but you are not

discharging the functions which under Providence, you were meant to discharge. I think Australia enjoys the privilege of no less than seven Parliaments, with a population not above half that of Greater London. It has seven Parliaments, seven Ministries, seven Prime Ministers. Well, that represents a drain on the intelligence and the vitality of the Australian nation which can only be adequately met if the Universities of that country do their duty. Let me add this one sentence which appeals to us as well as to those outside these islands. This Empire is becoming increasingly difficult to maintain. Before the great rush and competition of nations took place it was comparatively easy. We simply spread ourselves as it were involuntarily all over the globe. But no one who observes the signs of the times can fail to see it will be increasingly difficult to maintain this Empire in its entirety and its cohesion without an intensity of character and devotion which it must be the task of the Universities pre-eminently to maintain.

A GREAT MOVEMENT OF UNREST.

And I would add a further plea to you who are to supply the men of whom I think we have need. It is not only the Empire but it is the world itself which has need of all the character, all the honesty and all the ability which it contains developed or undeveloped, to carry it on without the danger of anarchy and chaos. I do not think that any intelligent observer can watch the course of the world without seeing that a great movement of unrest is passing over it. Whether for good or for evil—I cannot doubt for good—it is affecting not merely England and the Empire, but it is affecting the entire universe. After centuries of deadness it is affecting the East and the Ottoman Empire is apparently in the throes of preparation for some new development. More striking even than that, it has touched the dormant millions of China, which, for the first time in its history, appears likely to take a new start and a new development, a new progress to some ideal which we ourselves are incapable of defining. Is not the whole world in the throes of a travail to produce something—something new to us, something perhaps new to history, something perhaps better than anything we have yet known, which it may take long to perfect or to achieve, but which at any rate means a new evolution? For the purpose of guiding that movement, for the purpose of letting it proceed on safe lines that will not lead to shipwreck, we need all the men that the Universities can give us—not merely the higher intelligences that I have spoken of but also men right through the frame-work of

society, from the highest to the lowest, whose character and virtues can influence and inspire others. I am looking to-day at the Universities simply as machines for producing men—the best kind of men who might help to preserve our Empire and even the universe itself from the grave conditions under which we seem likely to labour. I hope you will forgive me for taking this narrower and yet broader view of University functions than that which it is usual to take. It is in that spirit and in the hope that the Universities of the Empire will not be insensible to that spirit and the high responsibility which is cast upon them that I bid god-speed to the labours of this Congress.

The Congress then proceeded to discuss the subjects on its programme, its deliberations being confined on this, the first day, to a morning sitting.

GOVERNMENT LUNCHEON.

Lord Beauchamp presided at the luncheon which was given to the delegates by the Government at the Savoy Hotel. The other members of the Cabinet present were Sir Edward Grey, Mr. Lewis Harcourt, Mr. Herbert Samuel, Mr. J. A. Pease, Mr. McKinnon Wood, and Mr. C. E. Hobhouse.

Among those who had accepted invitations were Prince Arthur of Connaught, Lord Rosebery, Lord Curzon of Kedleston, Lord Strathcona, the Duke of Norfolk, Sir Oliver Lodge, Lord Reay, Sir Henry Miers, Sir Donald Macalister, Lord Avebury, Sir T. H. Holland, Sir Frederick Lugard, Lord MacDonnell, Sir Charles Lyall, Sir Richard Solomon, Lord Shuttleworth, Lord Iveagh, the Bishop of Bath and Wells, and Dr. Hill (Secretary of the Congress).

Prince Arthur of Connaught, in replying to the second Royal toast, said he had seldom spoken with greater diffidence, feeling as he did that in this august assembly he was confronted with a sort of quintessence of the wisdom of the ages and the brain-power of to-day in the persons of the delegates of so many seats of learning, scattered throughout the vast Empire, with which as Englishmen they were privileged to claim kindred. It seemed to him a very remarkable object lesson in the vitality of the Imperial ideal that, though the twentieth century had but lately passed its first decade such an assemblage as the present should be possible. The Royal Family, whom he had the honour to represent that day, had shown its appreciation of a University training

by giving the Heir to the Throne the opportunity of sharing it for the last two generations, and a University course was contemplated for the Prince of Wales.

MR. HARCOURT ON THE NEWER LEARNING.

Mr. Harcourt proposed the toast of "The Congress." He said it was not his duty and it would not be within his capacity to speak to them on University culture. His duty was only to offer a welcome on behalf of the Government to the representatives of the Universities of the Empire. They had brought to our shores a representation so brilliant as to dazzle the staid students of the old home. In his capacity as Secretary for the Colonies his interest was profound in their success. Bacon said, "Knowledge is power"; if so, the seats of learning were the seats of the mighty. The largest and the smallest, the youngest and the oldest, were gathered in London that day, putting their minds into a common stock for the attainment of a much desired co-operation. The Universities of India, the Dominions and the Colonies were the first and finest products of an intellectual empire. They were the training ground of those who would carry on our traditions, who would improve upon our methods, who would study our history and govern our lands when we were in our graves. They knew no politics at these tables, but he might trench upon its vocabulary without offence if he said that while they were all Free-traders in students and teachers they were at the same time anxious to show Imperial Preference in educational reciprocity. For the completion of such reciprocity it had been suggested that they required a greater uniformity of the tests of entrance to their Universities, which might lead to the great goal of the equality of opportunity.

Specialization came to be scoffed at, but it had come to stay. The strain of the world's work left neither time nor space for the creation of a universal genius, and probably the Admirable Crichton of the twentieth century would be the man who could do one thing admirably well. He might write a history, or construct an aeroplane, he might cure disease or he might produce synthetic rubber, but if he dabbled in them all he was doomed. Specialization in such an Empire as ours was the natural result of special circumstances and of peculiar conditions. There was a fascinating chapter in Green's "History of the English People" in which he pointed out how the renaissance or the new learning was partly the result of contact with

a great new land. Parts of Moore's Utopia might well have been the prophetic vision of some of our Dominions beyond the seas. The people of these great new lands, with their material developments and the discoveries of science, had in their turn produced a newer learning. It would not be unjust to say to-day that the exigencies of the case and the local circumstances had substituted for the purely literary student the masters of applied science. A wide-flowing Empire like ours could only be maintained and kept in touch by the triumph of the engineer and the attainment of medicine. The newer learning had no apology to make for its divergence from the older system and culture had no cause to cavil at the laurels of its younger sons. In deep admiration of the energy and the splendour of their present attainment and their future promise he gave the toast of "The Universities of the Empire."

Lord Rosebery in a brief speech thanked the Government for their magnificent hospitality.

Principal Peterson also replied to the toast.

Receptions were held in the afternoon by the Committee of the London School of Medicine for Women, and by the Victoria League. In the evening Prince Arthur of Connaught received the delegates at the University of London, where a *conversazione* was held.

TRAINING OF THE PUBLIC SERVICES.

At the Congress of the Universities of the Empire on July 3, the chief appointed subjects of discussion were introduced in two brief but suggestive addresses by Lord Curzon of Kedleston and Mr. Balfour, who presided over the morning and afternoon sessions.

INFLUENCE OF THE OLDER UNIVERSITIES.

Lord Curzon of Kedleston, in opening the morning session, said in the public welcome which was given to the Congress on Tuesday the University of Oxford, for which he spoke, begged leave to join. The most ancient and perhaps the most illustrious of extant Universities was not one whit behind any of her compeers in the enthusiasm with which she greeted the birth of younger academic societies, some of whom might almost be said to have sprung from her own loins. Oxford recognized in that vigorous progeny fellow-workers in the same prolific field, co-partners in the same high cause. Some of those who came from distant lands might perhaps think that our older Universities looked with some tinge of jealousy or suspicion upon the type of University which was springing up in Leeds and Sheffield, Liverpool and

Manchester, Birmingham and Bristol. He assured them that such a belief would be wholly without foundation. The field was too wide to be covered by any one institution, or even group of institutions. If those were their sentiments towards the younger British Universities, they contemplated with feelings not less warm the efforts of those who were engaged in creating and maintaining the same standards in the overseas Dominions of the Crown, and who, they would fain believe, regarded such institutions as Oxford and Cambridge, not as venerable relics of an obsolete past, but as sanctuaries of a spirit that never died, but breathed in the bodies and burned in the veins of their overseas guests just as in theirs.

In the technological training that was required for many industries, Oxford did not attempt to compete. Those needs were better provided for in the newer and younger Universities. But there were certain professions in the preparation for which the parent desired that his son should acquire not merely the technical knowledge necessary for his career but also that breadth of mind and humanization of character that should enable him to grapple with the problems of life and deal with men. Finding that business men were increasingly turning to Oxford, because they wanted character and stability and what was known as a gentleman's education in the young men who entered their employ that University was about to frame a curriculum with direct reference to a mercantile career. But never, he hoped, would the day come when Oxford would cease to give that liberal culture, that training of the mind and that developed capacity for affairs which sprang from the study of the history and literature and philosophy of the past, and was attuned to practical and strenuous ends by the influence of a society at once chivalrous and democratic, of a system of tuition at once free and intimate, and of associations and buildings at once venerable and inspiring. Those were the priceless possessions of the older Universities, which, he believed, were as dear to the exiled teacher or the youthful student in Vancouver or Hong-kong as they were to the most indurated don in the sequestered shades of an Oxford garden.

The feeling existed and had been to some extent responsible for the recent appointment of the Royal Commission now sitting to deal with the subject, that the older Universities had too great a monopoly of the public services and that the newer institutions should furnish more men. He was confident that Oxford would grudge no such extension of opportunity. But as one who had adminis-

tered great territories and been for a time the head of the most efficient civil service in the world, he believed that in the college system as it existed in the older Universities and in the life and teaching of those institutions as a whole were to be found the best guarantees for that character which, in the conduct of government and the daily business of administration, particularly in distant lands, was more precious than rubies and more potent than regiments of armed men. The future would, he firmly believed, bring the older Universities into closer contact with the younger; and in the more systematic but still elastic organization of educational effort which would spring from the labours of Congresses such as that, he cherished the hope that the eyes of the young and vigorous institutions, who, a century hence, would be numbered not by tens but by hundreds in every part of the Empire, would still look upwards to the old and famous and God-fearing Universities of the mother country as unto the hills, whence cometh their help.

MR. BALFOUR ON ORIENTAL UNIVERSITIES.

Mr. Balfour, presiding at the afternoon sitting, said the nature of the difficulty with which it was specially proposed to deal that afternoon would become apparent to everybody who put aside our ordinary current form of speech and remembered, what every one of them knew, that education was something much more than intellectual training or the acquisition of useful knowledge. It dealt also with the training of the whole man. They were allowed to forget this with relative impunity in Western Universities, because, in fact, the general training of the young was only in part carried out by the official teacher. In this country they knew that the most important part of their training at the school or University was due to the collision of minds between the boys or the undergraduates. They did not have it brought home to them here with the same insistence that it was brought home to the teachers in Oriental Universities, that there was and must be a collision—not an irreconcilable collision—between the growth of scientific knowledge in all its branches and the traditions, beliefs, customs, which after all, were the great moulding forces of social man. In the West the changes of knowledge and the changes of tradition had gone on by relatively small degrees. There had been in every case mutual adjustment; and the difficulties were hardly to be mentioned with those which necessarily came upon them when they brought in upon a society, unprepared with the long training they had gone through, generation after generation, the full stress and weight of modern scientific, critical, and indus-

trial knowledge. He did not know that anybody, whatever his views might be upon education at large, on the function which spiritual ideals and ancient custom had upon that training, was likely to underrate the violence of the effect which this sudden contrast must produce upon an ancient and a civilized country. This modern knowledge, remember, was not a thing which could be ignored or neglected by the East, for it came to them with all the enormous prestige which naturally resulted from great material successes. How, then, were they going to diminish the shock which this sudden invasion of a wholly alien learning must have upon the cultured society of the East? Any catastrophic change in the environment of an organism was about to inflict great injury upon the organism, even perhaps to destroy it altogether. On the other hand, if the change, however great, were gradual, if the organism was given an opportunity of making its own changes in correspondence with that change of environment, there was no reason why it should not flourish as greatly in the new as it did in the old surroundings. Here they were forced, however, to be catastrophic. It was impossible to graft by a gradual process, in the East, what we had got to by a gradual process in the West, which was suddenly carried full-fledged, unchanged, and planted down as it were, in these new surroundings. He did not profess even to suggest a solution of the problem; but there were certain methods which might be indicated that afternoon of mitigating dangers and difficulties inevitably incidental to what in the main would, he hoped, prove to be a great and beneficial revolution, but which in its inception and some of its incidental and accompanying characteristics was not without danger to some of the best and highest interests of the great Oriental races.

SECULAR EDUCATION IN THE EAST.

Sir Frederick Lugard, Chancellor of the University of Hongkong, considered the problem of the education of Orientals, which was recently stated in the following terms by the *Times*:—"Can

Western education divorced from all religious teaching supply a code of morality to take the place of the ancient indigenous codes of which a purely secular education tends to sap the inherited religious basis?" In opening the University of Hongkong they had to consider whether it was possible to obtain the powerful aid which religious sanctions give—operating on the spiritual and emotional side of a young man's nature—without any form of compulsion. They proposed to meet that difficulty by allowing religious bodies to establish hostels, with facilities for teaching the Christian or other religions; by bringing the best influences to bear on the remaining students; and by carefully selecting the text-books, &c., so as to hold up the example of the lives of great men, whether of Eastern or Western origin, as models of high standards of life and high ideals. But he personally believed that even these precautions were but palliatives, and that what was required was that those who were engaged in the teaching of Orientals should adapt their methods to the requirements of the East instead of attempting to foist upon the East a system identical with that which in the West had by the process of natural evolution proved its adaptability to the particular circumstances of the West.

Sir Theodore Morison, Member of the Council of India, said the much-abused secular education in India especially on the moral side, had not been a failure at all; on the contrary it had been a splendid success. It was universally acknowledged that it was English education which had freed public service from corruption, and immensely raised the standard of honesty in professional life. The proof of that was to be found in the great movements of social reform which were transforming and elevating the whole of Indian society.

A paper on the same subject was read by Dr. J. C. R. Ewing, Vice-Chancellor of the Punjab University; and the other speakers included Sir Thomas Raleigh, Member of the Council of India, the Hon. Devaparasad Sarvadhikary (Calcutta University), and the Rev. J. M. Russell (Madras University).

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Lord Morley on the Teaching of Political Science.

Quite the best thing that has been published in the papers for a pretty long time is the scholarly and illuminating address delivered by Lord Morley at Manchester University on History and Politics and Democracy. The portion of the address dealing with "The Teaching of Political Science" is given below.

To-night is not the time for discussing whether there is such a thing as political science. I need not try, for the work has been incomparably well done for our purposes in Sir Frederick Pollock's short volume on the History of the Science of Politics. Is there any true analogy between the body politic and the body natural; are the methods and processes of politics to be brought within sight of the method and processes of biology? The politician may borrow phrases from the biologist, and talk of embryos, germs, organisms, but surely those are right who insist that we have not come near to the definite erection of an inductive political science. That is certainly no reason why either the politician should not reason, or the historian should not explore, say, with the methodical energy, caution, conscience, candour, and determined love of truth that marked Darwin and the heroes of the natural sciences. Political science suffers from the same defect as political economy in the earlier part of the nineteenth century. There is a certain rarefaction in the atmosphere. The political man wears the same artificial character as the economic man. Ethical considerations pass for so much friction. Matters are too much confined to description of political mechanics. The propositions are too mechanical and too elaborate, and too little account is made of ministering to the progress of society. The growth and direction of new opinion, the effectiveness of political institutions in giving expression to new opinion, are treated as secondary, or are not treated at all,

The lines laid down by my friend, Professor Dicey in his book on 'The Relation between Law and Opinion in the Nineteenth Century' deserve to be followed, and they are sure to be. The science so conceived will realise that the value of political forms is to be measured by what they do. They must express and answer the mind and purposes of a State in their amplest bearings. I hope all this is not ungrateful to a group of writers in this country, who in the last few years have filled a truly important book-shelf in any library pretending to be on the highest level in this truly important sphere—with Green, Pollock, Dicey, Hobhouse, Bosanquet, Wallas, among them. Let nobody suppose that speculations as to the State and its various relations to the individual are immaterial. It is held that the attempt of certain French teachers to present German theories of the State in French dress are directly responsible for Syndicalism in France. I venture to believe that here is the field for a new course, and an extra chair in your splendid list. I mean a chair that would set an example of accurate use of terms in great national affairs and relations; of a systematical inquiry into historical origins of contemporary cases; of the commonplace, but neglected, truth that it does not follow that if only people enough hold an opinion, it must therefore be both true and apt; of coherence and classification in our survey and treatment of political problems. If I had the privilege of adding a new chair, it should be a chair of politics. Politics, in the sense that I am suggesting, is different from law, because law tends to stereotype thought by forcing it into fixed categories, but political science, rightly handled, is for ever re-opening these categories to examine how they answer to contemporary facts. Political science is wider than law, because its work may be said to begin where law ends. It is less wide than sociology, because it starts from the assumption of the State with all its rights, powers, and duties.

Mr. Hardy on Literature. A Plea for Pure English

Mr. Henry Newbolt and Mr. W. B. Yeats, who were staying with him at Max Gate, Dorchester, for the occasion, presented Mr. Thomas Hardy on June 2, the 72nd anniversary of his birth, with the gold medal of the Royal Society of Literature, recently awarded to him upon the recommendation of the Academic Committee. They reminded him, in making the presentation, that among the principal duties enjoined upon the Society by the Charter of 1823, and now entrusted to the Academic Committee, was the encouragement and recognition of literature by public awards, and that the gold medal, the highest of these awards, has been bestowed upon some 15 recipients in all, among them being Walter Scott, Robert Southey, Washington Irving, and George Meredith.

Mr. Hardy replied as follows:—

In thanking the Royal Society of Literature and its Academic Committee very warmly for this interesting and valuable gift I need hardly say that the offer of it came quite as a surprise to myself, of which the Committee will be aware. I am, to be sure, rather an old boy to receive a medal, and am particularly unfortunate in having no younger boy to whom I can hand it on; so that, without undervaluing the receipt of it—rather, indeed, because I value it so highly—I have been thinking whether prizes of some kind could not be offered by the Society to makers of literature earlier in life to urge them to further efforts.

There is no doubt that any sort of incentive to the cultivation and production of pure literature is of immense value in these latter days, and awards by the Royal Society of Literature should be among the strongest. An appreciation of what is real literature, and efforts to keep real literature alive, have, in truth, become imperative, if the taste for it is not to be entirely lost, and, with the loss of that taste, its longer life in the English language. While millions have lately been learning to read, few of them have been learning to discriminate; and the result is an appalling increase every day in slipshod writing that would not have been tolerated for one moment a hundred years ago.

I do not quite like to say so, but I fear that the vast increase of hurried descriptive reporting in

the newspapers is largely responsible for this in England; writing done by men, and still more by women, who are utterly incapable of, and unconscious of, that 'grin of delight' which, William Morris assured us, comes over the real artist either in letters or in other forms of art at a close approximation to, if not an extent achievement of, his ideal. Then the increasing influx of American journals, fearfully and wonderfully worded, helps on the indifference to literary form. Their influence has been strongly apparent of late years in our English newspapers, where one often now meets with headlines in staring capitals that are phrases of no language whatever, and often incomprehensible at a casual glance. Every kind of reward, prize, or grant, therefore, which urges omnivorous readers and incipient writers towards appreciating the splendours of English undefiled, and the desire of producing such for themselves, is of immense value.

For my own part I think—though all writers may not agree with me—that the shortest way to good prose is by the route of good verse. The apparent paradox—I cannot remember who first expressed it—that the best poetry is the best prose ceases on examination to be a paradox and becomes a truism. Anybody may test it for himself by taking any fine lines in verse and casting off the fetters of metre and rhyme that seem to bind the poet trying to express the same ideas more freely and accurately in prose. He will find that it cannot be done; the words of the verse—fettered as he thought them—are the only words that will convey the ideas that were intended to be conveyed.

I know that it is said in Fleet-Street that poetry is dead. But this only means that it is dead in Fleet-Street. Poetry itself cannot die, as George Sand once eloquently wrote in her novel called 'Andre.' I cannot do better than wind up these rambling remarks with some of her words on this question:—'Poesy cannot die. Should she find for refuge but the brain of a single man she would yet have centuries of life, for she would leap out of it like the lava from Vesuvius and mark out a way for herself among the most prosaic realities. Despite her overturned temples and the false gods adored among their ruins, she is immortal as the perfume of the flowers and the splendour of the skies.'

Sir W. Ramsay on True Education.

Lord Reay, Chairman of the College Committee, presided on July 3, at the Assembly of Faculties of the University of London, University College.

Sir William Ramsay, having presented the prize awards, delivered an address in the course of which he referred with approval to lectures as a means of giving instruction. But the lecture must not degenerate into class drill. Places like that college were really institutions where young men and young ladies could learn to teach themselves.

His experience at University College had taught him that most of his students had a considerable share of originality. This was commoner in men than in women who were rarely inventive. But it was easily stifled, and he regretted to say that for some years past much more attention had been paid to examinations than used to be the case, with the result that many of the men and women now leaving them were destined to lead melancholy lives of routine without interest or without stimulus. Most people preferred to lead a life of routine to one of adventure. This was, perhaps, fortunate, for they needed hewers of wood and drawers of water in much larger numbers than thinkers. He regretted to say that this class of people were more numerous in the chemical department than used to be the case. University College should not exist for the mechanical training of such people. They could be served elsewhere. The reason for this increase consisted in the alterations recently introduced in the regulations for examination by the University. The work was now delegated more and more to the external examiners. These were overworked to such an extent that it was difficult to get the best men to apply for such posts. The only value of a degree consisted in the eminence of the men who bestowed it, and when neither the examiners who tested the powers of the students nor the members of the supreme body of the University could claim distinction, the degree was of little value. If students would only realize that a degree and testimonial were by nature the same, and that their prospects in the future were connected more intimately with the approval or disapproval of their teachers, more care would be taken to secure the approbation of the teacher and less to obtain the formal and even less valuable external stamp.

Long Life ; Facts About Great Thinkers.

It is said that persons of superior brain-power are not destined to length of days, yet the longevity of statesmen has been so remarkable that during the last half-century or so it has been said with truth that the world is governed by old men.

For the poet it has been said that the fatal age is thirty-seven. This seems to be founded on nothing more solid than the fact that Byron and Burns died at that age.

Leopardi died at thirty-nine, Shelly at twenty-nine, and Keats at twenty-five.

Before he was forty Alfred de Musset was, according to Heine's bitter gibe, a young man with a great future behind him.

Heine's own life after forty-seven was spent in what he called his mattress grave. Shakespeare died at fifty-two, but his creative life had ceased some years before.

Goethe, on the other hand, lived to eighty-two in the full possession of his faculties. He was a man of powerful physique, and, though he ate and drank and did other things in anything but moderation, and in fact, was supposed to be doomed to an early death in his youth, he continued eating and drinking and high-thinking almost to the end.

Victor Hugo died at eighty-three. Yet poets as a class are not long-lived.

ARTISTS AND SCIENTISTS.

On the other hand, painters are long-lived, as pointed out by Hazlitt in a well-known essay. Michael Angelo was ninety-two, Titian ninety-nine, and there are many other instances.

Men of science, too, whose life is spent, to use Newton's phrase, 'intending' their minds on problems in the solution of which disturbing influences are deliberately put aside, have a high average of longevity, says the *British Medical Journal*.

Experience proves that errors in diet, not to speak of other things, clog the delicate machinery of the brain and disturb its working.

The plain life, which is one of the necessary conditions of high-thinking, in itself promotes longevity. The man with a powerful brain is likely to have a corresponding vitality in his other organs. He is, in fact, better equipped than his fellows for the race of life.

Men of great intellect, if they start in life with a good family history, are more likely to live long than the common run of men. Freedom from care is an incalculable help, not only to longevity, but to the achievements by which a man writes his foot-steps on the sands of time.

Sir Valentine Chirol on Indian History.

A meeting was held under the auspices of the Indian Society in Emerson Club under the presidency of Professor Bose which was influential and well-attended. Sir Valentine Chirol of the "Indian Unrest" read a paper on "Indian History." He laid down at the outset that the people of India never possessed any critical knowledge to write history and that all the information regarding the history of Ancient India was mainly gathered from foreign and alien sources. He thought that the only credentials on which to base any historical knowledge of India were those supplied by Magasthenes, the Ambassador of Seleucus. Asoka, one of India's most brilliant Emperors was mainly known through Magasthenes. Even these historical credentials supplied by European historians or Arabian and Portuguese travellers and writers were to be re-edited and corrected to make them readable by English historians like A. Vincent Smith, Elphinstone and Grand Doff. Finally he thought that India owed a deep debt of gratitude for these historians, as otherwise, the history of India would have been thoroughly lost to posterity.

Dr. Ananda K. Coomaraswamy differed from the learned lecturer and said that if Indians did not possess any critical knowledge of history-writing they certainly did possess the full and thorough knowledge of philosophy-writing. He thought that there were different channels through which the prosperity of a country invariably followed and out of these philosophy was not the least remarkable. Historical evidences were as good as philosophical evidences and a nation which could develop the latter to highest perfection could not possibly lack in the development of the former. As a Ceylonese he considered himself an Indian and he could bring forward in support of his theory the numerous historical evidences as obtaining in Ceylon which exclusively deal with a long connection of rulers and administrators

for over 2000 years. Besides he thought that the Buddhistic records, as obtainable in every part of India, clearly and lucidly describe the period of Asoka, who was known in them as Priyadasin.

Tbukur Shri Jessrajsinghji Seesodia, Editor of the "Rajput Herald" next cited numerous historical evidences, to show that history did exist and there were several Indian historians. He regretted very much the disagreeable fact that modern University students were more or less alienated from Indian historical sources and considered it his privilege not to have been a University scholar. He criticised the authority of Sir Valentine Chirol in tracing the knowledge on Asoka to Magasthenes as the Thakur Shri held that such an evidence could not exist in the face of things. He pointed out clearly how Magasthenes visited India in the period of Chandra Gupta, who was Asoka's grandfather. As Magasthenes retired from India in the lifetime of Chandra Gupta and as it was impossible for him to have written the history of Chandra Gupta's grandson who was not even born when the great Greek historian was there, he felt sorry that Sir Valentine Chirol should have been so poorly informed on historical matters. Again, he challenged Sir Valentine Chirol in his assertion that India was known through Arabian and Portuguese sources and refuted the statement that Vizianagram was similarly known. He pointed out that the kingdom of Vizianagram had numerous historical records and the historical books composed by Madhava Sahinya the noted commentator on the Vedas, were monumental works of history of which any country could well be proud. There was another famous historical book called "Narasabhapalya" written by Bhattamurti. He cited similar other historical references written in Telugu and Canarese. Arthashastra or Kouthalya Nithi of the celebrated Chanakya, the Machiavelli of his day, who placed Chandra Gupta on the throne and codified laws and legislations, were other books he referred to in the course of his fervent speech,

State Education in India.

The "Times of India" on 'The Government and Mr. Gokhale's Bill.'

In the course of an interesting article upon the paper on "Compulsory Education for India in the Light of Western Experience," which was recently read by Sir Roland Wilson before the East India Association, the "Times of India" writes :—

Whatever the religious, the political, and the financial difficulties may be of State education, we are pledged to face them, and the fact that Mr. Gokhale's Bill has been rejected does not diminish our responsibility in the least. Let there be no mistake on this fundamental issue. It was not Mr. Gokhale and his supporters who would have forced this responsibility upon Government. Government have, of their own accord, assumed the responsibility, and Mr. Gokhale's Bill really offered to share the responsibility, political and financial, under conditions which made precipitate action in defiance of Government altogether impossible.

Apart from the merits of the Bill, which were by no means few or trivial, we were attracted to it by this feature of it. The highest officials have repeatedly appealed for the co-operation of educated Indians, and here was a recognised Indian leader bringing forward a measure, the principle of which, if there was a principle discernible in it, was co-operation between the Educational Departments of the several local Governments and the institutions of local self-government. A section of Mr. Gokhale's own countrymen, it may interest Sir Roland Wilson and those who think like him to know, opposed the Bill on the ground that it proposed to relieve Government of what should be wholly an Imperial responsibility. We had ourselves suggested some improvements in the draft Bill, one of which its author afterwards adopted—namely, the omission of the clause restricting remission of fees to children of parents whose monthly in-

come was less than ten rupees. There were doubtless other details capable of improvement. But the Bill was emphatically not open to criticism on the ground of introducing any revolutionary principle or of seeking to saddle the administration with burdens which it had never contemplated as within its sphere. As we have said before, the Bill, if it had been passed, would not have materially accelerated the pace of educational expansion. The obstacles in the way will not be removed by the formality of placing a law on the Statute-Book. What it might have done is to educate public opinion in the country and prepare it for the introduction of a system which is inevitable, such as that prevailing in most other countries with settled and enlightened Governments.

Mass education has no doubt produced some unexpected effects in some countries where it has been adopted, but the only remedy for them is not less but more and better education. That illiteracy is to be preferred to imperfect education is a proposition which no practical administrator would accept in these days. The Government of Bombay, who were not in sympathy with Mr. Gokhale's Bill, had declared in so many words that the great problem of education is how to reduce the dense mass of illiteracy in the country. Our endeavours to raise the condition of the masses in almost every direction are obstructed and frustrated by this deplorable circumstance. The question will be brought up again at no distant date, and, what is more, we have good reason to think that the Government of India are themselves quite as anxious as Mr. Gokhale to hasten the day which Sir Roland Wilson so much dreads.

Simplified Spelling, by Mark Hunter, M.A.

Mr. Mark Hunter, M.A., Professor of English, Presidency College, Madras, delivered an interesting lecture on *Simplified Spelling* in the Kellett Hall, Triplicane, the Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A., Ag. Principal, Madras Christian College, presiding.

He said that the movement started by the Spelling Reform Society was a living one and it aimed at the immense saving of time for future generations of students who would learn to speak and write English. Many eminent men were unanimous in holding the opinion that spelling reform was an urgent necessity. Language was one thing and spelling was another. It was not their purpose to change the English language. English language was a noble thing and its spelling was a detestable one. Good pronunciation would result from good spelling. If teachers would teach spelling according to phonetic harmony then the students would be enabled to form correct ideas of spelling and their pronunciation would be clear and correct. The true function of orthography was to represent correctly the spoken sounds of language. The objections raised to spelling reform on etymological grounds were baseless and expert etymologists cherished no such objections. Chaucer's spelling represented accurately the sound of words in his time. Present spelling could tell them next to nothing. It was neither simple nor phonetic. Simple spelling was a thing quite different from phonetic spelling. Simple spelling was not so elaborate and complex or phonetic spelling. Their aim was to secure simple spelling. In English spelling at the present day, there was neither system nor reason. Different symbols were used to represent the 'sh' sound, for example, in different words such as shape, caution, sure, passion, luxury, etc. English language was admirable because it had simple grammar and rich vocabulary but English spelling was very ridiculous. Spelling reform method was very simple. It could be learnt in half an hour. It was very easily read. The new system should be based on the old. There was no radical change aimed at. The new change contemplated only a rational modification of the present one. The lecturer then appealed to the audience to join the Spelling Reform Society and pay the small member subscription of annas five a month or the associate subscription of one anna per month and advance the cause of the Society and thus enable future generations of English learning students to save time, avoid suffering, and lay the foundation of reason.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

University Lectures.

It is notified in the *Fort St. George Gazette* that, with reference to the University Lectures under Regulation 394 sanctioned by the Senate for the academic year, 1912-13, a course of 20 lectures on "The Elizabethan Drama with special reference to set plays" are to be delivered by Mr. J. H. Mackintosh, M.A., at the Presidency College during the first term of the year commencing on Thursday the 11th July, 1912. The days and hours for the delivery of each lecture will be Tuesdays 2 to 3 P.M., and Thursdays 3 to 4 P.M. The lectures will be open to any student who is taking an Honours Course in any college affiliated to the University, on the recommendation of his college authorities. No fee will be charged for attending the course of lectures, but a student should not attend the course till he has paid the usual fee to his college for the term. The lectures will also be open to graduates of the University who wish to engage in post-graduate study and research on payment to the University of Rs. 50 per course per term, and with the sanction of the lecturer appointed. Post-graduate students who are members of a college will not be required to pay this fee.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Influx of Students in Calcutta.

So great has been the influx of students in Calcutta this season that the University has relaxed the regulation which provides that there shall be only 150 students in a class. Colleges which apply are granted permission to have 200 students per class and eight out of twelve affiliated institutions have applied and received permission. Even so there have been many more applications than places could be found for, and many students have had to be rejected.

Appointment of University Lecturers.

A meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held at the Senate House, College Square, with the Hon'ble Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor, in the chair. There was a fair attendance of Fellows. The Senate, accepting the recommendation of the Syndicate, resolved to move the Government of India to sanction the appointment of the undermentioned gentlemen as University Lecturers in the subject noted against the name of each, for a term of two years with effect from the Session of 1912-13 :—

Pandit Bhimsen Sarma, Sanskrit (Vedas).

Ramdas Khan, Esq., M.A., Mental and Moral Philosophy. Pandit Tarapasanna Vidyaratna, Sanskrit. Pandit Prasannakumar Tarkanidhi, Sanskrit. Pandit Sitikantha Vachaspati, Sanskrit. Pandit Muraridhas Banerjee, M.A., Sanskrit. Pandit Asutosh Sastri, M.A., Sanskrit. Babu Rakhaldas Banerjee, M.A., Epigraphy (Sanskrit and Pali). Mr. A. Rasul, M.A., B.C.L., International Law. Mr. S. Khoda Bux, M.A., History of Islam. Mr. N. N. Gupta, M.A., Constitutional History. Mr. K. P. Jayaswal, B.A., Ancient Indian History. Mr. M. N. Basu, M.A., Comparative Politics. Mr. M. A. Hafiz, B.A., Economic History. Babu Subodhchandra Mukerjee, M.A., History. Mr. S. C. Williams, B.A., Economics.

A famous gift to the Calcutta University.

At a meeting of the University Senate it was stated that Mr. Taraknath Palit had made over to the University, property worth over seven lakhs of Rupees for the foundation of two Professorships, one of Chemistry and the other of Physics, and for the establishment of a University laboratory. The gift is composed of twelve bighas of land and a building valued at 2½ lakhs and about 4 lakhs 60 thousand rupees in cash, and in land. The University will supplement the gift by 7½ lakhs from the reserve fund, and with a total of 9½ lakhs are in a position to take the first step towards the foundation of a University College of Science and Technology, which will mark an era in the history of education in India.

Sir Ashutosh moved that the donation be accepted with thanks, on the terms mentioned in the Trust Deed, that two Professorships to be called the Taraknath Palit Professorships of Chemistry and Physics, respectively, be instituted, and that on the land given to the University, a laboratory be erected to be called the Taraknath Palit Laboratory.

The Resolution was adopted.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

New Allahabad University Building.

The total subscriptions for the new Allahabad University buildings amount up to date to nearly eight lakhs and sixty thousand. The buildings are a magnificent pile designed by Sir Swinton Jacob and will be opened by the Lieutenant-Governor on the 3rd August.

Success of Lady Candidates.

Anglo-Indian lady candidates have gained remarkable successes at the recent Allahabad University examinations. Government M. A. scholarships have been awarded to Miss Blanche

Guise Woodstock, Mussoorie, Miss Olive Harris Thoburn College, Lucknow, Miss Josephine Bridges, Muir College, Allahabad, and Mrs. Irene Butcher, teacher, Lucknow, the ladies thus carrying off four out of the five scholarships awarded, the only other scholarship going to a Muhammadan student from Aligarh.

The collegiate scholarships on the results of the Intermediate examination have been awarded to Miss Violet Twells Woodstock, Mussoorie, and Miss Muriel Munro, All Saints, Naini Tal.

Out of twelve B. A. scholarships, one has been secured by Miss Rose Hyder, Allahabad, and one by Terence Hog, Naini Tal, the only distinction gained by a boy.

PUNJAB UNIVERSITY.

The Punjab University has given a prize of Rs. 500 to Pandit Raja Ram, Professor, D. A. V. College, Lahore, for his Hindi translation of Valmiki's Ramayana. Another prize of Rs 200 has been given by the Punjab Government for the same book.

THE HINDU UNIVERSITY.

A Munificent Gift.

We learn that H. H. the Maharajah of Kashmir has made to the Hindu University a gift representing a capital value of three and a half lakhs of rupees.

More Big Donations.

The Maharajah of Indore has subscribed five lakhs to the Hindu University Scheme and the Maharajah of Gwalior has donated the same amount. The total collection from the Gwalior, Indore, and Kashmir Durbars amount to fourteen lakhs.

THE MYSORE UNIVERSITY.

The idea of having a University for Mysore has been brewing for some time and the question was publicly discussed and brought forward before the Representative Assembly of the year 1910 and Mr. A. Ramanna, the leading Advocate of Mysore and an ex-elected member of the local Legislative Council moved the proposition, with a lengthy paper, in the course of which, he most effectively put forward the disabilities of the students of the Mysore schools. The subject was discussed at great length and Mr M. Venkatakrishnayya, the veteran educationist, also lent his support. The question was voted for consideration, with the remark from the Councillor-in-charge of the Educational portfolio that a local University may not

command respect. The Economic Conference took up the subject with much enthusiasm. It may perhaps be conceded that it is premature to start a University in Mysore. But the time has arrived to make an attempt to lay the foundations of a University for Mysore. There are now two First Grade colleges in which almost all the branches of study prescribed by the University are studied. The few studies that are now wanting may also be soon provided.

At present Mysore has to depend solely on the Madras University where it is not represented; there are one or two Fellows there now but their influence is almost nothing in the direction of the affairs of the University. That is a great disadvantage and some amelioration is considered necessary.

The new regulations of the University afford ample scope for some independent action. The system of granting school leaving certificates has put an end to the Matriculation examination.

The question is why not Mysore have its own system in the matter of school leaving certificates. Some defects are said to have come to light in the Madras system and the same may be avoided in Mysore.

The College courses may continue to be governed by the Madras University but an innovation may be introduced in the matter of appraising the results of work done in the two colleges of Mysore. At the end of the first two years, the terminal examinations may be arranged to correspond to the standard of the Intermediate examination of the Madras University. The marks of all the terminal examinations should be carefully registered. The examination in the English subjects should be common to both the colleges and examiners should be appointed even from among outsiders. The marks obtained in the examination should be added to those obtained in the terminal examinations and the passes should be declared in the local Gazette.

This final examination will be held in sufficient time before the University examination and the students can, if they like, present themselves and pass the University examination. Those who secure a pass in either of these examinations will be entitled to admission to the B.A. classes of Mysore colleges. Similarly, for the B.A. course as well. There are some distinct advantages in this system. All the terminal examinations count in the final result and the students will have to work evenly throughout the course, without the temptation to idle away the earlier part of the course and indulge in feverish activity towards the end.

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It will be optional with the students to present themselves for the University examinations. Locally the passing of the highest examinations should be given the same value as the B.A. Degree of the University.

LONDON UNIVERSITY.

The New Vice-Chancellor of London University.

Dr. W. P. Herringham, who is an Oxford man and Physician to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, has been elected Vice-Chancellor of London University for the year 1912-13. A Senator who was present at the election has divulged the information that there was a contest for the honour, Dr. Herringham, whose candidature was sprung upon the Senate at a day's notice, securing one vote more than the retiring Vice-Chancellor, Sir William Collins, whose nomination alone appeared on the agenda paper of the Senate.

London University Appointments.

The London University Senate has appointed Dr. W. H. Eccles to the new University Readership in Graphics; Dr. J. N. Collie to be Director of the Chemical Laboratories at University College; and Captain G. P. A. Phillips to be Lecturer in Military Science.

Donation by Mr. Ratan Tata.

The Finance Committee of the London University have accepted the donation of £1,400 (Rs. 21,000) a year for three years offered by Mr. Ratan Tata for the endowment of research into the principles and methods of preventing and relieving destitution and poverty. Really a unique gift that shows the rare powers of discrimination possessed by the generous philanthropist.

Proposed Professorship for town-planning.

A proposal has been made, and is now receiving influential support, for the establishment of a professorship of town-planning at London University. The idea originated with Mr. John Burns.

BIRMINGHAM UNIVERSITY.

Training of Indian Students.

Birmingham University on June 24th had distinguished visitors representative of the India Office. The India Council recently decided upon an enquiry into the facilities afforded to Indian students in technological and industrial subjects in Great Britain. A departmental committee was appointed consisting of two members of the Council, Sir Theodore Morison and Sir Krishna Gupta;

Professor Dalby, of the City and Guilds College, Kensington; and Dr. Reynolds, late head of the Municipal Technical School of Manchester. They have visited Glasgow, Leeds, and Manchester, and the same day came to Birmingham. They enquired specially with regard to the system of Government scholarships, by which young Indians are sent to British seats of learning at the expense of the Government, the training of the men so sent, and the possibilities of these men being given practical instruction in British works after they have gone through the University courses. In the morning they visited Bournbrook and took evidence from Professors Heath, Turner, and Cadman, who have had several of the Government scholars under their charge. Professor Ashley arranged for a number of the leading Birmingham manufacturers to meet the committee in the afternoon at the Edmund Street buildings, and the general subject of technical and industrial education, as it relates to Indian students, was exhaustively discussed at a round table conference. Chief interest, however, centred in the means by which the students might get experience in English works.

ST. ANDREWS UNIVERSITY.

The Freedom of St. Andrews.

Sir James Donaldson, the Vice-Chancellor and Principal of St. Andrews University, was presented on June 27 with the freedom of the city of St. Andrews.

The Provost said that St. Andrews was privileged to offer its citizenship to a man of credit and renown. Sir James Donaldson had made Scotland his debtor by his strenuous activity in the field of education, and had contributed volumes which were not doomed to ignominious rest in a cemetery of dead books, but were catalogued for use in the library of the nation.

Sir James Donaldson said St. Andrews was peculiarly fitted to be a seat of a University. No place could be found which could stir up the historic spirit more, for every spot was sacred ground, and every phase of Scottish history was represented in its traditions.

Delegates to the Congress of the Universities of the Empire in London visited St. Andrews University and attended the presentation to Sir James Donaldson. They were afterwards entertained to luncheon by the University Court.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY. Bequest to Harvard University. The H. E. Widener Library.

One of the results of the Titanic disaster is that Harvard University inherits the splendid collection of books formed by one of the victims, Mr. Harry Elkins Widener, grandson of Mr. P. A. B. Widener, of Philadelphia, and son of Mr. George Widener, who perished with his son. Only two or three months before his death Mr. H. E. Widener had issued a sumptuous privately printed catalogue of his collection, in the preface to which he paid a graceful tribute to his parents and his grandfather, 'without whose interest and kindness I would not have had many of the books described.'

In some respects the library is unrivalled in America. There are fine copies of the four folio Shakespeares, the first folio being the Locker-Lampson, afterwards sold in the Van Antwerp sale in London at a very high price. The collection is chiefly remarkable for what are termed in America 'association books,' that is, books which have the marks of former owners. Thus, the copy of the Countess of Pembroke's 'Arcadia' was the Countess's own copy. The Dickens collection is a very large one, and the Rossetti and Shelley books and tracts include many of exceptional rarity and fine condition. The Stevenson section is practically complete, and numbers the MS. of his autobiography on 22 pages, written at San Francisco in January, 1880. The copy of Barham's 'Ingoldsby Legends' was presented to Moxon, the publisher, and has not only an autograph inscription but is enriched with many autograph letters and original drawings.

Both William Blake and Coleridge are well represented; the former by his own copy of Walpole's 'Noble Authors,' with his autograph and an original drawing by him for 'America: A Prophecy,' and by two original drawings for 'The Grave.' The Coleridge items include the rare 'Lay Sermon,' 1817, with a long article in his autograph written in the copy. One of the two copies of Cowper's 'Poems' belonged to Thackeray, who has written an inscription under the portrait of the poet. 'Boswell's Life of Johnson' is the first edition with an autograph presentation note 'J. Reynolds from the Author.' The Bronte collection is also extensive and comprises a copy of the 'Poems' by the three sisters, which was withdrawn from circulation after a few examples had been issued. There are also some fine presentation copies of books by the Brownings; and in addition to many books illustrated by G. Cruikshank, there is a collection of 243 original drawings by George and Robert Cruikshank.

Reviews and Notices.

THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN ENGLISH, BY JAMES FLEMING HOSIC. (THE CHICAGO UNIVERSITY PRESS). Price 75 cents net.

The University of Chicago Press has published an invaluable work for teachers of English, the *Elementary Course in English* consisting of syllabuses with graded lists and references. They are the result of the author's practical experience as a teacher of English and the book is therefore free from valueless theorising. The gradation is based on a fine appreciation of the differences in the various classes of boys, relative to their faculty of understanding.

It is satisfactory to note that the author lays special stress on the development of the literary taste of the young mind. The course includes not only Composition, Word-Study and Reading, but also Literature, and the last is based on the suggestion of a number of literary models intended for study. We cannot however approve of the selection of pieces of poetry and prose from writers who cannot pretend to any kind of literary merit. There may be some justification for such a procedure in the lowest classes owing to the difficulty of young children appreciating masterpieces of real value. But in the higher grades at least there ought not to be any recommendation of extracts from other than well-known writers in literature. Glancing at the course of reading in literature suggested for the most advanced course in the book we are glad to note the names of Kipling, Victor Hugo, Fenimore Cooper and Stevenson in prose, and those of Browning, Wordsworth, Milton, Tennyson and Byron in poetry. But pray, who are Messrs. Wiggin, Cable, Chittenden, Roberts and Hale in prose literature, and why place before the student of English Poetry, the work of these eminent gentlemen—Stoddard, Flinch, Riley and Laurier? Nothing is more useful for making a proper selection of this nature than a sense of literary proportion and we are constrained to note its absence to an appreciable extent in the volume.

The great usefulness of the book is however in the chapters intended absolutely for the teacher. We have no hesitation in saying that the work of even the really able teacher of English will improve by the suggestions contained in the volume.

ENGLISH LITERATURE OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY: WYATT AND CLAY, (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS). Price 2s. 6d.

Even the advanced student of English Literature imbued with a truly academical enthusiasm for its history has probably lurking in him some sympathy for those to whom English Literature begins with the nineteenth century. The faithful chronicler of the efforts of the Muses may scoff at this amateurish partiality for the productions of the last century, but it is idle to deny its presence. The book must therefore appeal to a specially wide circle of readers. The work is executed with the thoroughness and accuracy so characteristic of the Cambridge University Press and we have no hesitation in recommending it to the students of our University. The book is somewhat opportune as the students preparing for our examinations have now to engage themselves on definite periods of literature. Quite an interesting feature of the volume is its attempt to analyse the genius of writers within the compass in which the author of a manual has to confine himself.

THE BALLAD IN LITERATURE, BY T. F. HENDERSON. (THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). Price 1s. net.

The average ballad-reader of to-day has hardly any recognition of the fact that only a hundred and fifty years ago the ballad was not even acknowledged to be a distinct literary form. The opinion in the world of letters was unanimous in denying it the dignity of true literature. Bishop Percy ushered his *Reliques of Ancient Poetry* with an apology for straying into the regions of the vulgar. The cosmopolitan spirit of the critical attitude of recent times has embraced the many varieties of the ballad. It is only fitting that one of the Cambridge Manuals of Science and of Literature should be devoted to a study of its evolution. In selection of details, wealth of illustration and clearness of narration the book leaves nothing to be desired. We recognise the high aims of the publishers of this series but we may nevertheless plead for the infusion of greater buoyancy and enthusiasm in the treatment of such a fascinating theme.

A reference to one or two weaknesses will not, we hope, serve to diminish in the eyes of our readers the high regard we have for the volume. It was rather a keen disappointment to the present reviewer that there should have been no reference to the famous Ballad of the Chevy

Chase. At least the importance it has received by the famous eulogy of Sir Philip Sydney and the two great papers on it in the *Spectator* entitled it to adequate treatment—not to speak of its own merits as a masterpiece in the ballad-form. The interests of higher study probably also required that the account should be brought down to some of the distinguished ballad-writers of our own age. We however commend the volume to all those interested in this popular branch of Literature.

LIFE IN THE MEDIEVAL UNIVERSITY, BY R. S. RAIT
(THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). Price 1s.
net.

It is no exaggeration to say that at least to all those who have studied the history of Universities, the charm of the Middle Ages is very potent. Never was there a more disinterested endeavour to toil along the paths of knowledge than when the ascetic monk of those centuries devoted all his life to the acquirement of every minute detail in the scanty library at his disposal. In the mere zealous pursuit of learning—though it was often through dark ways—the student of a mediæval University was a model of perfection. Mr. Rait has enabled us to study the pale cloistered student of the Dark Ages in the impartial light of historical research. The account is probably devoid of the poetic charm of Cardinal Newman's appreciation of Mediæval University life but has the great advantage of being a faithful picture. A chapter of particular interest is that devoted to the constant conflicts between Town and Gown. There is an unvarnished tale of some of the barbarities in which the forefathers of the cultured products of modern Oxford and Cambridge loved to indulge.

THE TROUBADOURS, BY H. J. CHAYTOR. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). Price 1s. net.

The prophets of conservatism have often fought against the acknowledgment of the foreign debt of English Literature. But the critic must be daring indeed who would deny the influence of Troubadours in shaping English Lyric Poetry. The effects are evident through centuries not only in the technique but also in the spirit of English Poetry. Mr. Chaytor has given due recognition to this stream in the confluence that has made up English Literature as we have it at the present day. He has not, fortunately, fallen a prey to the error of making a fad of his special subject of study.

The caution and sobriety displayed in the assignment of credit deserve hearty approval. The spirit of the Troubadours no longer throws a halo of loveliness over the prosaic atmosphere of our age, but to every sincere lover of poetry dedicated to chivalry there must be an absorbing interest in the study of a class of bards who made it the burning passion of their life to sing the glories of womanhood. "It is woman that is worth a song" and here is a tribute of praise to those who made this principle their one practice in life.

ANCIENT ASSYRIA, BY C. H. W. JOHNS. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 1s. net.

Even the layman must be familiar with the strong impulse that has been given to historical research by the excavations that have been made in the ruined capitals of the ancient world during the last few decades. The history of Assyria has also come to share in the fruits of such laudable exertions and up-to-date manuals like the one under review are the result. The large number of pictures illustrating the relics of ancient Assyrian civilisation form an attraction of no small value. The book combines in itself the virtues of a comprehensive text-book and a serious contribution to historical research. It is however our duty to point out that the best treatment of the subject of Assyrian civilisation is not by giving elaborate attention to the political events of the empire. Nor is there any special value in giving the minute details with regard to individual rulers or dynasties. The ideal method is to dwell on the prominent features of Assyrian civilisation even as Prescott does on those of the Aztecs in his *Conquest of Mexico*. In its traditional associations and undoubted picturesqueness it must have afforded ample material for such a plan.

GOETHE AND THE TWENTIETH CENTURY, BY J. G. ROBERTSON. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 1s. net.

It is refreshing to see the spirit of English criticism detach itself from the weakness of scoffing at 'Hugo's Flare,' or 'Weimar's proud elaborate calm.' Goethe who is by common consent acknowledged to be one of the great Masters of all Europe has a special claim on the student of English Literature by the great sympathy he had for the English mind and its workings. Mr. Robertson gives a calm and dispassionate estimate of Goethe's influence on

the twentieth century. It is superior in some respects to other elaborate biographical studies of the hero by its concentrated attention to the genius of the great writer, in its relation to the varied problems of the twentieth century.

LATIN TRANSLATION FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIPS: BASIL DALTON, M.A. (MACMILLAN).

This book contains "two hundred passages, equally divided between verse and prose," each of which has been chosen in a public school scholarship examination. The passages are, therefore, of a standard neither elementary nor very advanced. The author has tried "to combine interest of subject-matter with a rough approximation to the proportion in which authors are set." He has made a most excellent and thoroughly representative selection. An introduction "On translation" is a very wise and very racy series of suggestions, while the notes upon the passages lessen difficulties, teach much and clearly, and show the student how to apply the principles stated in the introduction.

TACITUS: ROMAN CONQUEST OF BRITAIN: W. MODLEN, M.A. (MACMILLAN'S ELEMENTARY CLASSICS.) Price 1s. 6d.

Never was series better adapted to its purpose than this one. This latest book contains portions of the *Agricola*, the *Annals*, and the *Histories*, selected so as to make a continuous account of the Roman Conquest, and simplified so as to adapt them to the powers of fourth-form boys. As usual an introduction and a sufficient vocabulary are given; but the notes, while clear, leave a little too much to the student, and lose many excellent opportunities of instruction: the boys catered for by the book need a little more than they get. There are many good and apposite illustrations.

SENIOR LATIN COURSE, BY A. I. F. COLLINS AND A. ROBINSON. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS.) Price 3s. 6d.

This book cannot be recommended. It takes genius to make a Latin course interesting, but never has it been made duller than here. There is no great clearness either—no easily memorable sharpness of outline—no impression of the unity of the language. The book is much more like

the tabulation of the authors' knowledge for future reference than a serious attempt to make things either plain or interesting to the learner. The greatest difficulty of the teacher of Latin, whether he is writing a book or teaching a class, is the selection of salient points (deferring the minor ones), and leading from one to another naturally, with emphasis first on the understanding and then on the memory. But this book, with an arrangement that must be rather puzzling than helpful to the student, and a grim compression that must complete his despair, lacks the life and enlightenment that the influence of the new conversational methods have given even to many teachers who do not completely adopt them.

A HAND-BOOK OF GEOGRAPHY, BY A. J. HERBERTSON, M.A., PH. D. VOL. I. (T. NELSON & SONS.) 4s. 6d.

We welcome this volume as a valuable contribution to the science of Geography. It supplies the long-felt want of a work intermediate between the ordinary Elementary School Geography and such standing works of reference as Dr. Mill's *International Geography*, and Mackinder's *Regional Geographies*. Geography is a subject for University study in America, in England and on the Continent and this book is intended for the junior classes of the Universities and for teachers.

According to Dr. Herbertson, Geography is the "description and explanation of the distribution of *forces*, acting on the earth's surface and of the character and grouping of the *forms* which are thus determined." This definition is not likely to be accepted without challenge. Again throughout the book the treatment is based on the idea that Geography is the science of distribution. For this study of distribution, a rational classification of configuration, a dynamical one of climate, a physiological one of organisms and an economic one of mankind are essential preliminaries. Grouping phenomena into two classes, dynamical and morphological, he divides Geography into—

(1) Physical Geography—dealing with the distribution of physical forms and non-living forms.

(2) Biogeography—dealing with the distribution of living organisms.

(3) Anthropogeography—dealing with the distribution of man and his work.

No sub-division of Geography has been termed Mathematical Geography. The author evidently felt the term was employed in a most unfortunate sense as the application of Mathematics to Geography should not be confined to a limited portion of Physical Geography but extended to every division where the facts are capable of statement in mathematical terms.

One noteworthy feature which dominates the treatment of the subject throughout this book is the recognition of the principle that the methods of the geographer are more *synthetic* than analytic thus giving to this subject an exceptional educational value. Geography does not concern itself with the individual rock or organism; its units are such complexes as the Indo-Gangetic plain or the East Coast Strip with their variety of rocks and soils, winds and waters, plants and animals, and the human beings which depend on and utilise them all. The geologist, botanist and other scientists concern themselves with the analysis of any form into its component parts; but it is the province of the geographer to show the interrelation of a great variety of forms associated by a special contiguity or a specific topography and it is in the appreciation of this method we note Dr. Herbertson has wonderfully succeeded.

We are also pleased to note that the distinguished author has attempted to treat the Geography of the world as uniformly as the diversity of its conditions permits, laying at the same time special emphasis on the fundamental and permanent facts. We are glad that the description of the physical features of each continent is continuous as it will enable the reader to understand the relations of the various parts of the skeleton. Political divisions are not ignored and in addition to regional treatment there is also the description of the distribution of the chief elements of each country. This system no doubt involves repetition, but it is very valuable both to the teacher and the taught for such recapitulation of main facts from a slightly different point of view is itself a good thing. The book is profusely illustrated.

A GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD, BY B. C. WALLIS, B. Sc., F. R. G. S. (MACMILLAN & Co., LTD.) 3s. 6d.

Messrs. Macmillan & Co. are publishing a series of Practical Modern Geographies and the volume before us is one of this series. What strikes even a casual reader of this book is the attempt to express in terms of quantitative measure-

ment, facts as to the geographical conditions under which man lives and works. It is a veritable storehouse of statistical information compiled with considerable care. It doubtless requires some training to understand and appreciate from the geographer's point of view the importance of statistical tables but that is just the training which will enable the pupil to think in precise and exact terms. The special value of the book lies not in anything new that it contains but in the way the matter is presented, in its embodying the latest advance in the methods of teaching and in its being the means to enable the children to learn Geography in a scientific manner, giving them at the same time the necessary power to pursue their studies and acquire additional knowledge by themselves.

Part I of this book deals with the world in general; such regions as the deserts, the forests and the grass-lands of the world, the winter and summer temperatures, the pressure regions and the rainfall regions of the world are among those described in this section. Part II deals with the British Empire and the rest of the world. Countries like India, Germany, the United States, China and Japan receive adequate and full treatment. Such of the teachers as do not believe in statistical tables in Geography text-books will find that even if the tables should be omitted, the book provides a clear and lucid description of the world and its regions sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy the requirements of a good syllabus. At the end of each chapter are a number of suggestive and searching questions culled out from the examination papers of the different Universities including those of Madras. The book is full of maps, diagrams, photographic views, &c. We have great pleasure to commend it as a very thorough and masterly piece of work designed to lead the pupil to discover for himself fundamental facts and principles of Geography.

A SHORT PRIMER OF INDIAN HISTORY, BY M. PROTHERO, M.A. AND MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA SATIS CHANDRA VIDHYABUSHAN, M.A., PH.D., PRINCIPAL, SANSKRIT COLLEGE, CALCUTTA. (MACMILLAN & Co.) Price Re. 1 4 as.

We find that the volume before us is a revised edition of Mr. Prothero's History of India. The name of the Sanskrit *Savant*, Mr. Vidhyabushan, who is associated in the authorship of the book with Mr. Prothero is a sufficient guarantee that the book is highly authoritative. He has done

an amount of original work in the field of historical research and we are glad to note that the book embodies the condensed result of these researches. The chapters on the Hindu Period are particularly good and instructive and contains information of a type not met with in ordinary text-books intended for Secondary school pupils. One special feature of the book is the authors' constant reference to source-books which would enable the students to realize how the ancient history of this land is coming to be written. With regard to many controversial subjects such as the origin of caste, the identification of Vikramaditya, etc., the Pandit speaks with an amount of authority which we cannot expect from able Western scholars like Mr. Vincent Smith and Sir Herbert Risley, who under the circumstances have to depend only upon translations of the original works. Mr. Vidyabushan's treatment of the civilization and culture of the ancient Hindus is eminently calculated to infuse in the minds of young readers feelings of pride in their country's past. The treatment of the Mahomedan Emperors of India is also quite a distinct departure from the traditional narratives found in ordinary books. We only regret to find that South Indian History has not received the attention that its importance deserves. We find that the treatment of the British Period is however capable of improvement in some ways, especially in the matter of sequential arrangement of the stages in the expansion of the Empire and the progress of the people under the British administration. The book is profusely illustrated and contains a few rare pictures; while the language is simple, and easy of understanding.

We have much pleasure in announcing to the public that the School Algebra, of which Part I is published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., has been rendered complete by its appropriate sequel containing Parts II and III prepared by the same reputed author Mr. H. S. Hall.

In the treatment of the subject, in planning the succession of its various parts, in the development of certain chapters on the concentric plan, in the omission of unnecessary details usually forming the stumbling block of beginners and in a variety of other matters the second book seems to be a fulfilment of the first. The author deserves specially to be congratulated upon the happy departure noticeable in this production from the usual text-books on the subject. The admirable manner in which the author has succeeded in introducing the most complicated portions of the subject to beginners,

avoiding rigid and formal proofs for the first stage will not only ensure the dissemination of higher mathematical knowledge but will also interest students who generally conceive a feeling of aversion for the higher portions of Algebra on account of their bad presentation. The examples are good, interesting and varied. The book (Parts II and III) covers a good deal of what is taught in Algebra in our colleges and very little of what is wanted for our school courses. The get-up of the book and the pagination leave nothing to be desired and we hope the book will find a large sale in our colleges.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Educational Reforms—In order to enable the Director of Public Instruction satisfactorily to cope with the rapidly increasing work of the Educational Department, consequent on the development and expansion of educational activities, the Government of Madras have considered it desirable to throw a larger measure of responsibility on the officers subordinate to him. The following delegations have accordingly been sanctioned. The power to sanction furniture grants to elementary schools up to a limit of Rs 50 within the allotment assigned by the Director of Public Instruction for the Circle and the power to sanction building grants up to a limit of Rs. 100 within the allotment assigned by the Director of Public Instruction for the Circle have been delegated to Inspectors of Schools. Power to grant temporary exemption from examination rules—general and special—and employ in their offices unqualified candidates for a period not exceeding three months when the sanctioned pay of the appointment does not exceed Rs 30 *per mensem* has been delegated to Inspectors and Inspectresses of Schools and Heads of Colleges. Power to sanction exemption of candidates from age rules for admission into the College of Engineering and power to sanction the award of scholarships granted under the rules of the College have been delegated to the Principal of the College of Engineering, the latter being also delegated to the Principal of the Law College.

The late Mr. S. Venkoba Chariar.—We regret to have to record the death, at Madura, of Mr. S. Venkoba Chariar, B.A., Principal of the Second Grade College at Madura. He was a man of sound attainments, sterling character, and suave manners; the College at Madura has lost in him one who was greatly responsible for the high rank it occupies among similar institutions and the Presidency a distinguished educationist.

Government Arts College, Rajahmundry.—The report of the working of the Government Arts College, Rajahmundry, during 1911-12 by the Acting Principal, Mr. Couldrey, is pronounced to be 'full and interesting' by the Director of Public Instruction, who says that the 'generally efficient condition of the College during the year was creditable to the Acting Principal and his staff.' The strength of the College increased from 166 in the previous year to 171 in the year under report, but the increase, as we believe in the Kumbakonam College, was confined to the Intermediate classes. The report affords an explanation, which is the correct one, for the diminution in the strength of the B.A. classes, especially that of the third year class, by saying that the majority of the students who passed the Intermediate examination of 1910-1911 had either joined the Honours Classes or the Professional Colleges in Madras. This phenomenon is not altogether new, nor is it confined to Rajahmundry. Its appearance has become more pronounced since the introduction of the new changes in the University curriculum, and the question of retaining students in Rajahmundry or Kumbakonam by providing sufficient attractions there, is one, the solution of which has become more urgent. We are told that there were nine students in the Intermediate classes for Group III (Languages) as against five in the preceding year. The Acting Principal says that some time must elapse before there can be any perceptible improvement in the study of languages. Forty-seven students were sent up for the Intermediate examination of 1910-11 and 22 came out successful, and the Principal is satisfied with this result, that having been the first examination held under the new Regulations. The results in the B.A. Degree examination were also fair. A doleful paragraph in the report under consideration is that in which the maladministration of the Poor Scholars' Fund is described. There were 96 defaulters up to the end of 1909; and a circular was sent to 73 of them. It was found that 8 of them were dead; the addresses of 13 others could not be ascertained and two were not yet employed. Forty-eight have either replied or paid their dues and the remaining 25 have so far done neither. Mr. Couldrey puts in a strong plea for a substantial Government aid to support College games which, we hope, will be sympathetically considered. As was expected, a considerable increase in the receipts from College fees from students accrued during the year, owing to the enhancements of College fees.

Training of extra batch of students.—The Government of Madras have approved the proposals recommended by the Director of Public Instruction for training an extra batch of students of the lower elementary grade in each of the Government Training Schools for Masters except the Training School at Rajahmundry and have sanctioned the employment in them of 16 teachers on Rs. 40 *per mensem* and 13 teachers on Rs. 30. These appointments will be temporary and will hold good for twenty-two

months. The cost will be met from the lump provision of four lakhs in the current year's budget for popular education.

Venkatagiri Rajah's High School, Nellore.—The sixth celebration of the above School-day was held at Nellore, on the 30th June, with Mr. S. Venkatasubba Row, B.L., District Munsiff, Bapatla and an old student, in the Chair. About a hundred old students assembled. At the business meeting held that morning, two old students, Messrs. A. S. Krishna Row, B.L., and O. Venkatarangaiya, B.L., both of the local bar, were elected to sit on the School Committee as representatives of the School Day Association. This is the first occasion, when the privilege of election was accorded to and exercised by the Day Association.

The members and their guests, the teachers of the school, met at dinner, and in the evening the public of the place were treated to lunch.

The public meeting commenced at 5-40 P.M., with Mr. S. Venkatasubba Row, in the chair. The portrait of the late Haji Mahommed Rahimtullah Sahib, the donor of the school-site and original building was unveiled by Mr. K. Rangamannar Iyengar, retired District Munsiff. In a short and appropriate speech he recalled to mind, the early struggles of the school; also how the generosity of men like the late Haji gave it life and strength.

Then followed a few toasts. The first to the King-Emperor was proposed from the Chair.

In his concluding speech, the Chairman thanked Mr. K. Rangamannar Iyengar for having kindly unveiled the portrait of the late Haji. The meeting terminated with a vote of thanks to the Chairman and the gentlemen present.

A meeting of old students of H. H. School, Madurantakam.—A meeting of the old students of the Hindu High School, Madurantakam, was held in the High School Hall, with a view to form an Association designated 'The Madurantakam Old Students' Association.' The meeting was largely attended and throughout the proceedings much enthusiasm and interest prevailed. Mr. A. Ramanujachariar, B.A., Tahsildar of Koilkuntla, and a former student of the school, presided on the occasion. The Chairman, in the course of his speech, pointed out the usefulness the school has been doing for the past 30 years and also the spirit of self-sacrifice evinced by its founder. Further, he exhorted the students to rise equal to the occasion and thus keep up their attachment to their school. The object of the Association, to create a spirit of *esprit de corps* among the past students was elaborately dealt with by the President. Certain necessary laws and regulations for the working of the Association were framed and read out for approval by the general body. Office-bearers were then duly elected for the current year. A subscription list was opened on the spot and a sum of Rs. 50 was subscribed by the members. Then the meeting was brought to a close with a hearty vote of thanks to the Chair.

Scholarships for girls in schools.—The Government has approved the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to appropriate Rs. 10,000 of the Imperial grant of eight lakhs for the award of scholarships to girls in schools, to induce a larger number of more promising pupils to remain longer at school since at the present the number on the rolls in the infant classes is reduced to about one-sixth by the time the III standard is reached. The Director has been requested to report for the information of Government the number and rate of scholarships allotted to each standard and the probable expenditure during the current year. Sanction has also been accorded to the expenditure of Rs. 22,000 on the equipment of Government girls' schools from the lump grant of four lakhs in the current year's budget.

Pachaiyappa's College Funds.—We are asked to announce that from the estate of the late Mr. P. S. Charloo, son of the late Mr. P. Ananda Charloo, Rao Bahadur, a sum of Rs. 20,000 was set apart for such purposes as the Trustees of Pachaiyappa's may choose to spend the amount on. Mr. Pappu Chetti Raghavulu Chetti Garu was pleased to promise a donation of Rs. 20,000 towards the College Hostel Buildings. With these two large contributions the amount promised up to date comes to Rs. 1,40,000. We are told that a sum of at least Rs. 3,60,000 more is wanted to satisfy the present requirements of the College.

An Educational Conference of Elementary Teachers.—The Third Annual Conference of the Elementary Teachers' Association, Cuddapah Range, met at Pulivendla under the presidency of Mr. C. Ramayya Pantulu, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Municipal High School, Cuddapah. Mr. R. Narayana Rao, B.A., L.T., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Cuddapah Range, was also present at the special invitation of the Association. Nearly one hundred and fifty delegates, school masters of elementary schools, were present. The gentry of the place graced the occasion. The programme of the gathering included:—(1) An Exhibition of village products of educative value and also fine specimens of hand-work (2) A group photo (3) Lectures on educational subjects (4) A garden dinner party, &c. A demonstration lesson on silk-worms was given by Mr. R. Narayana Rao to the students of the III standard which was a model of instruction. A lecture on Human Physiology, with illustrations of various organs of the body, was delivered by Mr. H. Subba Rao. Mr. S. V. Rangachari, author of "One Hundred Model Essays in Telugu," etc., who came here from Madras for the occasion, delivered an interesting speech on "Elementary Education—Past and Present." Some prizes were distributed to deserving students—the first two students of the IV standard winning the late Muthyala Ramanna's prize. Mr. K. Srinivasa Rao made some presents for singing. The Secretary, Mr. Munayya, read his report and after complimentary speeches, the Chairman delivered his closing speech which was eloquent and instructive. After

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distribution of *pansupari* the Conference terminated its proceedings with a vote of thanks to the Chair.

Madras Law College.—The annual report on the working of the Law College for 1911-12 shows that it was efficiently managed during the past year. There was a large accession to the strength of the College, which was shared by all the classes. The results of the University examinations were generally very fair. The following are extracts from the report of the Principal:—

The number of students on the rolls on the 31st March 1912 was 455 against 301 in 1910-11, thus showing a great increase of 154 students. This increase is the highest on record since 1899.

(1) *B.L. Degree Examination, April 1911*—The number of students appearing direct from the college was 88. Of these 40 passed—a percentage of 45.5 as compared with 52.25 of the previous year.

(2) *First Examination in Law, April 1911*—For this examination, 203 appeared from the college; of these 108 passed—a percentage of 53.2 against 39.76 of the previous year.

(3) *Pleadership Examination*—There was no examination during the year under report, the date of the examination having been changed from January—February to April—May from 1912 onwards.

(4) *Class Examination*—There were two examinations held during the year under report, one in each term. As usual, the students were examined in all the subjects in which instruction had been given up to date. The attendance at these examinations was satisfactory.

The number of volumes in the library on the 31st March 1912 was 2,958. Of the 219 volumes added to the library, 99 were added to the lending section and the remaining 120 to the consulting section. Of the latter, 104 are the latest editions of standard works.

(i) *Morehead Law Scholarship*—The scholarship was awarded to V. Chinniah Rao, who passed second in the first class in the F.L. Examination, held in April 1911, the candidate who passed first in the first class not having joined the college.

(ii) *College Scholarships*—Of the two Government scholarships of Rs. 100 each per term one was awarded to M. Gopalan Nayar, the student, who passed third in the first class in the F.L. Examination, April 1911. The other Government scholarship which is reserved for Muhammadan or Uriya students was awarded to N. M. Malim, the only Muhammadan student in the B.L. class. There was no Uriya student in the class.

(iii) *Scholarships under the Code of Regulations for European Schools*—Two scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 30 each per mensem were awarded during the year, one to G. C. D'Cruz tenable for two years with effect from July 1911, and the other to J. J. Noronha with effect from the 18th January to 30th June 1912. Of these two, the former discontinued his law studies in January 1912 and surrendered the scholarship.

The college was provided with electric fans and lights in certain rooms during the year under report.

For 1911-1912, Receipts, Rs. 71,531; Charges, Rs. 37,399; Surplus, Rs. 34,132. The surplus during the year under review is the largest in the history of the college.

Owing to the large strength of all the classes, the staff, both teaching and clerical, have had an exceptionally busy year, and I think all members thereof have discharged their duties entirely satisfactorily.

The College of Engineering, Madras.—We note from the report of Mr. James, the Principal of the College of Engineering, that the total number of students on the rolls of the College on the 31st March last, was 308, the corresponding totals for the five preceding years being 272 for the year 1910-11, 213 for 1909, 256 for 1908, 315 for 1907 and 292 for 1906. The increase in the number of students for the year under report, is, we are told, due to greater number of admissions into the Probationary Subordinate class. That was the first year in which the class was constituted under the new rules. It would be interesting to know that the percentage of Brahman students has fallen a little this year while that for non-Brahman students has nearly doubled. The number of military students on the rolls on the said date was 23. Speaking of the examination results of the Engineer class, Mr. James said that only two of the passed candidates elected to join the Mechanical Engineering class and deplores that it is unlikely that a large number of students will take Mechanical Engineering unless there appears a sure demand for well-trained Mechanical Engineers. With regard to the employment of the passed men, Mr. James was in a position to say that all the ten Engineer students who completed their practical course, secured appointments, the senior man, Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Iyer, being taken as Assistant Engineer in the Provincial Service of the P. W. D. Fifteen Upper Subordinates satisfactorily completed their practical training and all of them got employments, with the exception of one man, who being a military apprentice, had to revert to his regiment as his services were not required by the P. W. D. As for the Lower Subordinate class, twenty-three of them finished their practical courses but Mr. James was only in a position to say that twenty-two could get employment, as the remaining student did not furnish Mr. James with any information. Certain changes of rules were introduced into the curricula of the college, such as the extension of the Engineer class to four years and the substitution of the Intermediate Examination for the B. A. Degree as regards entrance. A Probationary class was also instituted to serve as a feeder for the Upper Subordinate and Lower Subordinate classes and so forth. Mr. James makes a suggestion regarding the Revenue Officers' class. The course of this class was only two months, but Mr. James thinks it should be extended by one

month more, as two months are not sufficient to pick up any useful knowledge. Dr. Bourne, however, simply commended it for the consideration of the Board of Revenue. Touching financial matters, we see that the receipts for 1911-12 amounted to Rs. 24,098-6-10 and the charges to Rs. 1,17,162-12-6, resulting in a net cost to Government of Rs. 93,064-4-8, the cost per student being Rs. 302-2-6.

BOMBAY.

A Bombay Educationist. Dr. Mackichan honored.—The past and present students of the Wilson College, Bombay, met in the College Hall, at Chowpatty on June 18 to adopt measures to suitably commemorate the services of the Rev. Dr. D. Mackichan, Principal of the college, to the cause of education in the Bombay Presidency during the last thirty-seven years. There was a large attendance, and several speakers addressed the meeting. It was resolved to raise a fund for a marble bust of Dr. Mackichan to be placed in the college building.

Mr. Mirza Ali Mahomed Khan moved the first resolution:—That the past and present students of Wilson College, in this meeting assembled, resolve that a suitable memorial be raised to the Rev. Dr. D. Mackichan, D.D., LL.D., in appreciation of the signal services rendered by him to Wilson College as its Principal and to the cause of education in the Bombay Presidency in general, during a period of 37 years.

Mr. K. R. Koregaonkar seconded, and Miss S. S. Paruck, Mr. G. K. Deodhar, and others supported the resolution, which was carried.

Mr. K. K. Suntoke next moved that a marble bust of the Rev. Dr. Mackichan be placed in a prominent position in the college building in consultation with the college authorities.

Mr. S. J. Dalvi seconded the resolution. He said as Principal of the College, Dr. Mackichan might be called Dr. Thomas Arnold of Rugby. He had always believed in the inter-communion, spiritual, moral and intellectual, between the East and the West. He was the optimist of optimists. He had the largest faith in the Indian character, gratitude, according to him, being their birth-right.

Mr. B. M. Pandit and Mr. Mirza Ali Akbar Khan supported the resolution, and it was carried.

The following resolutions were also passed:—
(a) That a committee (named at the meeting) with power to add to their number, be appointed to raise subscriptions, and to take all such steps as may be necessary for carrying the last resolution into effect.
(b) That this meeting of the past and present students of the Wilson College resolves that the college authorities be requested to name the new hostel after the Rev. Dr. Mackichan and also to request the Chairman of the City Improvement Trust to name a road near the new hostel after him.
—*The Times of India.*

Poona Students' Brotherhood.—The first anniversary of the Students' Brotherhood was celebrated, Dr. Sir Ramakrishna Bhandarkar, presiding.

The Lord Bishop of Bombay, the principal speaker on the occasion, said that the object of study was wisdom, teachableness and sympathy being the requisites. Among other things he urged upon the audience the importance of accuracy and a sense of proportion.

Principal Paranjpye thanked the lecturer. The proceedings terminated with singing by the lady students of the Female High School and distribution of flowers.

Deputy Educational Inspectors.—A Resolution at the last Legislative Council asked that appointments of Deputy Educational Inspectors be included in the Bombay Provincial Service. After the Hon'ble Mr. Rodda had advanced his reasons for the adoption of his Resolution, the Hon'ble Mr. Claudehill expressed a wish that the Council would accept it, as when in 1896 the Deputy Educational Inspectors were shown as Gazetted Officers, the Government of India took exception for the reason that Mamladars were not included. By passing this measure the Council's views in the matter would be expressed, and the Resolution on being put to the meeting, was unanimously carried.

Prof. Davar's College of Commerce.—The Davar's College of Commerce students, who left for London and Manchester this year early in March to appear for the various High Commercial Examinations there, are declared so far to have passed the following examinations as per results to hand by this mail.

Royal Society of Arts:—Accounting and Banking: Messrs. G. S. Bhargava; M. Pershad Bhargava; R. B. Jijibhoy and R. F. Martins.

The Lancashire and Cheshire Union of Institutes: Messrs. M. Bhargava; R. F. Martins, R. B. Jijibhoy and G. Bhargava.

These young men during their stay in Europe, were studying at the Manchester School of Commerce of which the Principal is Prof. Nixon, Chartered Accountant. Prof. Davar also followed the students to Manchester to look after their education. Prof. Davar would return to Bombay on the 18th July. He has arranged for examinations by the Institute of Bankers, the Incorporated Society of Commercial Teachers, to be held in India next year, and has also moved the London Chamber to hold their examinations in Bombay this year during November. If this is accepted by the Director of Public Instruction, there will be six-monthly instead of yearly examinations in Commercial subjects held by the Examination Board of the London Chamber of Commerce.

College of Commerce, Bombay. Liberal Donations.

The following press note has been issued:—

His Excellency the Governor received the following very generous promises of support towards the establishment of a Government College of Commerce in Bombay:—(1) Sir Jugmohandas Vurjeevandas, Rs. 2,25,000, towards the founding of a professorial chair to bear his name (2) Trustees of the Wadia Charities, Port Trust bonds yielding Rs. 4,800 per

annum, towards the founding of a chair to bear the name of Mr. N. M. Wadia (3) Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal, Rs. 1,00,000 (4) The Bombay Chamber of Commerce, Rs. 1,500 per annum (5) The Mill-owners' Association, Bombay (6) The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, Bombay (7) The Bombay Native Piece-goods Merchants' Association and (8) the Mill-owners' Association, Ahmedabad, Rs. 1,000 per annum each. The income thus provided will amount to about to Rs. 23,000 per annum, and the Government are prepared to contribute an annual grant of Rs. 15,000. The liberal and most gratifying supports which the proposed college thus received will enable it to be established, although additional funds will be required to make the institution complete in all respects and to provide scholarships. Details will now be worked out and it is hoped that a beginning may be made next year with a staff of two professors (one to act as principal) and two lecturers as soon as the necessary arrangements have been made. An Advisory Board will be formed on which commercial bodies will be represented in order that the courses of study may be kept in full harmony with the practical requirements of commerce and industry. The Governor in Council trusts that the establishment of this college, which is the first of its kind in this country, will in time go far to supply the growing need of special commercial education not only of the presidency but of India generally.

The Gujarat College.—The Hon. Lalubhai Samaldas in his speech at the last meeting of the Legislative Council made an appropriate reference to the taking over of the Gujarat College by Government, as being one of the landmarks of the educational administration of His Excellency the Governor. The legal difficulties in the way of the transfer which was so earnestly desired by the people of Gujarat, were removed by the legislation passed during the current year. It is no exaggeration to say that Gujarat is indebted to His Excellency for this happy consummation. But for the active personal interest which he took in the matter it would have been still where it had been for many years past. Acknowledgment must also be made of the munificent generosity of Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal whose contribution, amounting to nine and a half lakhs of rupees to the College, is one of the finest examples in Indian History of wealth unselfishly devoted to the truest charity. Thanks to Sir Chinubhai's liberality the Gujarat College will soon be one of the finest colleges in India with its arts and science departments equipped in the most up-to-date style. The College was founded in 1858 with a fund of Rs. 70,000 and a Government grant equal to the income of the endowment. Owing to financial difficulties the College had to drop some of its departments and in 1879 the College was made over to Government and remained under Government management till 1887. Since then a committee has been managing it. The College now

permanently reverts to Government under circumstances of the happiest character.—*The Times of India.*

MYSORE

English Professorship at the Central College, Bangalore.—Mr. Adolphus, Professor of English, Central College, is permitted to retire by the end of this month. Rev. Dr. Miller, M.A., LL.D., D.D., C.I.E., now in Scotland, has been requested to find a suitable English Professor for the Central College in the place of Mr. Adolphus. Pending the arrival of the new incumbent, Mr. Vasudeva Rao, M.A., Assistant Professor of English, Maharaja's College, Mysore, will be posted to the Central College to act as English Professor. Last time, the appointment of an English Professor for the Maharaja's College, Mysore, was advertised for in the English papers and among the several that answered the advertisement, Mr. McCombe, B.A., was selected. The Mysore Government does not seem to believe in the utility of advertisements and have therefore requested Dr. Miller to help them in the matter of selecting a competent Professor.

Educational Statistics.—The number of public institutions in Mysore in 1911-12 increased from 2,416 to 2,460 and their numerical strength from 113,785 to 115,249; but the number of private schools decreased from 1,876 to 1,807, and the numbers attending them from 23,944 to 22,904. Thus there are 25 fewer schools in the State than at the commencement of the year, though the total number of scholars is slightly above that of 1909-10. There was an increase in expenditure on public instruction of Rs. 41,042, the total now standing at Rs. 18,79,133 of which a sum of Rs. 11,81,333 was paid from State funds. The numerical strength of the college classes in the three English colleges rose from 391 to 438 and of these four were female students. It is in the primary schools of the State that the decrease in the number and the strength of private institutions has been most felt. The total number of boys in primary classes fell from 98,311 to 96,974. The percentage of boys therein to the total school-going population was 23.5

The School Final Examination.—The School Final examination is likely to be introduced in Mysore next year. The slaughter of students in the recent Matriculation examination has induced many a parent to approach the Government with a prayer to have either a local Matriculation examination or a School Final examination so that the labours of their students and the money spent on their education may not go for nothing. They have sent up a proposal to adopt a School Final scheme for Mysore to the University of Madras for favour of approval.

TRAVANCORE.

Building grants to schools.—The Government of Travancore have recently passed important orders on the subject of building grants to lower and higher grade elementary schools. The practice hitherto has been that people in villages provide the building in respect of the former, the Government supplying the teachers and maintaining them, one-third of the total cost of buildings being also granted. As regards this, the order states: "The Government note with much pleasure that the people of the State who are so keenly alive to the progressive needs of education are coming forward so readily to provide the necessary accommodation for their lower grade elementary schools. This is indeed a healthy sign of the active interest taken by them in the education of their children which it should be the special concern of the Educational Department to foster and encourage. The Sircar contribution has now been increased from one-third to one-half and Government have directed that, in order that the people may not be hampered by technicalities, P. W. D. officials should not be allowed to review completion reports, but the Department should certify them to be good. As regards higher elementary schools, certain principles have now been laid down. In respect of buildings, it has been ordered that they should be built at Sircar cost by the P. W. D., who should show more expedition in the matter than they have in the past and who should construct ten buildings every year. The Director reported that the tendency of every lower grade school is to get itself raised to the higher. The Government point out that the first concern of the Department should be to have a sufficient number of the lower grade schools, so that every pupil should have a school to attend within one mile of his residence."

The Dufferin Scholarship.—Miss I. V. Gomez, the daughter of the late Assistant Surgeon John Gomez, Trivandrum, has been given a scholarship of Rs. 50 per month to prosecute her studies in the Madras Medical College.

Educational Reforms.—The Government of Travancore have resolved to introduce considerable decentralisation of work in the Office of the Director of Public Instruction so as to relieve that officer of much of routine work which he has to do himself at present, so that, by making the Inspectors responsible for the execution of all matters sanctioned by the Director, the latter may bestow adequate attention to the important duties pertaining to the administration, and the direction of the Department. Applications for recognition and for opening new schools will hereafter have to be sent to the Inspector, (and not to the Director), who will forward them to the Director with his recommendation. The Inspector will also have power of approving the transfer of management of schools and the appointment of members of Boards of Management. Beyond certain limits, and with certain exceptions the Government's approval has now to be obtained

in regard to Grants-in-Aid under Chapter XV of the Travancore Education Code. It has now been decided that in future, all grants under Rule 146(a) of the Education Code may be given by the Director without reference to Government, but subject to the limit of the allotted amount. Grants for the purchase of furnitures and of educational appliances may be sanctioned hereafter by the Inspector of Secondary Schools and by the Inspector of Elementary Schools and Inspectress of Girls' Schools, provided that the amount in each case does not exceed Rs. 500 and Rs. 100 respectively. Instead of the Director drawing all grants, correspondents of schools will draw bills for sanctioned grants, which will be countersigned by the officers concerned. At present higher grade elementary schools are controlled by Inspectors of Elementary Schools, and the lower grade schools by Assistant Inspectors. This sharp distinction is to be done away with. The Durbar states:—"The Inspectors of Elementary Schools and the Inspectress of Girls' Schools being the chief officers responsible for the condition and progress of Elementary Education in the State, it is essential that they should be in a position to pay attention to all the Elementary Schools and not be made to concentrate their inspection on the higher grade schools alone. His Highness' Government resolve that, in future, all Elementary Schools for Boys and for Girls should be placed under the immediate control of the Assistant Inspectors and the Assistant Inspectresses respectively. It should, however, be impressed on the Inspectors, of Elementary Schools and the Inspectress of Girls' Schools that, by relieving them of the sole control they now exercise over Higher Grade Elementary Schools, they have not been divested of the responsibility of inspecting such schools, that the Government insist upon their carefully supervising the work both of the Lower and Higher Grade Elementary Schools, and that the Government hold them responsible for the efficiency and progress of Elementary Education in the State." Inspectors of Elementary Schools and the Inspectresses of Girls' Schools will appoint all the teachers in Elementary Schools. Other and minor changes have also been introduced.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Guru Gobind Singh Scholarships.—It is announced for the information of all the applicants for the above-named scholarships, announced by Bhai Jowala Singh of Moorland, California, to be available at the University of California, that the choice of the Scholarship Committee has fallen upon the following young men:—1. Shivdev Singh, F.Sc., Govt. College, Lahore. 2. Gehisingh P. Hazari, B.A., The Ashram, Karachi. 3. Gobind Behari Lal, M.A., Kinari Bayar, Delhi. 3 C. S. M. Mahmood of Behar, Allahabad. Substitutes for the first three in case any one of them cannot come, 4. S. B. Hudlikar, M.A., Ferguson College, Poona. 5. Nand Singh Sihra, Mech. Eng., Technical Institute, Bombay. 6. S. L. Sarma, B.A., B.L., Kurnool, Madras. 7. O. V. R. Fukootnoor,

B. Sc., Ranade Industrial Institute, Bombay. Substitute for the last three in case any one of them fails to come.

The University opens on the 15th of August and every successful candidate must reach Berkeley at the latest on September 5th, 1912.

The original certificates of all unsuccessful candidates will be returned as soon as possible.

Government of India Scholarships.—The Government of India have this year sanctioned the award of ten State Technical Scholarships to the following candidates for a course of training in Europe in the subjects noted against each:—

MADRAS.

Mr. Tombat Sakharama Rao, Electrical Engineering.

Mr. D. Sadashivam, Practical Work in Applied Chemistry and the Manufacture of Textiles, subject to the production of a medical certificate as to his physical fitness to undergo the course of study proposed.

Mr. D. N. Nagarkath, Papermaking, subject to the production of a medical certificate as to his physical fitness to undergo the course of study proposed.

Mr. E. C. Henriques, Architecture. He will undergo a training for two years in India, and then proceed to Europe for a third year to complete his training.

BENGAL.

Mr. P. R. Duncan, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

Mr. Chandra Sakhar, Sarkar Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

THE PUNJAB.

Mr. Lashmi Das, Kochit, Tanning.

BURMA.

Maung Ba Chit, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, subject to his passing the B. Sc. Examination.

BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Mr. Bhubananda Das, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, subject to his passing the B. E. Examination.

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

Mr. K. C. Mitra, Electrical Engineering.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Indian Students' Technical Training.—The Committee which has been appointed by the Secretary of State for India to inquire into and report as to the facilities available for Indian students for industrial and technological training in this country, with special reference to the system of State technical scholarships established by the Government of India in 1904, commenced investigations at Glasgow University on June 10th. The Committee is constituted as follows:—Sir Theodore Morison, K.C.I.E. (Chairman) and Sir Krishna Gupta, K.C.S.I., Members of the Council of India; Mr. J. H. Reynolds, M.Sc., lately Principal of the Municipal School of Technology at Manchester, and Professor W. E. Dalby, M.A., Professor of Civil and Mechanical Engineering at the Imperial College of Science and Technology at South Kensington. The Secretary of the Committee is Mr. P. H. Dumbell of the India Office.

As regards the existing system, it may be explained that for some years past it has been the practice of the Government of India to send to England a limited number of picked men as technical scholars. They come, as the name of applied science, and the intention it implies, for training in various branches that when they have completed their course they shall return to India and as a rule take up work in the particular industry for which their training may have fitted them. The range of subjects for which these scholars have been selected in the past is very wide. There have been, for instance, scholarships in mining and metallurgy, dyeing, textile industries, silk-weaving, soap-making, training and engineering. But experience has shown that if the full benefit is to be derived, the system is capable of improvement not only by the individual State-scholars, but by the industries of India. It is essential now for Government to undertake a somewhat wider survey than has hitherto been undertaken of the facilities obtainable in the United Kingdom for industrial and technological training of this kind. It is for this purpose that the Committee had been constituted.

The procedure which has been adopted by the Committee is that of taking evidence from professors and others on whose co-operation the success of any such scheme as that indicated must to a large extent depend, the intention being to visit other University centres (including Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham) where Indian scholars have been or may in future be trained. The following witnesses were examined:—Sir Donald MacAlister, K.C.B., Principal of the University; Mr. William Lorimer, LL.D., Assessor to the Chancellor; Professor Barr, Professor Latham, Dr. O. N. Desch, Lecturer in Metallurgical Chemistry; Mr. H. Bamford, Lecturer in Engineering Drawing, and Design; Mr. Baird Laing, C.E.; Mr. Home Morton, Consulting engineer; and Dr. George T. Beilby of the Royal

Technical College. A number of Indian students also gave evidence.

Open-air Schools.—Five years ago an open-air school for children whose delicate health made it impossible for them to attend the ordinary schools was opened as an experiment, at Bostall Woods, by the London County Council Education Committee. A special report on the system, which has since then undergone extensions, has just been submitted, in which it is stated that the open-air school has now passed the experimental stage and that steps should be taken to place such schools on a permanent basis: Investigation shows that the children attending these schools make good progress, both physically and mentally, and many of them have been enabled to take their place among other children in the ordinary schools. The question may naturally be asked: If the open-air school is so much healthier for pupils than the school held in a building, why should not all schools be held regularly in the open-air? The London County Council's answer would probably be that in the English climate open-air schools are only possible during a part of the year, and are dependent upon weather conditions—although according to the Report one open-air school was held in London throughout the year. Another serious objection to the general adoption of the open-air system of education apparently is the expense. Sites are very difficult to obtain, and more space is necessary as all the pupils are on the same level. Thus the average cost per head of average attendance for nine months at open-air schools was £14 7s. and at ordinary schools £1 9s. The expedient has been adopted of holding play-ground classes in the ordinary schools, and in this way the number of children who should be transferred to the open-air schools is much reduced.

University Colleges' schemes in Great Britain.

—A recent report issued by the Board of Education contains an interesting report of generous support of University Colleges' schemes in Great Britain by the Government and private individuals. The grant for the financial year 1910-11 amounted to £100,000 and for the financial year 1911-12 it is £150,000. The three Colleges in Wales receive grants amounting to £25,500. The report recalls that reference was made in last year's report to the difficulty experienced in this country in raising any substantial sums for University education, and satisfaction is expressed that in the eight months between September 1911, and May 1912, gifts to the value of nearly a quarter of a million have been made for University education in London. Reference was also made in the last report to the keen interest shown by the Queen in the scheme for establishing at King's College for Women a course for training women in the study of the science of the household. At that time, only half of the £100,000 required for the completion of the scheme had been obtained, but as since then two generous donations of £20,000 and £30,000, and the promise

by the Goldsmiths' Company of £10,000, have been received, the *minimum* sum required for the full scheme has been more than obtained. For the provision of new premises for Bedford College, of which Queen Alexandra is Patroness, and for its proposed endowment fund a sum of about £134,000 has been collected. The Appeal Committee, established under the chairmanship of Prince Arthur of Connaught to raise funds for the provision of new chemical laboratories at University College, London, have been so successful that now less than £10,000 remains to be collected. Of the 12 medical schools in London, all, except those attached to St. Bartholomew's, Guy's, and Middlesex Hospitals are now in receipt of grants from the Board of Education. Of the nine medical schools in the rest of England, all but Oxford, Cambridge, and Bristol are now similarly recognized. The number of full-time students in England during the year was 7,905 as compared with 8,174 in the previous year, the apparent drop being accounted for by the stricter classification adopted. The report also states that the reduction in the total number of students of all kinds from 22,187 to 21,119 is due to the exclusion of those who attended a certain number of lectures.

The Indian Student in London.—The annual meeting of the National Indian Association was held on June 3 at the Indian centre, 21 Cromwell-road, and was largely attended.

Sir Theodore Morison, in moving the adoption of the report, said that the latest developments of the work included arrangements for a students' library brought about by the generosity of Sir Thomas Raleigh in presenting his legal books, and

for the acquisition of a tennis court close to the centre, to be open to the members of the Association and of the Northbrook Society.

The Thakore Sahib of Limbdi seconded the report, and Sir James Wilson in presenting a financial statement, said that no fewer than 224 Indian students were associate members.

An expression of sympathy with all efforts for social reform in India, especially with those for the advancement of the education of women and girls, was passed on the motion of Mr. Abbas Ali Baig, who said that a healthy ferment of ideas as to female advancement was now leavening the educated classes of India and quickening its intellectual life.

Sir Arthur Lawley, who presided, said that during his recent Governorship in Madras he had discussed with many Indian parents the question of the wisdom or otherwise of their sons coming to England to be educated. He greatly admired the sacrifice the parents made to give their sons this advantage. But they often failed to realise the magnitude of the experiment. They failed to realise that the home and school life of their English fellow-students were very different from those of the East; that they were putting new wine into old bottles; and that London, where it was estimated 1,000 young Indians sojourned, was a vortex of temptation. Was it strange that the young Indian, naturally shy and sensitive, finding himself alone in this great city should sometimes succumb, and that there should be cases of grievous failure? Indian parents could not do better than bring their sons into touch with the Association, a course likely to contribute to all that promoted their success.

THE OXFORD GEOGRAPHIES

Vol. III

THE SENIOR GEOGRAPHY

BY

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The Educational Review.

At the last annual Conference of the Association of Teachers in Technical Education. Technical Institutions, Dr. J. Clark, the President of the Association, discussed at some length the factors which have raised the German nation to its present position in the industrial world. He pointed out that in the United Kingdom there is generally lacking in the minds of the great majority of the inhabitants a genuine belief in the value and possibilities of technical education and that much work has yet to be done to convince the general public of the absolute necessity for a thoroughly sound general education as a basis for all higher education. Though the British workman displays a readiness, an initiative, and a responsibility that form a striking contrast to the lack of self-reliance, distrust in personal judgment, and need for constant direction so characteristic even of the superior type of German artisan, yet the higher level of the Germans educationally accounts for their commercial and industrial supremacy. Nay more; the influence of the views and speculations of philosophers such as Fichte has been immense upon the development of the German nation. As a result of Fichte's *Addresses to the German Nation*, published in 1808, "the doctrine of the submission of the individual and of self-sacrifice as a prime necessity for national development became an integral part of the German character, and established that flexibility and responsiveness to State control and official authority that have led to achievements no other nation has yet been able to imitate.... Education became not only the privilege of the individual, but a duty to the State in so far as it enhanced his national

value. Hence originated that increased enthusiasm for education that caused the country to be described as a 'land of schools,' and prepared the way for immediate development on the technical side when the time was opportune."

In *La Géographie* for the month of April is outlined an interesting Geographical scheme for the geographical education of the public through the medium of "table d'orientation" erected on favourite view-points. On such view-points the Touring Club de France, an organization to which feel indebted most tourists through France, has placed indicators directing the visitor to the names of the salient natural features visible from where he stands; to these are added such bare facts as the heights of mountains. It is proposed to amplify these with inscriptions of some twenty lines indicating in a readily intelligible manner the natural forces which have been at work in shaping the landscape. Such an inscription has already been set up on the Banne d'Ordenche, a view-point above the valley of the Dordogne; it explains briefly that the Banne itself is a volcanic neck, and indicates its relation to the volcanic system of the Auvergne generally, most of the members of which are visible from it. It is stated that the inscription greatly interests those that ascend the Banne. England possesses no such 'tables d'orientation,' and there is no organization specially concerned to provide them. As we have often said we have to take in many matters France and Germany as our examples and not England, though the latter controls our destinies. If in our country where striking natural sceneries abound, explanations of the kind proposed in

France were provided on the spots in the form of inscriptions, these spots would become the objects of pilgrimage not only for tourists but for students and school classes.

The Board of Education, England, has recently published a number of papers on the teaching of mathematics in the United Kingdom. Without referring to any of these papers in detail we shall point out the general trend. Leading students of education have by observation, experiment and reflection been led to the view that a system of education designed on broad lines to prepare pupils for some particular occupation is not only the best training for that particular occupation, but also better as a general education than a system which has been designed simply as a general education and not as a preparation for any particular calling. A course, simply designed for general education tends to become a "mental discipline," lacking in interest, deadening the mind and making the pupil a machine. Hence in determining what methods and subjects shall be thrust upon every boy of an ordinary degree of mathematical ability the best criterion would be a consideration of the needs in after-life of certain groups of boys. In many cases mathematics is a form of technical knowledge required for the careers of engineer, mathematical schoolmaster, professor of mathematics. The requirements of the career will determine the extent of the subject but the treatment of the subject should be of the broadest and every problem must be considered from many points of view. It is not necessary that each boy's future should be planned in advance. All boys, technical, semi-technical and non-technical, will study together for a XVIII

time. The boy to whom mathematics is merely a part of his general education will, so far as he goes, study along with the technical group with which he has most in common.

As regards the methods of mathematical study it may be noted that the various methods of mathematical investigation have been added one by one at various times to our available stock of tools. Hence following the biological principle that ontogeny is a repetition on a small scale of phylogeny, these various tools should be put in the pupil's hand in the order of their discovery. But there is no reason why this development of the race should be followed too closely, as too exact a recapitulation is not only wasteful in time but often deadens the intellect. The freedom to treat a problem by the method of Euclid, by that of Descartes, by the principle of duality or by that of continuity not only gives to the pupil a breadth of view but the saving of time effected, would make a much further advance in mathematics possible than is now customary. Time should not be wasted in making pupils explore bypaths and in the acquisition of excessive skill in manipulation, but should push on along the main road.

Dr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, is one of the first authorities in England on educational questions. In an address delivered before the Allgemeiner Deutscher Neuphilologen Verband he has discussed the various ways in which England is indebted to German education. In the opinion of Dr. Sadler no foreign influence had during the last hundred years such far-reaching effects upon the English methods of teaching and educational ideals

as the German had. The influence of Germany touched every grade of education from the Kindergarten to the University. The more evolutionary, gentle, and spontaneous training of little children was chiefly due to Froebel and his followers. The ideas of Fichte and Herbart are evident in the official definition of the purpose of the public elementary school, now printed in the Code of the English Board of Education. Compulsory attendance at school, the "medical inspection of school children, the organization of secondary schools, the subsidizing of University studies were all in great measure due to German precedent. The encouragement of higher technical instruction of University rank was the direct result of German example. The new methods of teaching modern languages owed much to Victor of Marburg and to Dörr and Max Walter of Frankfurt. The new conception of the continuation school, at once technical and humane, organised in direct relation to industry, but with a broad civic purpose, was mainly derived from German sources, and especially from the work of Dr. Kerschensteiner at Munich. In schools and colleges the courses of study and methods of instruction owed a great debt to German scholars and men of science. The courses of professional training for teachers were much indebted to the writings of Herbart and to the personal influence of Prof. Rein of Jena. That the encouragement and intellectual guidance of all grades of national education is one of the highest functions of the State is a truth that has been learned, though imperfectly, from German thinkers like Fichte, Humboldt, Hegel and Paulsen. In the face of these declarations of Dr. Sadler one must indeed be temerarious to call in question the indebtedness of England to Germany in matters educational.

The question of preventing nervous and mental disorders in the schools has been occupying the attention of medical men. Dr. A. W. Fairbanks thinks that this could be effected by the following reforms: The abolition of all competitive work; the absolute abolition of either moral or material rewards for excellence in school work or attendance; the elimination of special examinations, the passing of which is held essential as a requisite for promotion; the making of promotion solely dependent upon the capacity shown by the individual child in its ordinary routine daily work; such promotion to occur whenever the child indicates its capacity for such advancement; the elimination, as far as possible, of a fixed standard, either of grade or graduation, to which children are expected to conform at definite periodical intervals, or at definite and arbitrarily fixed ages; the elimination of report cards sent to parents weekly or monthly, or at any other time; the abolition of condemnatory or adulatory certificates and the substitutes therefor of personal contact with the parents and the home. He recommends the institution in certain cases of special instruction by special teachers in very small classes; the abolition of afternoon classes of all grades below the fifth, or the entire devotion of the afternoon to educative play without restraint; the assignment of the easiest studies for the afternoon for all grades from the fifth upward; the reduction of the time during which the concentration of the attention of the pupils is required for any one subject; the abolition of home lessons requir-

ing mere abstract reasoning or routine memory. These suggestions deserve the attention of all teachers in Indian schools. It cannot be asserted that our pupils do not suffer from nervous and mental disorders.

To those interested in the welfare of children the volume for 1911 of the *Proceedings of the National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children* is replete with information. We are told in the preface that the purpose of the Association is to evolve and correlate methods by which the redeemable child may be saved to society and not allowed to become human waste. In the twenty papers contained in this volume there is much to interest the teacher. Dr. Marius Neustaedter of Bellevue Hospital, New York, affirms that the ætiological factors responsible for the exceptional child are (a) hereditary and (b) acquired. He discusses the mental and physical disabilities of the offspring of degenerate parents, and in this connection advocates radical methods for the prevention of the birth of criminals and insane, a thorough physical examination of every applicant for marriage license, sterilization and divorce. He claims that such remedies would solve a perplexing social problem. Dr. Eberhard W. Dittrich of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital, in his paper on the effects of transmitted skin diseases, urges a world-wide crusade for the instruction of young people in sex-hygiene to overcome the ignorance and superstition of people regarding vital social conditions. Another notable contribution, "The Identification, Location and Enumeration of the Misfit Child," contributed by the educational department of the Russell Sage Foundation

furnishes many illuminating data gathered from school records of children in twenty-nine cities. These data give the essential facts for comparing the age-method and the progress-method of computing retardation. Dr. Maximilian P. E. Groszmann urges in his paper on "The Backward Child" the further development of the social conscience in the sane treatment of the exceptional child, and aims at showing that there is a difference between arrested development, which can go no further, and retarded development which may produce power and genius. Dr. Groszmann urges the co-operation of educational, medical, and social workers for child-uplift. There are two papers on defects in speech and hearing and two on the care and education of children in the home, both of which are worthy of special attention.

In his capacity as Chancellor of the University of Bombay His Excellency the Governor of Bombay has addressed a lengthy letter to the Vice-Chancellor on the proper utilization of the non-recurring grant of three lakhs made to the University by the Government of India. Sir George Clarke is a far-seeing man and realises what reforms should be effected in the existing Indian Universities in order to develop them into real teaching institutions. "It should be realized," says His Excellency, "that the duties of a University do not begin and end with examinations and conferring of degrees thus lapsing as soon as a student is graduated. A living University should not concern itself with its students alone. It should be an intellectual force in the State, spreading knowledge and creating an atmos-

phere in which culture and research in all varied departments of human learning can continuously grow and flourish." With a view to make a beginning in the direction of developing the Bombay University into a teaching institution it is suggested that brilliant scholars of accepted authority should be invited to come to India during the cold weather and deliver courses of lectures at Bombay and Poona. A similar thing has already been done in the Calcutta University. Professor Schuster delivered during one winter a course of lectures on the History of Modern Physics and Dr. Walker delivered during another winter a course of lectures on Modern Theories of Electro-magnetism. Besides these Professor Yamakami from Japan delivered in connection with the University of Calcutta a course of lectures on Buddhism from Sanskrit sources. Bombay and Madras would do well to imitate the sister University of Calcutta. The worth of a University is at the present day measured not by the number of graduates it turns out but by the amount of original work done by its professors and research students. As Sir William Ramsay pointed out in a recent address, "the only value of a degree consisted in the eminence of the men who bestowed it, and when neither the examiners who tested the powers of the students nor the members of the supreme body of the University could claim distinction, the degree was of little value." This easily accounts for the fact why the degrees of Indian Universities have little value in the academic world. A well-equipped library is an absolute necessity for every true University, and indeed, as Carlyle remarked in his well-known rectorial address, the true University is a library of books and all that good

professors can be expected to do is to teach their students how best to utilize the books in the library.

All new universities to be established in India should profit by the lessons of the past, and should be teaching universities. If such be the case, there would seem to be no reason for being disappointed with the decision of the Government to limit the scope of the proposed Hindu and Moslem Universities to the localities in which they may be established. There is nothing to be lost by this limitation. The privilege that must be secured for these universities is that all their staffs shall consist of Indians, for then alone they would constitute real Indian universities. The Calcutta University has granted this privilege for the Palit Laboratory to be soon established in Calcutta. There could be no reason why a similar privilege should not be conferred by the Government on the Hindu and Moslem Universities.

It is to be regretted that ill-health should have compelled Rao Bahadur M. Rangachariar to apply for long leave. And it is

A questionable appointment. even more to be regretted that in the choice of his *locum tenens*, the authorities concerned should have been so very unhappy. The Sanskrit Professorship of the Presidency College is a coveted post. We had hoped that nothing but considerations of real merit would avail in the selection of a suitable incumbent. We are sorry we cannot congratulate Government on the choice they have made. It is difficult to understand how the claims of the reputed author of "Raghuvamsa Vimarsa" came to be ignored. If literary attainments of a high order, critical and scientific acumen,

and a wide range of experience and success in the Educational Department are, indeed, qualifications for the post, he possessed them in an eminent degree. In Sanskrit scholarship, Mr. Krishnamachariar will hold his own with the best among the Oriental scholars of the old type. With undoubted erudition, he combines considerable originality of thought and striking modern methods of exposition and research in this field. It is lamentable that talents such as his should have gone for nothing, and that legitimate appreciation and encouragement, which were his due, should have been withheld from him. The late Hon'ble Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyar was a keen lover of Sanskrit learning. His testimony may have some special interest. In his introduction to the work abovementioned he spoke of Mr. Krishnamachariar and his work in these terms :—

"Mr. Krishnamachariar has endeavoured to set an example to the world of present-day Pundits in the art of true criticism in the field of Sanskrit literature. He has called to his aid the taste and culture he has acquired by the study of the masters of literary criticism in English literature.....He writes a charming style. There is so little genuine Prose in Sanskrit that Mr. Krishnamachariar cannot be said to have any models for the happy grouping of words and phrases which flow from the tip of his pen.....He has shown that it is possible for the present-day writer in a dead language to combine gracefulness of style with the expression of novel ideas and the charm of figurative language.....He has done good service to the Sanskrit-reading public and to the large majority of Pundits by setting before them a fine model of Sanskrit composition to appreciate and emulate. He has also opened up a new prospect to the Pundit of appreciation and enjoyment of the works of the masters of Sanskrit literature by a critical examination of the canons of true Poetry and the extent to which the classical poets of India have tapped the openings of literary enjoyment in the delineation of scenes and characters, human passions and the beauties of nature."

Mr. Krishnamachariar's celebrity by the publication of his work was not merely provincial. Sir Gurudas Bannerji commended the thought and erudition of the author and the laudable aims of the work. *Mahamahopadyaya* Hariprasad Sastri, Principal of the Sanskrit College, Calcutta, eulogised the author's style and diction. Justice Sarada Charan Mitter was taken by the æsthetic taste displayed by the author's critical notes. The great Pundits of Northern India honoured him with the title of *Vidyanidhi*. In the Department, in which Mr. Krishnamachariar has now put in some years' service as Superintendent of Sanskrit Schools, he has endeavoured to give an impetus to the wider study and the sounder learning of the language, and his efforts these years have proved an undoubted success. In fact, he has displayed a zeal and enthusiasm for the promotion of Sanskrit learning in various ways and has deserved well on all hands. We are not inclined to question the course of preferment or the bestowal of patronage. Under ordinary circumstances, we should have scrupulously avoided any dispute about an appointment once made, and that by Government. But when we find real merit and legitimate claims overridden by considerations which are difficult to divine, and more so to realise or appreciate, we think we should not be silent, if not in individual interests, at least in the larger interests of Oriental learning and Oriental study.

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THE NEGLECT OF THE VERNACULARS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

A retired and esteemed educationist writes:—

THERE is a widespread cry that proper attention is not paid to the study of the vernaculars by the student population in Southern India and that the responsibility for this state of things rests with the University. We propose to show that the University has done all that it could do and ought to do for the encouragement of the study and that the causes of the neglect are to be sought for elsewhere.

I

One of these causes is the position assigned to the vernaculars in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate public examination. The S. S. L. Certificate is a record of the work which a student has been doing for three years just preceding his leaving the High School. It shows the marks which he has obtained at a public examination at the end of these three years as well as those which have been assigned to him by the various teachers in the school in certain subjects in which no public examination is held. The certificate is divided into three parts—A, B, and C. The marks obtained by the student at the public examination in certain subjects,

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viz., English, Vernacular Translation and Composition, and Elementary Mathematics, in all of which every student must undergo the public examination, are given under Part A. Part B is a record of the average of the three years' work he has done in the school in certain other subjects, viz., Elementary Science, History of India, Geography and Drawing. Part C shows the marks obtained at the public examination in certain optional subjects, two at least of which should be brought up by every student. It is only in this last part that Sanskrit and the vernaculars as such find a place. There is very little inducement for a student to choose Sanskrit or vernacular here in preference to a large number of more attractive, and, in his eyes and in the eyes of his parents, more useful, subjects such as Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Mathematics and English History.

Thus, at this stage, there is no public examination in the vernaculars to which every student is compulsorily subjected and any one who knows that the Indian student never cares to learn anything that does not pay at an examination will hardly wonder that the vernacular study is neglected in secondary schools in the Presidency. It is the framers of the S. S. L. C. scheme and the Government which accepted it that are responsible for the indirect discouragement of the

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study of the vernaculars in the Secondary Schools. There is no reason to complain whatever against the University. The University, on the other hand, so far from giving a cold shoulder to the vernaculars had made an adequate provision for their study in the High Schools by making them compulsory in the Matriculation examination. Some time after the University had settled the Matriculation and other courses there came the proposal from the Government to the University to accept the S. S. L. Certificate in lieu of its own Matriculation, and the offer was only too eagerly accepted, because the University was afraid that its income would be affected by this formidable rival of an examination, formidable, because the Government declared that the University Matriculation would no longer be a passport for Government appointments. To make the offer still more tempting, the Government agreed to pay to the University the whole of the net income from the S. S. L. C. examination. Since then every High School in the Presidency has given up teaching for the University Matriculation examination, and the Matriculation survives only in the Native State of Mysore which has not yet instituted its own School Final Examination. The Secondary schools in the Presidency, managed, as they are, with a sole eye to economy, at once drove away the Pandit as one whose services were no longer needed and the work of teaching translation and composition was thrown on the other teachers to do it or not as they pleased. If the Matriculation examination had not been replaced by the S. S. L. C. examination, there would have been no occasion for the present cry of 'Vernaculars in danger' or at least, for raising it so loudly in the Senate of the University.

II.

There is no denying that the student population in Southern India did, as a rule, pay very little attention to the study of their vernaculars even at the best of times, in their University career but the causes of this lie deeper. In the University of Bombay the vernaculars find no place at all in the University courses beyond the Matriculation, and those who wish to proceed to the Degree examinations always take up either Sanskrit or a modern foreign language even for the Matriculation, so that very few even of the Matriculation candidates bring up the vernaculars, and yet the vernacular (*i.e.*, the Mahrathi and Guzarati) literature is in a flourishing condition in the Bombay Presidency. In Mysore, again, where the conditions, so far as the University examinations are concerned, are identical with those in Madras, the vernacular (Canarese) literature is progressing by leaps and bounds. If the Bengali literature has been very widely cultivated it is not due to the fact that it has been a compulsory subject in the University examinations, for, if it were so, the vernacular literature should have been in an equally, if not in a more, flourishing condition in the Madras Presidency also, where the vernaculars were being compulsorily studied by the University students till only the other day. We must therefore look to other causes than the encouragement of, or indifference on the part of the University towards, these languages. These causes are, I think, to be found in the character of the people themselves. The masses of the people of the Bombay Presidency and other parts of India though no less enlightened than those of the Madras Presidency, do not care to learn English or

to adapt themselves to the ways of the Europeans in order to please them so much as the people of Madras. The knowledge of the English language displayed by even the petty shop-keeper in Southern India is a matter of wonder to many a foreigner, and the veriest villager here mixes up English words quite freely with his vernacular. In Bombay even the English educated man scrupulously avoids the use of English words when conversing in the vernacular, and the ordinary business transactions are carried on by the people in Mahrathi or Guzarati. They are too proud and self-respecting to try to please the European by speaking *his* language. The Europeans, in those parts, therefore, are compelled to learn the language of the people and the civilian and other officers are able to converse with the people in Mahrathi or Guzarati and cannot get on without doing so, and I believe the same is the case in the northern parts of India also; whereas, in the Madras Presidency, a European can go through his whole official or other career without having to learn a single word of the language of the people. The proceedings in all the Courts are carried on in English and the tendency is more and more to make the English language, as it were, the home language in highly educated Indian families. The English educated Indian here is too proud to descend to the level of the masses and be of service to them, and too prone to please and flatter the European. He can praise power to its face, although in his heart of hearts he may despise it as the power of the "*mlechhas*." The case is somewhat different in the Province of Mysore. There, though the people resemble the Madrasees in character, yet they carry on their transactions mostly in the vernacular, chiefly because the Government itself being native,

the number of European officers is comparatively small. Yet even here there is a growing tendency to carry on all the official and even private correspondence even between Indians themselves in English only, and the art of writing letters and petitions in the vernacular is becoming forgotten.

This accommodating character of the Madrasee (I mean no offence to anybody) is a great hindrance to the advancement of the vernaculars. All that the so-called educated ordinary Madrasee cares for is to get an appointment, to study the whims and caprices of his superior and to stand well in his estimation. When he has secured the good graces of his master, he, true to the instincts of such a nature, becomes in his turn a tyrant and, if possible, oppresses his countrymen for his own gain, or at least, has no sympathy for his poorer fellow-subjects. Few rich men realise that their wealth is a trust for the service of the society. When a rich man on his death-bed, feeling the force of this obligation, bequeaths a part of his wealth for charity of any kind, his heirs and executors do not give effect to that part of the will. The spirit of social service and self-sacrifice is a thing known to few, or if it is apparent anywhere, its motive force, consciously or unconsciously, is still a desire for titles and recognition from the high-placed officers of Government. Nothing stirs Madras so much as the existence or prospect of a vacancy in the higher appointments, and the so-called 'public' man leaves no stone unturned to secure it for himself or for one in whom he is interested. The Madrasee does nothing which ultimately does not pay and neither the students nor their parents care

for the vernaculars the utility of studying which is not quite evident.

(To be continued.)

THE EDUCATIONIST IN SOUTHERN INDIA—II.

IN an article on the above subject we had occasion to point out a few months ago* that the educationist had been relegated in Southern India to a position of obscurity and neglect. Even in the educational world his influence was allowed to prevail only in a very slight degree and there was the lamentable sight of non-educationists posing themselves as specialists even in matters affecting school and University life. The situation was surveyed in the last article with special reference to the Madras University but the remarks apply with equal force to almost every department of public life with which the educationist can presume to be connected.

It is by no means necessary to show at any greater length that the condition of the educationist does not reflect any credit either on his manly spirit of independence or on his anxiety to maintain the prestige of his vocation. We would only suggest that it is idle for the educationist to go on condemning the community for not according to him the status to which he is entitled by the nobility of his calling and the eminence of his achievements. The prospect of raising his dignity and importance rests entirely with himself and the measure of his success will depend on the efforts made by him to shake off this thralldom. He has only to realise a teaching

* See the April number of the *Educational Review*.

which he has often probably placed before his students :

The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,

But in ourselves that we are underlings.

It will be admitted at the outset that the educationist has to labour under two serious disabilities which check him perceptibly in his attempts to realise his purposes. There is at first the want of financial prosperity which prevents him from competing on equal terms with the lawyer who commands a lucrative practice and is able to find much easier the funds necessary for public life. Nor could he even boast of the circumstances necessary for the full play of independence. The favour of the educational department and the dignitaries who preside over the destinies of the University, who also generally happen to be officials, has often to be sought for at an expense of the spirit of independence. And he has often to give up all hopes of distinguishing himself even as a leader of educational movements.

The position of the educationist in private colleges is pitiable in one important aspect. His discretion is often fettered by his employers who do not generally happen to be overflowing with sympathy for the educationist. Colleges in Native States are still overridden by officialism; the Missionary manager bent keenly on his evangelical work or on a cautious policy of peace and compromise with the powers that be offers no encouragement to such a spirit; in colleges under Indian non-official management he is under the painful necessity of being subordinate to members of other professions. As far as the Indian educationist is concerned there is nowhere the existence of a position of independence in which he might enjoy the inestimable privilege of working for the realisation of his

own ideals and fighting for a recognition of his claims.

It is absurd to maintain that these disabilities can be removed in the near future to the entire satisfaction of the educationist. But it is easy to see the remedy is in his own hands. United action on the part of the educationists, an enthusiasm for raising their own status and an all-absorbing anxiety to grasp the things in life which ought to come to them as a matter of right—a combination of these active forces must serve to speed the goal.

Our observations in the last article have been understood in some quarters as an attempt to present the docile and indifferent educationist as one eminently qualified for discharging grave responsibilities in public life. And we are sorry such a construction should have been put upon what was an effort to open the eyes of the educationist in Southern India to the condition to which he has fallen. The environment has indeed often expressed distinct signs of antipathy and an utter unwillingness to recognise even legitimate claims. But the educationist is by no means free from blame when we come to regard his attitude of quietness and indifference which have deservedly brought him down to his present low position. We hope it is consistent with the highest ideals of one's own profession to dwell on the weaknesses of its members. The patience and want of ambition of the schoolmaster have been proverbial in almost all the countries of the world, but the Indian educationist seems to be a being very hard to rival in meekness and docility. Beyond the work imposed by the routine of his class work, and that which is immediately related to it, he has enthusiasm for nothing else. Do publicists

indulge in schemes of educational reforms and lay violent hands on his department,—he will be a passive spectator taking his chances in life. Does he feel keenly for any grievances to which he is subject,—he will appeal to other people or consent to be wronged. Is there any general disability clogging the wheels of the progress of his brethren, he shall not be troubled by it and be drawn into united action, but take care of the berth he holds himself. He will not make even the little sacrifices necessary for encouraging organizations intended to advance the prestige of his profession as there is no anxiety to realise the sacredness of the duty owed by every individual member. A dread of publicity and a mistaken sense of modesty are other influences contributing to a quietism of the most baneful type. And the consequence is the present state of degradation.

We are sure it is not too much to plead for an introduction of the reformation in habits necessary for altering this mode of life. Without any desire to make much of small things we would maintain that this spirit must be manifest even in small details. Entering into the membership of social clubs with a view to gain recognition in society; the maintenance of the external dignity that ought to be associated with at least those who have risen high up in their profession; a resolution to fight out the rights of the profession when they are assailed from other quarters, without being over-awed by material and official dignity—these would seem to be some of the steps necessary for such a consummation. Active and vigorous work in the cause of organizations like *The Teachers' Guild* and *The South India Teachers' Union* is no mean asset. The immediate programme can be mapped out

with some clearness. There must be united action on the part of educationists to acquire for themselves all the positions of honour and responsibility that lie open before them; there must be a steady effort to free the educationist from the trammels of non-educationist authority and control in all educational institutions; and his voice must be made to predominate as far as possible at least in the councils of the educational world. As we have pointed out at the beginning it is possible for educationists to achieve valuable results in the direction by steady, organised and enthusiastic work. When occasions rise for changes in the personnel of the University,—Fellowships are contested; Syndicate memberships fall vacant and the University has the opportunity of representing itself in Legislative Councils, let the educationist be not only in evidence, but guard jealously the prestige of his profession working enthusiastically for the advancement of its members. The principle of the undesirability of non-educationist interference in the administration of institutions must be insisted upon. As the Government and the University have all along been anxious to render all possible help in the matter, it will not be a difficult task for the educationist to achieve the aim in the near future. In view of the ground that has already been allowed to be encroached upon by others, the educationist should even be justified in adopting an aggressive attitude to gain his proper position. But will the educationists in South India rise equal to the occasion?

(To be continued.)

P. SESHADRI.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

WHAT will India say to the simplified spelling scheme put forward by the Simplified Spelling Society in London, a branch of which has been established in Madras? In our own vernaculars we never had any difficulties about spelling. A child learning Tamil or Telugu never undergoes the drill in spelling which a child learning English has to undergo. For in the vernaculars the language of the book is pronounced almost exactly as it is spelt and not as it is pronounced in the spoken living language. But in English the language of the book is pronounced as it is pronounced in the spoken living language but not as it is spelt. So that in the vernaculars there is a divergence between the book language and the spoken language, whereas in English there is a divergence between pronunciation and spelling. The English pronounce their words as 20th century men but spell them as Elizabethans. We, on the other hand, speak like 20th century men but write our books in the language of our great-great-grand-fathers. Our position is of course more deplorable, for the language of our current literature is no longer the mirror of the thoughts and feelings of the living generation. But as English is not confined to England, and especially as it has become a great unifying bond between the various provinces of our country and as it is learnt in our schools with considerable trouble incidental to the learning of a foreign tongue, any spelling reform which will lighten the burden of our children should be welcome to us. All the more so as it will incidentally teach correct pronunciation also.

The inconsistencies of the present spelling are notorious enough. The present notation sins against the principles of an ideal orthography in every conceivable way. There are

cases in which the same sound is represented by several signs, e.g.:

- (1) cat, kitten, queer, extra;
- (2) shall, sure, machine, mention, special, ocean, version, mission, conscience, anxious;
- (3) be, pea, seed, cede, key, quay, police, receive;
- (4) go, foe, rode, road, bureau, yeoman, sew, brooch, though, soul, know;
- (5) due, duke, feud, lewd, viewd, you, ewe, beauty, suit.

On the other hand there are cases in which the same sign represents several sounds, e.g.,

- (1) sit, easy, sure, leisure;
- (2) chat, machine, monarch;
- (3) bit, bind, sir;
- (4) head, heart, pea, pear, real;
- (5) woman, women, go, son, shone.

There are again cases in which sounds are written but not pronounced:

- (1) gnat, knife, half, doubt, autumn, high;
- (2) buoy, fatigue, guard.

And lastly there are double consonants which are pronounced single: *ebb, sadder, &c.* The system is so inconsistent that a foreigner can never infer the spelling from the pronunciation or the pronunciation from the spelling. The spelling of each word has to be memorised separately. No wonder then that one frequently comes across errors in spellings in the compositions of even our B.A. students who have had more than ten years of drilling. And what is worse, as it is not possible for the students to have heard the right pronunciation of all the words they come across in books, they occasionally resort to 'spelling-pronunciations.' The present writer has heard in colleges:—

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| (1) 'quay' pronounced in simplified spelling | (cwai) |
| victuals | „ „ (wicchyuels) |
| sew | „ „ (syue) |
| fiend | „ „ (fee-end) |
| marriage | „ „ (mariai) |

(2) frequent confusions of the voiced and fricative sounds of g in *gig, gibbet, target, gigantic.*

(3) silent letters pronounced in *kiln, seraglio, Christmas.*

(4) words like 'bridge, hedge,' etc., pronounced with 'd.'

N.B.—Here may be included the mispronunciation of suffixes in:—

(a) *dogs, days, claws, ages, horses, etc.*, where the Indian student invariably uses 's' not 'z.'

(b) *crossed, mixed, taxed, etc.*, where he uses 'd' not 't.'

Not to speak of the mispronunciation of such common French words as *eclat, debut, debris, &c.*

Still there is another evil. As the present spelling is no sure guide to the pronunciation there is nothing to check the tendency of the Indian student to replace English vowel-sounds by the vernacular sounds. He very often pronounces the vowels in the following words alike:—

hall, calm, star, father, laud.

And lastly the present chaotic spelling is partly responsible for the ridiculous mistakes and inconsistencies committed in transliterating Indian names of places, men, &c. Those who know the correct pronunciation of the following words will see the faulty notation employed:—

Adi Sessa: Veerasalingam; Rama Iyer; Naidu; Thyvasahayam.

Conversely these are the mistakes committed by Europeans when they pronounce Indian proper names owing to the imperfect notation especially want of symbols to represent quantity (or length). These are frequent causes of merriment in Indian circles.

Besides all the disadvantages enumerated above we have to take into account the enormous waste of time and energy involved in learning the present spelling at school not to

speak of the evil of drilling a young mind in unreason. If, on the other hand, simplified spelling is adopted the words will be written almost as they are pronounced and hence no effort is required on the part of the child to learn spelling in English any more than in the vernaculars. Or, to put it in the language of the Elementary Teachers, "English like the vernaculars will have no spelling."

It may be asked 'If you are bent upon a change in the present spelling, why not reform it altogether and give us a purely scientific phonetic system?' Well, we would if we could. But there are many difficulties in the way. First, such elaborately nice distinctions of sounds as a phonetic system would involve, require a trained ear which few possess and are unnecessary for practical purposes. Secondly, it would mean the introduction of new letters, or the adding of diacritics to old letters, or inverting them or using them in an unfamiliar way.

This will hinder the ease with which we write. Even the dotting of i's is at present a hindrance to rapid writing. But if here an *e* is to be inverted and there a diacritic added to *o* to denote the open sound or two dots are to be placed after a vowel to show its length, the system has very little chances of becoming popular. Further a page written in any phonetic script, say that of the International Phonetic Association, cannot be deciphered except by a trained eye. To a layman it is almost like Hieroglyphic. Besides all this, we have to take into account that any change in the present alphabet, defective as it is, will upset the types of the printing-presses and the type-writing machines. It will also disturb the Telegraphic Code.

The simplified spelling overcomes all these difficulties while remaining phonetic for all

practical purposes. It is based on the principle of least disturbance. It analyses all the vowel and consonant sounds in the language and assigns to each of them that symbol by which it is most frequently represented. When once the symbol is thus chosen it is exclusively appropriated to that sound and extended to all the words in which it occurs. What is more natural than that

<i>a</i>	should represent the vowel sound in	mat
<i>e</i>	"	bet
<i>i</i>	"	pit
<i>o</i>	"	pot?

u has two sounds viz., that in 'but' and 'good.' These have to be distinguished. So 'u' has been chosen to represent the vowel in 'but' always; and *oo* to represent that in 'good' always. Proceeding this way, the scholars who constitute the Simplified Spelling Society have chosen

<i>aa</i>	to represent the vowel sound in	father
<i>ai</i>	"	maid
<i>au</i>	"	laud
<i>ee</i>	"	feel
<i>ie</i>	"	die
<i>oe</i>	"	foe
<i>uu</i>	"	food
<i>ou</i>	"	mount
<i>oi</i>	"	coin
<i>yue</i>	"	due.

Consonants mostly remain as they are. But these points are to be noted—

(1) *k*, *q* and *x* are to be discarded and their place supplied by *c* and *cs* (*x*).

(2) *j* represents the sound in

<i>wh</i>	"	jet
<i>zh</i>	"	whim
<i>ch</i>	"	vision
<i>th</i>	"	church
	"	this & thing.

(3) No consonant is retained which is not pronounced.

To avoid unfamiliar notation and to make allowance for differences in pronunciations and to conciliate the orthodox, the following concessions are made:—

(1) *r* is left untouched wherever it occurs in the spelling of to-day except where it is doubled.

(2) 'th' represents both the voiced and the voiceless sound.

(3) in the case of *ee*, *ie* and *oe* the second letter may be omitted when the group ends a word or is preceded by a vowel.

N.B.—This concession will retain the present spelling of such familiar words as:—

I, me, he, she, we & be.

(4) *ur* unstressed is represented by *er*.

The rules may appear formidable on paper but any one who tries to understand the system in a sympathetic spirit with the examples and key-words given in the charts of the Society, will have no trouble in mastering it in an hour.

A few objections that are frequently raised against spelling reform may be answered. Some of these are respectable, others frivolous. To the latter class belong the arguments that the new spelling is queer and ugly, that we got on well enough hitherto with the old spelling, that education should not be made too easy for children, &c., &c. These require no answer. To turn to the others:

Firstly, it is said that, according to the simplified spelling, words of the same sound, now spelt differently, would be spelt alike which would lead to confusion.

Ex.—right, write, rite; night, knight.

The answer to this objection is that what gives no trouble in the spoken language cannot give trouble in its written form. After all what is written should bear reading aloud. If 'knight' and 'night' lead to no confusion in speech there cannot be any confusion in writing either. Moreover even in the present spelling there are many words spelt alike but different in meaning.

XVIII

Ex.—light (× dark; × heavy).

Secondly, we are told that a change in the spelling would obscure the derivation.

Before proceeding to an answer it may be remarked at the outset that the objection is raised only by those who never think of derivation and historical grammar. It is only specialists and scholars that are interested in such things; and they are all advocates of the reform as may be seen from the list of members of the Society. Well, the simplified spelling does obscure the etymology in some cases. What of that? As a set-off it makes the etymology clearer in certain other cases. If the form 'niet' (night) obscures its connection with German *Nacht* it makes 'sent' (scent) closer to Latin 'sentio,' &c., &c. Moreover even if the proposed spelling is adopted, the present spelling will still be available for purposes of reference for the student of language. In fact if the student of language is allowed to speak for himself, he will tell you how much he is plagued by the present spelling when he comes to study the New English period. In the Old English period the forms of words were mostly phonetic, in M. E. period they were fairly phonetic; but in N. E. they are anything but phonetic. So in the latter case he has always to employ double forms, one in the modern spelling and the other in phonetic script in brackets so that the development of sounds may be regularly represented to the eye.

Thirdly, it is said that the generation brought up under the new system will be entirely cut off from our past literature unless it is republished in the new style. This would really be a heavy calamity. But we have not yet ceased to read Shakespeare, Chaucer, Malory, etc., who did not spell as we do. No. Wherever possible and necessary the books

written in the existing spelling will be republished and even in the case of those which will not be so 'modernised' it will not be difficult for a man brought up under the new system to make them out. It is exactly to reduce this difficulty to a minimum that the Society has taken care to propose a reform on the principle of least disturbance.

Fourthly, it is maintained that spelling is of natural growth and cannot be fixed by the arbitrary fiat of a small section of pedants. To begin with, if the present spelling were of natural growth we should have no quarrel with it. It is because it has ceased to grow and was fixed more or less arbitrarily by the printing press at the beginning of N. E. period that we want to re-adjust it to the living speech. Further, in modern times, we see how Germany and Holland have succeeded in reforming their spelling.

Fifthly, it is urged that as the sounds of a living language are constantly undergoing a change, even the reformed spelling will be out-of-date some years hence. To this it may be answered at the outset that the conditions of modern life in England—compulsory primary education, cheap literature, etc.—will reduce the rate of the sound change very considerably in future. If to these a phonetic alphabet is added the rate will be further reduced. But what if the rate is not reduced? What if two or three generations hence a re-adjustment is again called for? It will be an easy business if there is a consistent notation at hand.

Sixthly, it may be asked 'If the pronunciation is the sole key to spelling which pronunciation will you adopt?' There is no uniformity of pronunciation among the English-speaking people. Northern English is different from Southern, and American is different from both. It is admitted that this is a serious objection. But to us in this country Southern

English has always been the standard; and the variations are not very many. So it is best that alternative forms are allowed where differences exist.

The last and the most serious of objections is, curiously enough, never raised by the opponents of the Society. It is raised by the Society itself. It is an honest confession of a drawback in the system. We refer to the notation of the vowels in the unstressed syllables. Heretofore there are two varieties of pronunciation—the deliberate and the ordinary. In ordinary pronunciation almost all the vowels are weakened to 'e'; in the deliberate pronunciation some are weakened and some are not. How are these to be represented? The introduction of the obscure vowel involves the introduction of a new letter and also a change in the familiar forms of words. To avoid this 'e' has been suggested in some cases. For the present, however, the Society uses the existing vowels as they are, in unstressed syllables. This is not very satisfactory. For, in that case, the principle of good orthography, viz., 'one symbol one sound' will be violated.

Ex. Method, children, proposal.

However, for the present it may be said that the Society has gone far enough in its proposals. If its simplified spelling is universally adopted:

(1) The burdens of children will be lightened.

(2) There will be more chances of English, with its phonetic spelling added to its easy grammar and flexible syntax, becoming an international language.

(3) It will be possible to teach correct pronunciation.

(4) We shall have a more convenient instrument for purposes of comparison and transliteration.

D. SUBRAHMANYA SARMA.

A NOET ON SPELING REFORM.

IT iz asyuemd that the reederz ov this noet, the bulc ov huum ar scuul-masterz, simpathez with the aimz ov the simplified speling sosiety. The defects ov the English alfabet and ov English speling ar the stoc-in-traid of every teecheer ov gramar. Mi imeediat object in rieting this noet iz tu plais bifor mi coleegz a spesimen ov the speling we advocait. We contend that the speling propoezd bi the reformerz iz so simpl that any wun can reed boocs in which the simplified speling iz adopted without eny difficulty. Wun duz not eeven need tu hav the scem ov the nyu speling bifor wun to reed it. Az for rieting it, haaf-an-our'z practis iz aul that iz needed. It thairfor bihoevz every reeder ov the *Educaishonal Revyu* hu haz not been repeld bi the meer looc ov this noet, but hu haz had hiz cyuriozity stimyulait bi the novelty ov the speling and hu haz, I dair sai, red so far with eez, tu join our sosiety. If we bicum a larj body, we mai demaand whot we nou plead for. Hou much ov our tiem at scuul wud be saivd for real teecheing, which we nou spend in soel-oiling drill in the dictaishon-leson, if the reform can be introdyest at wuns!

P. T. SRINIVAS IYENGAR.

MADAME MONTESSORI AND CHILD EDUCATION.

FOR a long time, the application of scientific methods to problems on education has been considered by many educationists. Among such workers stands marked out an Italian teacher and physician, Maria Montessori, who has evolved a method for the education of small children as the result of her pedagogical research on scientific lines lasting over a period of fifteen years. She

began to investigate into the methods adopted towards mentally deficient children under medical treatment and she was led to think that it was necessary to allow the child to develop in its own way along its own lines and to that end a pedagogical treatment was to be preferred to a medical treatment. Her views came to be gradually recognised by the leading educationists in Italy. She established an all-day school in Rome for children who were mentally deficient. While she was thus treating the children pedagogically, there grew upon her the conviction that her methods of training feeble-minded children might as well be used for children of normal mental power. In time she was given permission to carry out her ideas in a practical way in the schools of Rome.

'Liberty' of Rousseau and 'Self-activity' of Froebel are the recognised methods of developing the minds of the young. Though the expressions 'Liberty' and 'Self-activity' were recognised as important factors in the normal development of a child, yet they conveyed only a vague idea of their full significance. Among children grouped in a class, no means of bringing them into practice was found. Madame Montessori has solved the difficulty by her practical methods. She says that "The liberty of the child has as its limit the collective interest; as its form, what we universally consider good breeding. We must therefore check in the child whatever offends or annoys others or whatever tends towards rough and ill-bred acts. But all the rest—every manifestation having a useful scope—whatever it be, and under whatever form it expresses itself, must not only be permitted, but must be observed by the teacher."

The salient feature in her method is that she considers the teacher as merely a passive agent rather than an active one. The active agent throughout is the child. The child is not considered a passive being to be taught. It is to be observed in a truly scientific spirit by the passive teacher. Psychologists claim two factors, internal and external, for the normal development of a child. While admitting that the main work of the teacher lies with the external factor, *i.e.*, with the surroundings of the child, Dr. Montessori lays special stress on the special treatment that the child will require consequent upon its individuality—the internal factor.

Her idea of a well-disciplined class is “a room in which all the children move about usefully, intelligently and voluntarily, without committing any rough or rude act.” The children in her class have no kind of restriction. They are allowed to move about freely as they like. They may sit where they like and act as if living in a room at home. They are at liberty to change their activities at their will and pleasure. Still good order is preserved in the class. The reason according to her is that there is abundance of materials with which the children can manifest their self-activity, in a self-checking manner—the materials chosen by her being such as to give a thorough training of all the senses.

Her system of education has been nationally adopted in Italy and Switzerland. In the slums of Rome she has established ‘Houses of Childhood.’ We hear that the London County Council Education Committee are going to give the system a trial and we shall anxiously await the results of their experiments.

It is interesting to note what an American

critic has recently remarked about the way in which her method of education is viewed by the present day educationists:—“Dr. Montessori’s critics and admirers have both done her injustice. On the one hand she has been hailed as an educational deliverer, and everything she does and approves has been branded as absolutely new and original. On the other hand it has been pointed out that there is really little original in her methods. But it is a mistake to suppose that she has nothing new to contribute. Dr. Montessori has devised a series of self-checking activities in connection with special apparatus, that keep the child occupied while permitting the teacher to do the more important work of studying the children for the purpose of discovering their capacities and needs. We can use the interest and enthusiasm aroused by her to teach again the old lesson that the form without the spirit is dead, to make us realize that although we have had kindergarten for many years, we have not made full use of the great idea of Froebel and Pestalozzi.”

S. GANAPATISUBRAMANYAM.

STORY-TELLING IN THE KINDERGARTEN CLASSES.

IT is a well-known fact that a child is always inquisitive and does not rest awhile unless its curiosity is satisfied. The way in which Nature appeals to its young mind is more or less likened to that in which she appeals to a poet. It is carried away by anything simple and beautiful. Romance has its own place in the mind of a child. A simple story told in a few sentences is heartily welcome and duly respected. A story of an

idle boy has its desired effect more than an abstract essay on idleness and its evil consequences.

The best method of the intellectual development of a young child is the story-telling. There should be no abstractions or morals squeezed out. A lengthy tale tires the young brain and leaves no marked influence behind. Allegory must be postponed to a later period in the development of a child’s mind.

To begin with, children in the first year course must be acquainted with short fables wherein human qualities are ascribed to the lower animals. Most of the stories chosen must be within the circle of the child’s experience. Stories from foreign literature may be given a new garb and presented to the youngsters. If they are presented in their natural colours, the interest is drawn away from them and the desired effect is lost sight of. Historical tales must be for a higher standard. Especially stories selected from foreign history must not find a place in the category of stories for at least four years of a child’s life in a school. For instance, the great Boer War for the Hindu children in the first year course, or the Siege of Paris in the second year course, or the Discovery of America in the third year course, and so forth, leaves no marked effect upon the recipients. It is not known why some of the educational institutions in our land insist upon the choice of such historical stories for the information of the young brain. The story of Rama and Sita appeals to our children more than that of Adam and Eve. The myths of the Rig Veda, the Puranas and Itihasas supply a fair field for the teacher of our infants. Much time must be devoted to the selection of the stories. Stories from

Indian history may perhaps begin in the third year course. Those for the fourth year may aim at a definite moral. In the fifth year, allegorical stories and those from foreign history may be welcome. In any case, horrible stories must not be resorted to, at any stage of infancy. The short stories may gradually be developed in length. Children may be encouraged in telling stories of their own accord. They may be given chances of reproducing the stories they heard or inventing their own.

Æsthetic taste must be gradually developed. Children must be trained to appreciate beautiful pictures and to frame their own stories out of them. Memory and imagination must be side by side cultivated. The teacher must never lose sight of these aims while he is engaged in his choice of stories.

But undue weight must not be attached to story-telling. “Excess is no less dangerous than scarcity.” The teacher must see that his stories do not confuse the minds of his young friends. Then alone he is making a proper use of his materials. Pictorial illustrations may be used whenever necessary. Dramatization does, at times, peculiarly impress the story upon the young mind. A resourceful teacher makes use of every material at hand for his purpose. There can be no hard and fast rules for story-telling. Much depends upon the teacher and upon the environments of the taught.

K. KRISHNAMACHARIAR.

THE VALUE OF DRAWING IN THE GENERAL EDUCATION.

MUCH importance is attached now-a-days to the value of Drawing as a means of developing the mental powers of children, especially along with the other subjects, they have to deal with.

Drawing is mostly connected with the sense of sight and touch through which we derive most of the knowledge we possess. The children are specially delighted in representing such of the familiar objects as come within their ordinary observation. This natural instinct should be carefully developed from their early days as to be a source of improvement in their own self.

A few strokes of the pencil put down on paper will give an idea which is more clear than any amount of description by words. The ability to reproduce the actual form and colour is absolutely necessary for the occupation chosen by the child later in life. So drawing has its own *practical* value and is as it were a "Shorthand of one's expression."

The child's powers of sight, mind and body must be carefully cultivated as to bring out a natural aptitude for drawing. The powers vary to a great extent, in children, so exercises must be devised, for strengthening the particular abilities of the hand and eye. They must create some interest in them. Imaginary drawing sharpens the observation, and may be practised a little in the beginning of the lesson. The teacher may confine himself to the exclusive use of free-arm movement at first, because an easy control of the muscles of the arm is acquired sooner than that of the wrist and fingers. Hence it is that sand is chosen as the medium for children to try their first attempts, it offering the least

resistance. When the child is able to grip better a soft yielding instrument such as charcoal, crayon, etc., may be used. The brush being a light flexible instrument responding to the slightest impulse of the will may be used next. When the child has obtained sufficient control over the muscles of the wrist and finger, lead pencil should be employed.

The aim of the teacher should be to try to create and cherish a love of drawing, especially where little liking for the subject is shown. So the child's mind should be excited and interest retained in the subject by introducing variety in the work. Let us see how these aims can be realised. Colour has great attraction for children and should therefore be employed largely in the earlier stages. They should deal with actual and interesting objects such as flowers, fruits and familiar toys. Children are greatly interested in drawing from actual things than from mere representations. Since variety is a very important factor in the teaching of elementary drawing, children's interest would be lost if they adhere to one style of drawing. When entirely new methods of expression are introduced such as colour, light and shade, there is difficulty for the children to understand its true meaning. The main principles of drawing are common to all forms of expressions, and practice in one method must promote proficiency in another.

The next important factor to be considered is the correlation of Drawing with the other subjects. The correlation may be in connection with (1) all the branches of hand and eye training, such as clay-modelling, paper-folding, wood-work, metal-work; (2) general subjects of instruction, i.e., writing,

arithmetic, mensuration, composition, geography, history, science. Correlation of work is an important factor in Kindergarten training. In the course of the solid work of the upper classes, chalk, brush-drawing and especially direct natural drawing should be taken up. In the lower forms the teacher must be chiefly concerned with laying the foundations of accurate observation and interpretation.

Imaginative and inventive drawing should also be encouraged, because it affords children opportunities and encouragement for their own free-will effort. The children should be educated to appreciate beauty of form and colour. The most ordinary objects, such as simple flowers, pictures, photographs, may be presented to them. Children may be taken to museums, picture-galleries, etc. In conducting a drawing lesson, it should be carefully arranged, so that a few difficulties are presented at a time. The practical teacher of drawing should be guided by the principles that should govern good teaching. Some teachers call the children's attention to all the points such as proportions and peculiarities of the figure and difficulties and how they should be met. As a result the children who are eager to make their own effort lose all interest in the lesson, as well as much of their time.

This method may result in a neat and uniform style of drawing, and afford a certain amount of practice to them, but it must be condemned as being uneducational. The teacher may have worked very hard, but the children have missed the opportunity of exercising their own observation, judgment and self-reliance. There is also the other extreme in which there is no guidance given at all by

the teacher. He places a copy or object before the children with the simple order that they should draw what they see. This method must be condemned also. It may be adopted occasionally as a form of test, but if continued long enough, the child must meet with difficulties which he cannot overcome and hence loses interest in the work. The teacher in the meantime finds so much to criticise and to correct that he too gives it up in despair. So a middle course between these extremes should be adopted. The exercise must be carefully chosen so as to be within the capacity of the average pupil. We should encourage the child to exercise his judgment to the utmost of his powers. Individual errors may be rectified by skilful questioning.

There ought to be a close relation between the teacher and the scholars in their work. Before calling attention to defects the teacher should acknowledge the merits of the work. A child is encouraged to do better, when he thinks that his earnest attempts are recognised by the teachers; criticism and correction of work should be done individually before the end of the lesson, for otherwise, a good drawing may pass unnoticed, or a bad drawing may escape censure and as a result, the general work will not improve. If the class is large enough individual criticism is a difficult one, and a system of marking may be simplified by some signs, such as a 'tick' for good, and a 'cross' for a bad work.

In the correction of drawings, the scoring of the work done by a child with a blue pencil often disheartens him; also it is a bad policy to make a great many corrections in the medium employed by the scholar for the child is likely to cheat himself into the belief that the result is due to his own efforts when

perhaps the only good parts of the drawing are those done by the teacher. The teacher should move quickly round the class while the work is in progress, paying extra attention to the weak students, attention should be called to faults but the exact nature of these should not be stated by the teacher. The child should be led to recognize them by means of questioning, if necessary, and to suggest the remedy himself.

When the error is of a technical nature, such as handling the pencil the teacher should pattern the drawing at the side of the child's work, leaving him to improve his own attempt. If the error be a common one, it must be made the subject of a class demonstration, and the same difficulty introduced in the next lesson. In this way there will be a gradual improvement, by the teacher's impression, made more prominent than by a system of marking and correction of exercises.

Hence drawing must occupy the best and the most prominent place in the school education, as it forms the basis of a sound and enlightened form of knowledge.

S. VENKATARAM IYER.

SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE SCHEME.

AS our readers are already aware, Shorthand and Typewriting forms one of the several subjects at the option of the students under Group C of the S. S. L. C. scheme; and, with a view to give their students as wide a scope as can possibly be done in the matter of a choice of subjects for their optionals, the headmasters of several schools have opened classes for the several subjects under this Group C and Shorthand and Type-

writing finds its own place here; but, perforce of circumstances in the matter of the number and the cost of Typewriters, as well as the contingencies pertaining to the adequate equipment of Typewriters, the students that desire to take up Shorthand and Typewriting as their optionals are charged an extra fee per instalment payable along with their school fees. Further, owing to a lack in the number of Typewriters required to give practice to all the students within the school hours and owing to the want of time also within that period covered by the school hours, classes for Typewriting are generally being held only outside school hours both in the morning and in the evening, the students being made to have their practice in batches. Thus, it is clear at once that the students that take up this Shorthand and Typewriting as their optional not only pay an extra school-fee but also spend an extra time in the school room giving an extra attendance.

Now what is the scope or the emolument that is in store for these youngsters who have so devotedly chosen these subjects for their optionals? (a) The Notification as published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* re the requirements for a complete S. S. L. C. specifically excludes Shorthand and Typewriting saying ".....any two optionals under Group C other than Shorthand and Typewriting." (b) Art. I of Public Service Notification, published in p. 94 of the *Fort St. George Gazette*, dated 6-2-'12 also excludes Shorthand and Typewriting under S.S.L.C. by saying "... (2) unless he has.....and in two optionals other than Shorthand and Typewriting.....or....." (c) The *Gazette Notification* re qualifications required of candidates intending to apply for the special test examinations also says " Art. 8

Except.....to all persons qualified under Art. 1 of Public Service Notification to hold appointments on Rs. 20 and upwards....." which therefore tantamounts to saying "open to holders of complete S. S. L. C. with two optionals other than *Shorthand and Typewriting*. (d) The special qualifications required under Art. 3 of Public Service Notification, p. 97 of the *Gazette*, referred to above for special appointments as typists in Government offices or Shorthand writers in Judicial Courts do not make any mention of these S. S. L. C. men with Shorthand and Typewriting as their optionals but explicitly declare "Government Technical Examinations in Shorthand and Typewriting" and grade the salaries of the typists according to the Elementary, the Intermediate or the Advanced Tests the candidates might have succeeded in.

And Managers of Commercial Firms and Railway Authorities also seem to take their cue from the *Gazette* Notifications alluded to above in the matter of Shorthand and Typewriting under the S. S. L. C. scheme and seem to neglect them accordingly.

Thus it is clear that when the candidate with Shorthand and Typewriting as his optional under the S. S. L. C. scheme 'asks for bread,' 'he is given a stone' in all the possible directions wherein he may be likely to be employed as typist, shorthand-writer or shorthand typist.

If this is so, the question naturally props up—(1) Why and how this Shorthand and Typewriting has been introduced as one of the several optionals under Group C of the S. S. L. C. scheme? and (2) Why has our benign Education Department been so very liberal as to give a munificent grant to the school authorities with the express mention

of the words "for the purchase of typewriters, etc."

It may be argued in support of the already existing state of affairs that Shorthand and Typewriting are mechanical arts and consequently they do not carry any cultural value with them. Others may argue almost in the same strain and even go so far as to add that even then, Shorthand and Typewriting have not at all been neglected inasmuch as special provisions are made for posts of typists and Shorthand writers in Government offices as per Section 2 of Public Service Notification and so it needs no further consideration about it. Let it be immediately said here that this latter point of argument fails when one sees that this provision is for persons holding certificates in Shorthand and Typewriting under the Government Technical Examination scheme and not for those under the S. S. L. C. scheme. Now coming to the question that Shorthand and Typewriting are only mechanical arts, such a great man as Sir Albert Rollit, M.A., M.P., President, Commercial Education Committee, London Chamber of Commerce, in the course of an address that he delivered on the presentation of prizes at the Business Exhibition Show of 1908 has said that he has been told that Shorthand is a mechanical art and that he would in reply say "that a good shorthand writer will correct his Principal by taking off all his Principal's tautology, that he ought to be a good grammarian and above all he understands the principles of punctuation. What would be obscure and unintelligible happens to be corrected if the Shorthand writer grasped the meaning of his dictator, and so he is intelligent, educated and a thorough grammarian if he is only a good shorthand writer."

Therefore in point of fair play and justice to Shorthand and Typewriting under the S. S. L. C. scheme and in consideration of the time devoted and the ardent desire evinced by the student that has taken up this optional subject in spite of the extra fee and of the extra school attendance that it entails, let us hope that our worthy and able Director of Public Instruction who is so much interested and watchful in the good working of the S. S. L. C. scheme, will be pleased to take up this matter actively and to suggest to the Government to make an alteration in Clause 1 of Art. 1 of Public Service Notification alluded to above by removing the words "other than Shorthand and Typewriting" after "optionals" and insert the word "any" before the words "two optionals" so that as per alterations indicated this will read "[Holders of Complete School Leaving Certificates with any two optionals under Group C" and a similar alteration and insertion made in the other Notifications alluded to above and thus place Shorthand and Typewriting under S. S. L. C. scheme on a footing of equality with any other subject made mention of under Group C therein.

T. S. VAIDYANATHA AIYAR.

A REJOINDER.

To

THE EDITOR,
"EDUCATIONAL REVIEW,"
MADRAS.

DEAR SIR,

I beg to acknowledge receipt of a copy of the July number of your valuable journal in which a review of my *Elements of Morals* appears. I must thank Rao Bahadur S. Mangesh Rau for his kind estimate of my book; but I must mention at the same time that his criticism of 'the faulty psychology' involved in the doctrine of an intuitive conscience does not apply to me, as will appear from the following quotations from his review and my book:—

The Rao Bahadur writes: "It is strange, therefore, to find Prof. Mitra, in defiance of all modern discoveries in psychology, favouring the intuitionist theory in its traditional dogmatic form and maintaining that 'conscience' is an 'original faculty' of the mind: it is 'reason intuitively discovering the fundamental principles of morality by the application of which to particular cases we decide questions of right and wrong.' "It is, so to speak," says he, "the light which discloses the moral qualities of acts." Again "Conscience is intelligence intuitively revealing the moral principles. This intuitive exercise of intelligence is not the same as the inferential process which enables us to find out the moral qualities of particular acts. If a moral judgment be incorrect the error lies in the inferential process, in the application of a moral principle and not in its apprehension." He further regards conscience as an elementary faculty and takes up the position which

Calderwood occupied when the 'faculty hypothesis' was prevalent in psychology, and the mind was regarded as a box with so many water-tight compartments—the faculties—each independent of the others. He says further on: "Conscience always discovers moral principles *aright* and so it *cannot be educated*." (The italics are ours). This is opposed to the theory of evolution as applied to the human mind. To regard 'conscience' as infallible and as laying down the moral rules once for all is to forget the history of civilisation and of the development of human society. It is strange that such an opinion should be maintained by a writer in this twentieth century when the science of psychology has been developed by the investigations of William James, G. F. Stout and other eminent psychologists." (P. 286.)

The doctrine of faculties is explained in the *Elements of Morals* thus:—

"The modern threefold classification of mental powers or faculties into intellect, feeling and will, introduced by Tetens and emphasized by Kant, is generally accepted now-a-days by moralists and psychologists. The different faculties of the mind merely imply, however, different exercises of one and the same mind. We do not notice the faculties as independent entities lying in different chambers of the soul. They are merely inferred from the essentially heterogeneous character of certain mental exercises. When we carefully examine the facts of consciousness we find that they are ultimately resolvable into three prominent classes, viz., (a) those which are characterized by the preponderance of assimilation, discrimination, and association; (b) those which are marked prominently by pleasure or pain; and (c) those which

indicate dominant active tendencies in the shape of blind impulses or rational choice. Consciousness, which is the expression of the mind, is ultimately one involving the co-presence of all the factors—cognitive, emotional, and volitional. Had all these factors been always combined in the same proportion, then it would never have been possible for us to discover their difference. But, as a matter of fact, we find that they are generally combined in varying proportions, revealing their distinctness. We find, for example, thought and moral judgment characterized by the prominence of assimilation and discrimination, though involving, to a less extent, elements of feeling and will in the shape of interest and attention. Similarly, the æsthetic or moral sentiment illustrates prominently the agreeable or disagreeable aspect of experience, though the intellectual elements of assimilation and discrimination as well as the volitional elements of attention and activity are also involved in a subordinate degree. Volition too illustrates the preponderance of the active factor in the shape of striving and choice, though the assimilation and discrimination of means and ends as well as elements of pleasure and pain are also present to a certain extent. Thus, when we characterize a certain mental exercise as intellectual, emotional, or volitional, all that we mean is that the predominant feature is so and that the elements of the other two are not wanting altogether. This is quite in keeping with the unitary conception of the self or ego, which can never be physically partitioned or absolutely separated into parts. If the self is essentially one, its characteristics must always be present, though in different degrees in different cases. A prominent exercise of the one excludes, for the time

being, an equally intense exercise of the other faculties. It is not left to us to increase mental energy as a whole, though we can divert energy from one direction to another. When, therefore, the mind is exercised prominently in one direction, it means that it cannot be exercised to the same extent in other directions at the moment. Intense thought precludes violent feeling and energetic action at the time. Similarly, acute feeling is not compatible with calm thinking and vigorous action; nor does vigorous action permit then cool deliberation and intense feeling. Thus, we postulate the existence of different faculties to account for facts of consciousness characterized by different features. We classify the faculties according to their predominant features as compounds and not according to their separate natures as simples.

"It is hardly necessary to mention, after the above account of mental faculties, that they are but diverse exercises of one and the same soul, revealed in different degrees and forms on different occasions. Thus, the conflict of impulses should not be thought as a trial of strength among different agents or entities, nor should the restraining influence of Reason or Will be represented as an external control or check of one by another. One mood of mind precludes another of a distinct character, so that rational choice excludes impulsive action and the development of one inclination or propensity naturally affects another previously existing. We should never lose sight of the organic unity of mind as a rational synthetic power, manifesting diverse tendencies according to circumstances and requirements.

"It is apparent from the foregoing remarks that the three faculties are merely three

names, adopted for scientific convenience, to express mental exercises characterized by essentially different features, such as assimilation, discrimination and association in the one case, pleasure or pain in another, and tendency to action, impulsive or reflective, in a third. Hence the old doctrine of faculties has recently given place to that of functions. And, no doubt, a proper conception of functions more clearly reveals, as shown above, the organic unity of mind than the mere acceptance of three distinct faculties." (Pp. 56-59.)

The admission of intuition does not necessarily involve the assumption of the old doctrine of faculties; nor does such an admission preclude the influence of education and civilization. (*Vide Elements of Morals*, pp. 121-130, 187-199.) The quotation from Prof. Stout in p. 123 of my book shows that he does not ignore the existence of original tendencies.

CUTTACK, }
10th August, 1912. } AMBIKA CHARAN MITRA.

[I do not deny that Prof. Mitra has given the correct view of the nature of the so-called faculties, or recognised the influence of education on conscience, in their proper places in his book, but what I take exception to is the inconsistency with these views of the terms in which he speaks of conscience in the quotations taken from the "*Elements of Morals*." Prof. Stout in p. 123 of my book shows moral principles as such are intuitively perceived when he speaks of certain physiological tendencies as developing with the growth of the brain].

S. MANGESH RAU.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO INDIAN CHILDREN.*

The teaching of a foreign tongue—I do not mean a classical language—to a native is acknowledged on all hands to be a most difficult task. One, who is accustomed to speaking his native tongue, looks with suspicion upon another whose vernacular is different and is therefore naturally disinclined to learn to speak, and much less to read, that language. Racial distinction often stands in the way of acquiring a foreign tongue. Unless he is compelled to do so by force of circumstances, he will never, of his own accord, make up his mind to acquire another vernacular. An English boy, for instance, proud of belonging to a nation whose greatest naval hero took delight in showing on every possible occasion his deep-seated hatred for the French by repeatedly saying, "Down, down with the French," and who had no better term of endearment for them than "scoundrels," acquires a smattering of French, first to please his parents and secondly to pass his school or University examination, and when this is done, he forgets it as soon as he leaves school, for, of what use is it to him when he is employed or when he travels. I was once on board a French steamer, the officers and sailors of which were all Frenchmen. An English lady spoke to the steward in French as she thought, regarding the disposal of her luggage. The man begged her to give instructions in English as he did not understand the language she spoke! A German lady who could speak in French as if it were her mother-tongue paid a visit to a class of English girls learning French and asked them, "*Parlez-vous Français?*" These young ladies who were studying for the Matriculation, answered in reply, "Can you speak French," instead of saying yes or no. Their brains were accustomed to nothing but reciprocal translation. Members of the Indian Civil Service, who pass certain examinations in the vernaculars and even obtain rewards, require interpreters when they go among the people or sit on the Bench!

It is not easy to acquire a foreign tongue—in most cases the alphabet is quite different, the sounds of the letters are not the same; there is a difference in the order of words, in the surroundings, in the idioms; the modes of thinking of one nation are different from those of another.

* A paper read by Mr. D. Lazarus, B.A., Manager and Principal, O. B. M. High School, Vizagapatam, at the Educational Conference, held at Vizagapatam in June last.

Certain sounds found in one language are not found in another. The Telugu man cannot say the *ph* of the Tamilar, the latter cannot aspirate certain consonants. Who ever heard of an Englishman saying *ph*, *sh*, he invariably says *ta* or *da*, because these letters are not found in the English alphabet—*lādu*. How difficult it is for an Indian boy to say *think* or *through*, for he imagines it is the same as *ph*, *sh*. The surroundings also present the learner with new difficulties; the man living in the cold country welcomes a change; he feels glad when the cold winter is replaced by warm weather; hence he speaks of a warm heart, whereas the Indian speaks of a cold heart; the Englishman wants a cup of hot tea, the Asiatic prefers a glass of cold water. These surroundings have influenced the formation of the idioms of a language. An Englishman once asked his Indian servant to dry a wet towel in the sun; the servant's first thought was that his master was making a fool of him; but his orders, he must obey, as a faithful servant, and hence he went out and showed his towel towards the sun, for he could not place it in the sun!

Some of these difficulties are enhanced in the case of the Indian boy who is ambitious enough to learn English. He has, however, this great advantage over the English boy learning French or German. To the Indian boy the acquisition of English is a stepping-stone to his rising to a great and influential position; his passing an examination in English is a passport to Government service. This is indeed a great stimulus to the Indian boy which is absent in the English boy and one would imagine that with such a longing desire for learning English, his knowledge of the language would be perfect and that he would be able to speak and write English without many errors. But unfortunately, he is surrounded by obstacles and difficulties for which he is not in the least responsible. English was introduced into India when the soldier-merchants of the East India Company landed in this country. Though it is more than two centuries since they established themselves in India, the language they spoke and wrote so long ago, and which has become either defunct or has undergone many changes, has taken a firm hold of the people who are descended from those who had to associate with the East India Company's merchants and soldiers in the course of business. This ancient language is still spoken in India by a certain community, and Indians who move in their society have learned to speak it, and what is worse, to teach it to others as

English. How else are we to account for such language as, "Ayyo my, che, she played tricks with the man, oh my, papa no got home, it is sore eyes to see you." You may find many more of this kind in that famous novel by Ethel Duff, "The Relentless Gods." Another difficulty is, the Indian boy has to learn English mostly from his countrymen who had learnt the language from Englishmen on the dead language principle—grammar, paraphrase and translation figuring largely in the scheme of teaching. He knows by heart all the rules of syntax and the definitions of grammatical terms; he can analyse a most complicated complex sentence; he can solve riddle-like questions *ad nauseam*; he can obtain a high percentage of marks in what is known as the "General English paper," but ask him to write a few sentences on any ordinary subject, you will have a number of words of "learned length and thundering sound," and a string of uncommon phrases and expressions with no idea of their meaning. One of these students presented himself before a Collector for an employment, "What is your age?" asked the Collector. "Half past seventeen," was the ready answer. "What examination have you passed?" "I am a failed matriculate." It is unnecessary to add the applicant was shown the door.

Translation from the vernacular into English and *vice versa* has up till recently played a very important part in the teaching of English, and even now teachers of the old school persist in teaching English to rising generations by methods that have been abandoned by educationists, because of the incalculable harm they have done. Fancy a teacher translating a sentence like "There is a poor fly in the lamp" word by word thus, there—*akkada*, a poor fly—*beedha zga*, in the lamp—*theepamulō*, is—*unnadhi*. A Bible teacher was asked to give a lesson in Genesis. He thought he would begin from the very beginning of the book and explain word by word in Telugu. He began thus: In the beginning—beginning *lō*, God—God *ennuvadu*, the heaven—the *heavennunu*, the earth—the *earthunu*, created—create *chāsinaḍu*. Another teacher did not know the English equivalent of *totakura* and so he translated it thus: *tota*—garden, *ku*—to, *ra*—come,—a garden to come. I was once listening to a teacher giving a lesson in translation from Telugu into English, he had the expression 'Gāḍha mēḍha nēllu pōsinḍittu', like water on a buffalo's back; evidently he was not aware of the English idiom, "on a duck's back." It is such English that is being taught in schools and spoken by Indian officials. An Indian gentleman, a

Government official, presided at the prize-giving of a primary school and at the end of the affair he made a nice little speech in Telugu: *ē iskoolōḍku mē pillālu pāmpinchandi, ikkada munchi religious instructionunu, good manners unu teach chēstaru*. It is this kind of translation that has made a havoc of the English language and given rise to a new language known as "Indian English."

Therefore, in teaching the young, we should carefully avoid both grammar and translation. But when should the teaching of English be begun? The *upanayanam* ceremony is performed on a Brahman child at the age of seven or so, that is, when he is able to pronounce the Sanskrit words that form a part of this ceremony; as he is expected then to speak his mother-tongue and articulate its words distinctly, he is taught to utter Sanskrit words. Only such children should be taught English as can speak their own mother-tongue; we need not be particular about the age as long as the child is able to articulate words distinctly.

Are children to be taught the alphabet is a vexed question and educationists differ. Those who advocate the teaching of the alphabet are generally those who had been thus taught in their early childhood, and it is difficult to dissuade them from this antiquated and unnatural method of beginning the study of a language like English, which boasts of an alphabet, difficult, redundant, and uncertain and unscientifically arranged. There are 13 vowel sounds and yet the English alphabet has only 5 vowels, (for *w* and *y* are really consonants) and these are represented to the eye in one hundred different ways. Take for instance the letter *a*, we have *fāte*, *fāt*, *fār*, *fāl*; a little child who has to begin with the names of the letters is confused at the very start. You teach it to say, *b u t*=*būt*; and ask it to pronounce *pūt*, and when it says *pūt*, you pounce upon it and call it stupid. The child looks puzzled and dismayed; its reasoning powers may not be developed to the same extent as yours, but it is nevertheless able to detect the absurdity of *ū* being changed into *ü*. You next spell the word, *dog*, *dee-o-gee* and ask it to pronounce it, and it cannot but say, *deeogee*; the little brain cannot understand how you can call it *dog*. In the case of Telugu, which has nearly a complete alphabet, the case is different; almost every sound has a letter to represent it, and hence you can begin the teaching of Telugu with the alphabet.

It is words and not letters that are the units

of a language, and the natural way for a child to learn a language is to begin with the units of the language. It is true that the first sounds that an infant utters are, *ā* (ā), *ō* (ō) and *au*, and then *ma*, *pa*, and so on. If you are of opinion that the alphabet should be taught first commence with the single vowels and then prefix one consonant at a time to each of the vowels and give the whole word thus formed, taking care to give the sounds or powers of these consonants and not their names. Begin with the letter *o*, and give its ordinary sound as in *no*, *lo*, *go*, by showing the children how you do it by opening the mouth wide and forming an ellipse or oval; ask the children to imitate you; let them name certain objects shaped like *o*, ask them to do the letter with the thumb and forefinger, and then draw the same on the black-board. After they have mastered the sound and form of this letter, write *n* before *o* and pronounce the word or syllable thus formed and let them imitate you; deal similarly with the other consonants as far as possible in the following order: *l, s, g, p, m, b, j, k, ch, r, x, z*. In most cases with these consonants you can form only syllables and not words; but let them start with these parts of words. Do not under any circumstances give them the Telugu equivalent of the words, for, if you do so, they will expect you to give them the meaning of the syllables also. Next add *t* to these words or syllables. Show how by adding *t*, *r*, etc., the sound of *o* is changed, as in *nōt*, *nōr*, *gōt*, *cōt*, *rōt*, *dōt*, *pōt*, *bōb*, *ēōp*, *lōt*, *jōt*, *ōx*, *fōx*. Next teach the sound of *o* as in *do*, and distinguish it in sound from *o* in *to*—the former is long and the latter short. Double consonants may next be combined with vowels and words or syllables formed.

This method of teaching English to a beginner would be excellent if mere reading and spelling were the sole object. There is no doubt you will succeed in cramming into the head a number of meaningless syllables or words unassociated with any idea; you may succeed in converting a thinking animal into a mechanical contrivance for reproducing sounds and words like the modern phonograph or gramophone. The boy's knowledge may consist of an agglomeration of sounds and symbols, of tools and instruments, to the use of which he is a perfect stranger. What benefit will a boy derive from memorising a string of words characterised by a lack of ideas? Instead of developing his intellect you reduce him to a memorising automaton. While nothing substantial is gained by this method, much valuable time is wasted and energy dissipated. It was

Pestalozzi, I believe, that attempted this mode of teaching, and although at one time it earned much popularity and looked as if it would captivate the mind of educationists, he and his advisers were the first to doubt the wisdom of the scheme.

And it was this very Pestalozzi that laid down the maxim that "talking should come before reading and writing." In the case of Latin, Greek or Sanskrit there is no occasion for speaking any of them, as they are dead languages. But English is a *living* language, to know which you should begin to speak it; and then read, and then write it. This is the only natural way, for look at a child, he learns to speak his mother-tongue and does not wait to do so till he has mastered the alphabet or is able to read it. He first learns from his parents the names of the objects he sees around him, and though he cannot pronounce them correctly when he hears the names for the first time, the parental instructor repeats the name several times and makes him imitate him. From objects close by, he gradually proceeds to distant ones, and then he teaches words expressive of simple action. This is how a child learns to speak his mother-tongue. But how is he to learn to speak a foreign tongue? It is unfortunate that in Indian homes where the father, and in some cases, the elder brother and relatives know English and speak it well, they never dream of teaching their children to converse with them in English. There are in this town a few who do so, and their children speak English fluently. European children in India speak the vernacular sooner and more fluently than their fathers, who are paid or rewarded for learning it, for the simple reason they hear the vernacular spoken by those around them. They know the mother-tongue just as well, for they learn it from their parents. In days gone by Indian and Eurasian boys were taught together in the same native school, for there were no special schools for the latter as it was too costly to do so. For reasons best known to Lord Curzon and the advocates of this racial distinction, Indian children have not now the opportunity of learning English in schools with those whose mother-tongue is English; hence there has been a marked deterioration among Indians in the accentuation and pronunciation of English words. This is a serious drawback, for while it stands in the way of the Indian speaking English as it is spoken, it has tended to widen the gulf between the native and the foreigner, as may be judged from the demonstrations of animosity and ill-feeling that exhibit

themselves whenever there is a foot-ball or cricket match between Indian and Eurasian school boys.

Educationists entrusted with the education of the Indian boy should devise some means for removing this defect. I would recommend something like the following:—In the lower classes, while an English lesson is going on, English alone must be spoken; and in the higher classes, both the teacher and the pupils should speak only in English. All orders should be given in English. Boys and teachers who can speak in English, should converse in English with one another. This plan will not tend to anglicise the boys; there is no danger of forgetting their mother-tongue, for they have to speak in English for only an hour or two a day, and that only for five days in the week and the rest of the time they can indulge in Telugu-speaking to their hearts' content. Make English-speaking compulsory in all the Forms, both at school and on the play-ground. There will be less talk and consequently less noise, for Indian boys hesitate to speak to one another in a foreign tongue. This was the rule in my school up to a few years back, but as teachers and scholars have taken to Telugu-talking almost the whole day, English composition is below the standard. Another plan is to organise lectures in English on popular subjects for the higher classes and, when you can, get an educated Englishman to deliver the lecture; if this is not possible, for, somehow, very few Englishmen can speak in public, get an Indian gentleman to do so, one that can speak English correctly, fluently, and with correct accent and pronunciation.

As the surroundings of Indian boys as shown above are not such as to enable them to converse in English we must adopt some method that will help them. About five years ago I drew syllabuses for the teaching of English in the lower classes, and I shall here transcribe one or two of them, as they have been worked with some degree of success. We do English conversation in the Infant and First classes and use Readers or Reading Sheets from the Second class upwards.

INFANT CLASS.

I. The names of familiar objects beginning with words of one syllable—(1) In the class-room—a desk, a bench, a pen, a slate, a book, a wall, the floor, a black-board, a chair, a box, ink and the roof, a boy, a cap, a hat, etc. (2) In the school-boys, girls, a teacher, water, peon, a man, a cane, a room, etc. (3) In the play-ground—a tree, trees, a well, a gar-den, grass, a bat, the sun, a ball, an ant, a bull, a cow, etc.

II. Numerals up to ten (cardinals only).

III. Short and easy sentences using the above words—There is a book. That is a tree. Here is a table.

IV. Answers to simple questions—(pointing to a chair) What is this? It is a chair. What is your name? My name is Rama.

V. Pronouns—I, he, she, you, it, they, (by pointing to the persons and using them in sentences). It is I. She is there. He is here.

VI. Familiar objects in pictures—A man, a cat, a rat, a fly, a jug, a pig, a mat, a knife, a hen, a pot, a hat, a fan, a can, a bed.

VII. Days of the week—Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.

VIII. The different parts of the body—The hand, the head, the eyes, the nose, the mouth, ears, teeth, legs, lips, arms.

N.B.—The proper article should be used in giving the name of an object; the distinction between a singular and plural noun should be pointed out thus:—One book, two books; one boy, two boys; and so with all the nouns given above.

The correct pronunciation should be first given by the teacher clearly and distinctly in every case; the child should watch the movement of the lips, the position of the tongue and the teeth, and the appearance of the mouth, as the case may be, when the teacher pronounces the word, and he should see the child imitates him closely. "He should show the child how to use his vocal organs in order to produce certain sounds. The child must learn to articulate clearly and to pronounce correctly by imitation."—*Welton*.

After the children have learnt the names of a few objects, they should be taught to say, *this is a book, that is a cat, here is a man, there is a pen, etc.* Next they should answer questions like—*What is this?*—in complete sentences—*This is a bench, that is a pencil.*

Teach the children to question one another.

Note:—*i* in *is* is short; do not let them say, *ees*.

After they have learnt the above, they should be made to repeat after the teacher short sentences from an English Primer. They should also be questioned on the pictures in the book.

The objects mentioned in the above list need not be taken in that serial order. A day's lesson may consist of words taken from two or three

groups you should take care the object in the picture is shown before the name is given.

"In the teaching of languages the essential work of the infant school is to increase at once the range of ideas and vocabulary,.....and at the same time to improve articulation and pronunciation."—*Welton*.

Adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions, etc., should be gradually introduced, the Telugu equivalents being given where necessary.

Adjectives—All, black, fat, red, blue, white, yellow, good, bad, big, small, hot, cold, many, much, ordinal numbers up to ten.

Verbs—Am, is, was, were, are, ate, be, bit, go, come, do, did, does, eat, sleep, have, hear, love, make, made, sit, stand, play, read, write, shall and will (in tenses), run, put, ran, say, see, sing, trot, use, fly, flies, gird, gives, get, got, feed, fed.

Adverbs—Away, soon, not, now, here, there, where, then, when, yes, no, up, down.

Prepositions—At, on, in, to, with.

I CLASS.

Revise what has been done in the Infant class, such actions should be chosen for topics of conversation as can be directly connected with the word-symbols employed. Only simple sentences should be employed. The teacher should demand a complete sentence in every case. Ex. *What is this?* This is a pen. *What have I in my hand?* You have a book in your hand. *What is there on that boy's head?* A cap is on that boy's head.

When the boys are able to converse in English, the accompanying sheet lessons should be taught by the "look-and-say" method. Show an object in the picture, and ask the class to give its name, a rat, or a cat. What kind of cat is it? It is a fat cat. Read the remaining sentences and make them follow you. Do not repeat the words rat, cat, fat, for they should recognise them from the picture; and so with the remaining lessons.

In the Second class a Reader may be used; it must be well printed, in large type, the younger the children the larger the type, on good thick paper, but not highly polished. The book should be held in the left hand, the right hand being free to turn the pages; it should be held at about ten or twelve inches from the eye, the top of the book being below the level of the eye. The boys should stand up when they read, resting the body on the left foot, which should be a little forward. Before a child begins to speak or read, make him open his mouth gently, raise the chest and take

breath silently at every pause. Do not let him keep the eye constantly fixed on the page, but carry the words of a clause in his mind and address the eye to the hearers. He should not close his lips and read between his teeth, but open his mouth wide and read aloud. If boys could be taught to sing, their reading would improve, for they would be obliged to open their mouths to sing, not to screech, I hope.

In connection with this subject I should like to remark that short-sightedness is on the increase among Indian children and for the matter of that among all school children. It is mainly due to preventable causes. (1) *The faulty construction of the class-room and the position of the doors and windows.* The light falls directly on the eyes, and the boys often have doors right in front of them. The window should be above the level of the eye, and their backs should be towards the light. If the existing windows are low the lower half may be covered with a bamboo mat; or the shutters may be sawn in the middle and made double with hinges and the lower ones kept closed. (2) *The small type of the book.* Worn and broken type is used for printing school books especially the vernacular ones; boys buy them because they are cheap. The use of the English Bible in very small type is also responsible for short-sightedness. They should use Bibles in large type. (3) *Taking down notes in hard scratching pencils on bad paper.* Boys cannot read their own writing for it is most indistinct and almost invisible to the naked eye. Why should they not be compelled to use soft pencils—those marked B or BB? I would recommend the use of fountain pens even in the lowest classes if boys could afford to buy them; Indians have given up writing with an iron style on palm leaf; charcoal pencils came next and then graphite, followed by pens of reed, quills, and last of all steel; let us have iridium-pointed gold pens, or any cheap non-corrosive pens. (4) *Reading at night also affects the eye-sight.* Most of the boys being poor use only castor oil lamps of earthenware with a wick which they have to push up continually with a stick; being unprotected from the breeze it gives a dim, unsteady, flickering light. In some houses the castor oil has given place to kerosene oil, and the earthenware lamp to bottle-shaped tin lamps, called *buddlu*; as these give more smoke than light their breathing apparatus as well as their vision is affected thereby. Those who can afford it, go in for kerosene lamps provided with chimneys, but without globes; they invariably place these right in front of their eyes when they read. The light should be placed on

a stand above their heads and behind their backs, so that the light may not fall directly on the eye. If this is not convenient, a lamp-shade made of thick brown paper or cardboard pasted over with green paper, of the shape of a truncated cone, edged at the top with a wire, may be placed over the lamp.

"An American oculist of great repute has been writing in a sensible and outspoken way on the question of the eye-sight of children at school. After pointing out that a couple of generations ago there was practically no strain put upon young eyes, he says that the amount of close work done in schools to-day calls for increased care and attention to the subject. Indeed he goes so far as to argue that, in the case of children under eight or ten years of age, lessons of every kind should be avoided that require a short range of vision, that reading books should give way to charts and large pictures, and that many of the occupations now in use—as for example, stringing beads and threading coloured worsted through minute holes in cardboard—are totally unfit for the purpose in view, because they put upon immature eyes an unwarrantable strain of accommodation. In the elementary school, book-work should be reduced to an absolute minimum, and he adds, apparently with much force, that as the normal child is born far-sighted, the majority of young boys and girls are easily and often seriously affected by much of the ordinary work done in school. It is, however, obvious that close work cannot altogether be got rid of. It is therefore necessary to adopt some corrective, and that the doctor would find in physical exercises, suitable forms of manual training, and the use of oral arithmetic and other mental instruction, in place of the visual forms now generally in vogue. Although Doctor Carhart does not explicitly say so, we rather gather that he would abolish home lessons altogether on the double ground that the proper hygienic conditions for literary pursuits are too often absent from the rooms in which such lessons are done, and that in any case studies would always be accompanied by the most beneficial results when pursued under the supervision of the teacher. The information already obtained in this country through the new system of medical inspection of children in elementary schools affords substantial evidence of the need for a good deal more of plain speaking on topics of the kind dealt with by Dr. Carhart."—*The School Guardian*, Nov. 13, 1909.

In March 1908, I engaged the services of two

local medical men to test the eyes of the pupils of my school; they found that at least five per cent. of the number were suffering from some form of defective vision. All schools cannot afford to meet the expense of paying medical men to test the eye-sight of pupils. But why may not Managers of schools appeal to the Educational Department to arrange for the periodical inspection of the school-going population? This is a most important factor in the education of children, for those who suffer from defective vision do badly in spelling, writing, drawing and even reading. English spelling is difficult enough, as its alphabet is not phonetic and more so for our Indian boys whose vernacular alphabets are more or less phonetic. Why add fresh difficulties in the way of books badly printed on flimsy paper in microscopically small type, and give them dim flickering light to read in? While everything should be done to remedy these defects, the beginner should have every facility afforded him for learning to spell. Dictation exercises cannot and will not help a boy to spell words correctly; they are only tests to enable a teacher to ascertain whether his pupils have learnt the correct spelling of words. And if after the correction of the exercise the boys are told to write out each mis-spelt word a dozen times or so, spelling becomes obnoxious to them. Those whose eye-sight is good and who have sharp ears will easily learn the spelling by the "Look-and-spell-or-write" method; only those who have good eye-sight should be asked to do transcription, and those whose powers of hearing are well developed by exercises in singing should spell the words aloud. In *Teachers' Aid*, Vol. LIV, p. 27, there is a story of a bright boy who was pronounced a hopeless failure in spelling at school, in spite of his being made to write mis-spelt words a few hundred times, and who, by reading the words aloud, overcame this defect; but those who can neither see well nor hear well can never hope to learn the spelling of English words. Transcription I am sorry to find is condemned as a method of teaching spelling by the writer of "*Hints to managers and teachers of secondary schools*"; my experience as a teacher covering a period of thirty-five years is just the opposite. The boys of my school have all along borne a good name for good spelling, although I have noticed that their spelling is far from satisfactory since it was given up at the suggestion of an Inspector of Schools. Collier and Crook in their work on *School Management* (p. 120) say: "It is often assumed that transcription is merely a method of securing practice in writing; it is also a very important aid

to the teaching of spelling." Mr. P. Wren who has had many years' experience in the education of Indian children and who is now Assistant Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, writes: "Children will have no difficulty in spelling any word they have seen, provided they get a fair amount of transcription."—*Indian Teachers' Guide*, p. 136. In every class there should be a small black-board hung up so as to be seen by the whole class; on it should be written the words mis-spelt by the boys in the course of the day; the letter or letters in which they have gone wrong should be written in coloured chalk or underlined to draw their attention to the letter that has misled them; boys generally write *separate* with an *e* after *p*; write it *separate*, with a after *p* underlined or in coloured chalk. The teacher and the class should maintain a list of the words mis-spelt and these should form a part of the dictation exercise. Every boy from the First Form upwards should bring to the class-room a copy of English Dictionary, Macmillan's is a cheap one and the best suited for the purpose. While doing his composition exercise he should consult the dictionary for the word, of whose spelling he is doubtful. As prevention is better than cure, let him first learn the correct spelling rather than first mis-spell the word, and then have it corrected. "Divide and conquer" is a well-known maxim; let him learn the spelling of words of more than one syllable by dividing them into syllables and learning the spelling of each syllable separately and then the words as a whole—Macmillan's Dictionary will help him to do so. The organisation of "Spelling Bees" in class will stimulate the boys to spell words correctly. The words asked should be only those learnt in the class. Boys should at least once a week play at "Word-making and word-taking" in the presence of the teacher. If an English lesson is finished before the time there should be mutual questioning in spelling. In the case of a few specially difficult words they should be split up into parts so as to make a fanciful sentence or phrase—o-no-ma-topoe-i-a, a-pot-he-cary. The teacher should take care not to mis-pronounce a word, or to pronounce it as it is spelt to enable the boys to arrive at the correct spelling. Such abominations as the following characterised the dictation lesson of a late teacher—"I went to a mar-ri-age in a car-ri-age. A de-pot is a nuisance. Con-sci-ence, we-a-ry, sta-tu-es-que, psal-mist.

A good English Dictionary is needed to teach the boy not only the correct spelling but also the correct accent and pronunciation, and in the latter respect a teacher needs it as much as his

pupil. How often one hears teachers saying *atmosphère*, *trepâssés*, *gunthen* (for *captain*), *réf-use*, *râs-pect*, *ga-ol*, *raingauj* (rain-gauge), *dévelop*, *vaiz* (vase), *uz* (us), *âc-cept*, *râs-ist*, *râ-tional*, *muzl* (for muscle), *peepull* (people), *cuff* (for cough), *ung* (for young), *es* (for yes), *vam* (for am), *frizid jone*, *jealous* for *zealous*, *fâther* for *father*. It is mostly from teachers that boys first learn the wrong accentuation and pronunciation of words that cling to them for life. My rule is that the teacher while preparing the English lesson should mark in his Reader the accented syllable of each word, the pauses, the emphatic word, and the pronunciation of any word when it differs from the spelling and make the boy do the same under his direction. In these days very little attention is paid to reading, for the simple reason that it forms no part of a public examination—the unvarnished truth is there are very few Indian teachers who can read well. A teacher's preparation of the lesson should, among other things, include what I have written above. He should read out to the class, sentence by sentence, slowly, in a loud and distinct voice, making pauses not only where the points of punctuation are given but where the sense requires them. He should then make the boys read like him, and if they fail he should read it once more, and ask the boys to do so again.

Will phonetics help the boys to arrive at the correct pronunciation? With Mr. Wren I say, **never**; teaching phonetics is a sheer waste of time. "All languages, both learned and the mother-tongue should be gotten and gotten only by imitation," said Ascham; and if you invent a thousand imposing phonetic names and invent an alphabet of ten thousand "phonetic" letters, the fact remains that some one has to give the learner the oral pronunciation. When all is said and done, the right pronunciation has got to be uttered and imitated: "so says Mr. Wren.

It is highly essential that to teach English we must have teachers who know the correct pronunciation and accentuation, and can speak and write correct English. In other words, Managers of Schools must employ as teachers of English only those who possess these qualifications in addition to the examinations they may have passed. To teach Chemistry, we have a specialist in that subject, and so for every branch of science; why should we employ a Matriculate just because he is a Matriculate when he does not know the meaning of "poor" in 'poor fly', says 'loose' for 'lose', 'stick up to a profession' and others of a like nature?

There is another use or abuse of the English Dictionary which must be guarded against.

Boys in the lower classes should not be allowed to look for the meaning of a word that occurs in their lesson, for they invariably select the most unsuitable one. But why should a teacher insist on a word-for-word substitution? Why may he not find out whether they have understood the meaning of the sentence as a whole, rather than word by word? I was once in a girls' school and when the girls were having a lesson in Telugu Reading, a girl read out the word *sunakkam*. I asked her what it was, she said *kukka*. I asked her again what a *kukka* was; she answered *sunakkam*. I asked her how many legs it had; her ready answer was two! This is the result of the Pandit's mode of teaching a language, and half-educated teachers of English think it grand to follow in the footsteps of Pandits! Oral composition must be made the basis of all English teaching, eventually leading to written composition. Teachers and scholars often adopt the plan of the Bible teacher referred to above in explanation and questioning with the result that boys use the words of the text in answering questions. Some of them are under the impression that in the direct method of teaching English, the vernacular must be wholly avoided. I heard a teacher talking about "foam", and all that the boy could get from him was that it was "froth"; but they understood neither the one nor the other; if he had simply told them it was *nuraga* they would have taken it in. The advocates of this method do not clamour for the total exclusion of vernacular explanation when it is needed.

MR. MONTAGU'S SPEECH IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME IN INDIA.

30th July 1912.

I want this year to devote my attention to the one problem which, I believe, underlies all other problems in India, which I think is the keystone of progress, and the keystone of the development of social conditions, and of, eventually, the improvement of political conditions, namely, education. It has two branches—education in this country and education in India.

THE TREATMENT OF THE INDIAN STUDENT.

Those interested in India must never lose sight of the increasing army of those who come over to England and benefit by our educational

facilities, and who present a very serious problem. The facilities which we offer here are often purchased at an exorbitant price and I think it is difficult for Indians to estimate them at their real value. It may well be that the solution of some of the difficulties presented by them may be found by providing better facilities for education in India. If this were done, if the Indian doctor, the Indian barrister, the Indian aspirant to an unprejudiced share in the government of his own country, were to obtain an adequate training in his own country, I venture to say that many a parent would be saved anxiety and worry, many an Indian would be saved bitterness and disappointment and perhaps the financial disaster attendant upon a journey to England. But whilst they are over here in search of what the heart of the Empire can give them, it is our duty and part of our responsibility for the good government of India to welcome and to help our Indian fellow-subjects to the best of our ability. Let me say first of all how difficult it is to interest men and women in this country in Indian problems. Is it too much to hope that when the problems come to their very door they will respond to the invitation which, in all humility, I make to them to show some hospitality to our Indian fellow-subjects? All men and women, who show this hospitality to our Indian visitors, are doing an Imperial work of the utmost value to the Empire. Nothing could be more valuable than for English men and women in particular to afford opportunities to Indians of learning something of English homes. I do not want to go into details but I want to assure the House that I have had ample and lasting proof of the serious consequences of allowing Indian students to believe that the majority of the women with whom they come most easily in contact in the lonely lives they lead in lodging-houses are typical of English womanhood. May I say a word to undergraduates in our big Universities? A responsibility of an exceptional kind falls upon them. Amongst those who go to our Universities, both Indians and British, are the future administrators of India, and if we allow our Indian visitors to be segregated, isolated, or rudely treated, we are sowing seeds which will sprout and fruit long after we have repented of the carelessness which helped its germination.

THE INDIA OFFICE AND STUDENTS

I want to say something more now of the efforts the India Office are making to ensure that those who come to this country are looked after. It is not the first time the House has

been asked to consider this question. My predecessor in the India Office explained to the House in 1909 the measures which had been taken. The scheme has now been in existence for three and a half years. So great a measure of success has been achieved that the Secretary of State feels himself justified in making a considerable extension and development. I should like to give the House an idea of the work which Mr. Arnold, the head of the organization, and his staff have been called upon to perform. In the first place, a bureau of information has been created which provides information upon educational matters to Indian parents and students, keeps for students a record of suitable lodging-houses and of families that are ready to receive them, furnishes them with references and certificates required by institutions which they wish to enter, serves as an intermediary between the Universities and other academic bodies in cases where their regulations impose hardship on students from India or do not harmonize with the system enforced in Indian Universities and colleges, issues a handbook of information relating to academic and technical education, the conditions of life, the cost of living in different centres of the United Kingdom to which Indian parents may wish to send their sons, and finally assists Indian students in this country with advice on matters, social, financial and educational, and undertakes at the express wish of Indian parents the guardianship of their sons, sending to them, from time to time, periodical reports as to their progress and conduct. It is now calculated that this bureau is in contact with 1062 Indian students, or about 62 per cent. of the total number in this country. As regards those of whom Mr. Arnold has undertaken the guardianship, let me give the figures:—In June, 1910, there were 27; in March, 1911, 91; and in February last, 137. Between April, 1909 and June, 1910, the amount of remittance received on behalf of these students was about £5,000; between July 1, 1910 and June 1, 1911, the amount was over £18,000. The Educational Adviser works in conjunction with the Board of Education in finding suitable courses of instruction for technical students, and in regard to engineering, he is assisted by an expert adviser.

MR. MALLET'S APPOINTMENT.

I wish to say that the scheme inaugurated in 1909 has fully justified its institution, and secondly that it has grown far beyond the control of its original organization. Mr. Arnold, to whose zeal, energy, and devotion I gladly take this opportunity of paying public tribute, has,

with his assistants, worked nobly to grapple with an ever-increasing rush of work. That a re-organization is necessary, is, I think, a justification of their work, for it is only by tactful management and the taking of infinite pains that the natural repugnance of students to placing themselves under control could be overcome and that the number to be dealt with has therefore increased. The first step which we have taken is to increase substantially the very insufficient salary upon which Mr. Arnold and his assistants are doing their work, and then a Secretary for Indian students has been appointed at the India Office on a salary of £1,000 a year. As the House knows, we have been fortunate enough to secure the services of Mr. Mallet.

Mr. Peel.—Is there a pension?

Mr. Montagu.—There is a pension after ten years' service, if he is invalided and if he is not invalided, when he retires at the age of 60, he gets a pension of one eightieth of his salary for each year of service, together with a bonus of one thirtieth of his salary for each year of service.

Mr. Peel.—Is there any examination?

Mr. Montagu.—No, there is no examination of any sort or kind. The position is not an easy one to fill. What is required is largely a knowledge of the conduct of a public office. I have not the slightest hesitation in saying after the very short experience and opportunity we have had of judging Mr. Mallet's work that it shows us to the full how glad we should be to welcome him as a colleague in this new and difficult work he has undertaken.

Mr. Peel.—Is a knowledge of any Indian language required?

Mr. Montagu.—No. Mr. Mallet is to be a link between the Secretary of State and the various organizations in India, on the one hand and in this country on the other hand, which have been formed and are being formed for this important work.

Mr. Keir Hardie.—Was there no Indian available?

Mr. Montagu.—No, for the very important reason that we desired to appoint one with knowledge of the working of an office. It was considered that the best appointment that could be made was from Great Britain and not from India.

Captain Faber.—Has he any knowledge of India?

Mr. Montagu.—So far as I am aware, not.

Mr. Arnold will in future confine his attention to students in London. There are something like 800 of these at present and the number will probably be increased, if he is to carry on the work with the same personal attention as he has done in the past, we want to limit his activities to the guardianship and care of Indian students in London. Mr. Mallet will organize and keep in touch with similar organizations to that in Cromwell Road and which are being founded with the same object and on the same lines as those which have been so successful in London. In no University town at present is there any real satisfactory organization for looking after Indian students. We want at Oxford, Cambridge, the Scottish Universities, and the provincial centres, where Indians congregate for study, similar machinery to combat the sense of homelessness. Our hope is that each University which enrolls Indian students may be willing to appoint an officer who will make it his duty to know and to help all the Indian students there, to give them information and assistance and even to act as guardian. We believe that will be of great value to the University and of great value to the Empire. The Secretary of State is, of course, willing under the new scheme to assist financially such efforts. Mr. Mallet will be in close relations to those local advisers and will help them in every way to organize their work and to induce others to co-operate with them and to assist them in communication with India. Communications are being carried on with the General Medical Council for more satisfactory regulations for Indian students who wish to study for the medical profession. Mr. Mallet will play an important part in this scheme. I come to another branch of this subject—the Indian students who, in recent years, have come over to this country for industrial and technical study. Some doubt was expressed as to the value of the training they get. The Secretary of State has appointed a committee to enquire into the matter. The Committee has not yet reported, but I understand all the members are agreed as to the importance of practical training. I am afraid Indian students find some difficulty in getting the practical experience which they need in a concern run for profit as a complement to their theoretical knowledge. Our colleges and Universities are open to them on the same terms as to Englishmen, but in some industries at least they meet with great reluctance to admit them. This is a state of things which gives me some concern. India is going to develop industrially. It is not a development which we should want to prevent or could prevent if we wanted. If Indian students

cannot learn from manufacturers here, they will go to foreign countries for the purpose, and on their return to India, they will send orders for machinery and equipment to those countries. That seems to me a matter of such great importance that I invite the attention to it of members of the House who are interested in great industrial concerns.

EDUCATION IN INDIA.

I come to the question of improved education in India. It is not an easy subject. In this country the bulk of the population is in large towns where it is possible to equip schools which can always be supplied with a full contingent of pupils who can be trained with efficiency and economy of effort. But in India over 90 per cent. of the population live in villages. There are over 600,000 villages with less than 1,000 inhabitants, and these villages include more than half the total population. This makes it enormously difficult to bring educational facilities within everybody's reach. Much of the education given up to the present has been of an impractical nature. The boy was for a few hours a day taken mentally out of the world in which he passed his life and taught by rote what were to him utterly useless facts, such as the names of British possessions in Africa. There is the difficulty of caste. I believe caste prejudices often bulk less largely than in the West, but when a wide gulf separates the higher class from the depressed class, whose touch is regarded as pollution we find ourselves in very deep waters. Another difficulty is the supply of teachers. The average wage of a primary schoolmaster in 1907 was £6 13s. 4d. a year. The supply of qualified teachers for vernacular schools, even with increase of pay, is scanty at present. A man who knows English prefers the Provincial Civil Service, which he finds far more lucrative than the Education Department. I do not think the difficulties which exist afford any excuse for apathy or indifference; they should serve as an incentive to greater activity.

THE GOVERNMENT'S POLICY.

The only question we have to decide now is the direction this activity is to take. Mr. Gokhale has introduced a Bill for what I may call free compulsory primary education on a permissive basis. He estimates that the cost of his proposal will ultimately be about 3½ million pounds. We are inclined to believe that is a sanguine estimate. I hope Mr. Gokhale and those who sympathize with him will not misunderstand me when I urge patience. Universal and free edu-

cation must come in India, as it has come in other countries; but the time is not yet. I am confident that the Government of India has a policy dictated by the same hopes and aims as the hopes and aims of Mr. Gokhale's Bill which will produce for the moment a far better result. We have no hostility to the principle which underlies the Bill. We also desire to break down the illiteracy of the greater part of India. But we believe that the greatest expansion of education can be secured, not by making it free or compulsory at the present moment but by the improvement and multiplication of schools. In the Bombay Presidency it is roughly calculated that there are 1,000,000 children whose parents would willingly send them to school to-day if schools were available. The surest way of increasing school attendance is, it has been demonstrated, to increase the number of schools. With regard to compulsion the case is stronger. Compulsion can only be worked where education is popular and where therefore the need of exercising compulsion does not show itself to the large bulk of the population. In the Native State of Baroda, where education has been made compulsory, the fines for non-attendance amount to 60,000 rupees a year. What is our alternative? We have made a considerable step in the direction of free primary education. Schools for girls generally charge no fees and in certain provinces the schools are free for boys. From one-fifth to one-third of the boys in school already receive free education. During the last ten years there has been an increase of 22 per cent. in the number of schools and 44 per cent. in the number of scholars, and to-day there are 4,500,000 boys and 866,000 girls receiving primary education in 120,000 schools. During the last four years there has been an increase of about 240,000 boys per annum attending school, but, while 15 per cent. of the population is of school-going age, of that population only 4 per cent. of the boys and 7 per cent. of the girls are at school. The educational grant of £330,000 a year announced at the Delhi Durbar is to be spent mainly on primary education, and is but a prelude to a much more extensive programme. The programme which we hope to work up to in time is as follows:—We desire to increase the total number of primary schools by 900,000 or 75 per cent. and to double the school-going population. The cost of the new schools will be £25 each per year, and they will be placed in villages and other centres of population which are at present without schools. We are going to improve the existing schools, which now only cost about £10 a year, the cost

of these will probably have to be doubted. We want to improve the teaching given in the schools and make it practical, popular, and attractive. The annual expenditure this year is 760,000—I cannot give figures for a longer period—and that is for both higher education and primary education. As I said, we must make the education attractive and therefore we want a larger supply of better equipped teachers. We hope to lay down the rule that they shall have passed at least the upper primary school standard that there shall be at least one teacher to every 50 scholars, that the pay shall begin at at least 12 rupees a month and that there shall be better prospects for teachers by grading and instituting a provident fund or pension system. These two items of improvement and extension will involve a very large expenditure and recurring expense of these schools will be by no means the only charge on the Indian Treasury. There must be heavy initial expenditure for buildings and equipment. More serious and more costly will be the training of the teachers which the schools will absorb. I want to ask the House to remember that a considerable space of time must elapse before these hopes can be realized. The financial problems which these educational ideas involve are obvious to every one. What is not so clearly obvious is that even if the money were now in and it could not immediately be spent. The Government of India is satisfied that, at the present moment an increased salary would not bring forth any considerable increase of the competent teachers. Trained men do not exist in sufficient numbers for the existing schools, and therefore the only way in which the problem can be dealt with is to call them into existence.

HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE UNIVERSITIES.

When we admit and deplore the manifest shortcomings of Indian secondary education, we forget that each of the public, whom we so often hear of being prepared by a process of cramming, has not only had to acquire the English language, which differs fundamentally from his own in spirit and in syntax, but has got to acquire all the others advanced knowledge through the medium of English. We propose in secondary education to extend our model schools where required, and not to replace private or aided schools, but to co-operate with them and set an example of standard. Only graduates will be employed as teachers. It is hoped to establish a graded service with salaries of from 40 to 300 rupees a month. We want to establish a school-course complete in itself, with a curriculum comparable to a school course on the modern side of

an English public school, giving manual training and science teaching. There is to be an increased grant to privately managed schools as we want to provide proper hostel accommodation. I come now to the Universities. The right hon. gentleman the senior member for the City of London posed the difficulty of the Indian University system with, if I may so, admirable lucidity to the Congress of Universities. The words he used were these:—"How are you going to diminish the shock which the sudden invasion of a wholly alien learning must have on the cultured society of the East? A catastrophic change in the environment of an organism is sure to inflict great injury upon the organism, perhaps destroy it altogether. In the East we are compelled to be catastrophic. It is impossible to graft by a gradual process in the East what we have got by a gradual process in the West." And so we have the complaint that our Indian University teaching has undermined religions, has weakened the restraint of ancient customs, and has destroyed that reverence for authority which was one of the attributes of Indian character. How can we combat these things? We believe that the dangers of catastrophic change can be mitigated by adopting in India that part of the English system of education which has, so far as the Universities are concerned, proved most successful in moulding character. There is evidence to show that in residential colleges in India traditions comparable to those in our own public schools spring into existence and stamp their indelible impression upon the young men who go there. The formative influence of the residential college can be stimulated by the presence of English masters and professors who have been trained in the same system in their own country and who know how much can be done by example and how little by homily. It is this side of University education which we purpose to develop in India. We have allotted large grants for building hostels and boarding-houses attached to colleges. We are finding money for libraries in connexion with the colleges, we desire to develop existing Universities by the creation of chairs in different branches of post-graduate research, and we purpose to increase the aid to private colleges. The Universities of India have hitherto been of a federal or affiliating type. At their first inception they were little more than boards constituted for the purpose of holding examinations, and for these examinations students were prepared at a great number of institutions scattered over a wide area. As the Universities were only examining boards they could only recognize merit shown in the examinations. The training

of character and other valuable by-products of collegiate life could not be recognized or encouraged. Universities of this type came into existence in England in the last century, but after a short experience, the type has been generally condemned and the recent tendency has been for the federal University to be dissolved and for the constituent colleges to become independent Universities.

It is upon such lines that the Government of India is directing the construction of the Indian Universities. The first step was taken in 1904, when the area within which each University could exercise the power of affiliation was demarcated. The next step will be to reduce the area over which each University exercise jurisdiction but where a college is adequately staffed and equipped and where it has shown a capacity to attract to itself students from a distance, that college will be elevated to the dignity of a University and will be given the power of conferring degrees upon the students who have been trained within its walls. Such Universities will be local and residential in the fullest sense of the term. They will, it is hoped, develop traditions of their own and become centres of learning. The Government of India have expressed a wish to create a University of this type in Dacca and correspondence is passing between the Government of India and the Secretary of State upon giving a similar status to the college at Aligarh. It is probable that Universities of a similar type will shortly follow at Benares and Rangoon. Then, of course, there must be side by side with this extension of liberal University education an increase of technical education.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION TO BE DEVELOPED.

Technical education is to be developed. A technological institute at Cawnpore has been sanctioned in accordance with the recommendations of Sir John Hewett, who has done so much in the cause of technical education in India. I may say generally that technical education is to be advanced all over India. We are making a courageous and sustained effort to break down illiteracy in primary education and we are leading the way towards the recognition of a higher standard of efficiency in secondary education by the establishment of model Government schools; we are spending large sums upon the provision of well-equipped hostels attached both to schools and to colleges and promoting the growth of a healthy residential system. We are trying to mitigate the evils of wholesale examination by the contraction of the area over which each

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

"The History of Madras," by H. Dodwell, M. A.

The inaugural meeting of the Pachaiyappa's College History Association was held on the 14th inst. at the Pachaiyappa's College with the Hon'ble Mr. R. C. C. Carr in the chair. The address was delivered by Mr. H. Dodwell on 'The History of Madras.'

The lecturer in the course of his address said:—He did not propose to deal with the history of the whole city of Madras. He proposed to confine his remarks to that part of the city which was in existence 200 years ago. It may seem strange to those who have studied the standard historians that people should take the trouble to study such period. The reason, he expected, was that the modern theory of causation in history was different from what used to be. Referring to the history of the Company's factories, he said that he thought, that in these factories was to be seen the basis of what has subsequently become the British Indian Empire. He then proceeded to trace the growth of the city from 1629 to the end of the 17th century, pointing the growth of population, trade, executive powers, and judicial powers. He gave a short account of the various differences between the Fort authorities and the King of Golkonda. Speaking of the Portuguese settlement of St. Thome, he said that the decay of this settlement and its siege by the King of Golkonda had driven many of the most prosperous and able merchants of the Portuguese settlement into Madras, where at this time a settled government was in existence. This influx of Portuguese merchants was of great importance to the prosperity of the city and its growth. As the Company's trade with China was carried on through Manilla, which was at that time in the possession of the Portuguese and Spaniards, and owing to the troubles with the Spanish, English merchants were unable to carry on trade through the island. The Portuguese merchants were peculiarly useful to the Company in this respect. The lecturer also referred to the diamond trade of Madras. Practically the whole of the diamonds exported from India were, he said, exported from this city. He then referred to the events leading up to the imposition of the quit-rent which had first excited much opposition. He also spoke of the introduction of brokers who were supposed to go round the town finding out people who had things to sell and those who wished to buy, for which a charge of 1 per cent. on the value of the goods was made.

INDIAN OPPORTUNITY.

The problem before us when we have educated Indians is to give them the fullest opportunity in the government of their own country to exercise the advantages which they have acquired by training and by education. How are we going to remove avoidable disabilities under which Indians labour while promoting the efficiency of the public services generally? Those who desire reform in the Indian service will welcome the appointment by His Majesty of a Royal Commission of which the House has heard. Sir Charles Aitchison's Public Service Commission reported at the end of 1887 and final orders were published on its recommendation in 1891. He would be a bold man who would say having regard to the development of India during the past 20 years that there is now no necessity for any development of the system which owes its results to Sir Charles Aitchison's Commission. Many points remain and some directly result from the orders which were based upon that Commission's report which have given rise to grave discontent inside and outside the services concerned. First of all there is the Indian Civil Service. A competitive examination at the moment lays the way open for a choice between the home and the Indian Civil Service, and those who choose the Indian Civil Service have a year's probation at home before they go out to do the varied administrative, executive and judicial work the success of which is I think, the marvel of the whole world and a source of continued pride to the people of Great Britain.

An interesting attempt to re-write Economics, by George Binney Dibblee.

Mr. R. C. K. Ensor in noticing a recent publication entitled 'The Laws of Supply and Demand' by George Binney Dibblee (Constable, London) writes in the *Daily Chronicle* as follows: Mr. Dibblee's critical daring deserves all praise. He is no skirmer on the outworks of economic science; he goes right to the centre, to the questions of supply and demand themselves, and argues cogently for a new set of first principles.

His great discovery is the importance of selling. "The general belief among economists," he says, "remained for a long time that selling was a mechanical process, conducted on regular margins, and that the sole variable was cost of manufacture." His own view just reverses the position. With modern machinery it is relatively easy to manufacture things. The difficulty is to sell them. The spindles of Oldham alone could easily produce in twelve months enough yarn for all Europe. But nobody could sell it if they did. A manufacturer who started a factory with the most up-to-date cheap-working machinery and the best of workmen would soon be ruined unless he had also a trade connection, or a very strong reserve of capital to draw upon while he laboriously built one up. The economists talk too often as if "demand" was something which only could—and always could—be increased by lowering price. In point of fact, says Mr. Dibblee, demand is commonly increased, and even created, in quite other ways—by advertising, by establishing mercantile connections, by creating fashions, &c. Merely to cheapen an article is by no means a specific for selling more of it: often it will make it unsaleable.

There are probably few articles, he says, which it does not cost more to sell than it does to make—often many times more. To begin with, the manufacturer's own costs include a big bill for selling; there are few manufacturers who do not spend more time personally over their connection than over works management. Then there is the retailer's margin, high and pretty constant. But

between these are all the great merchants and middlemen. The idea of them as a sort of fifth wheel in the coach is wholly belied by facts. More capital certainly, more ability probably, is required in their business than in that of production. They supply the keystones without which the myriad arches of modern industry would collapse. A Negro in Texas grows cotton, which ultimately is sold as calico to a rubber-growing coolie in Malaysia. The Negro in turn buys articles made with rubber. Now the art and difficulty of growing cotton or rubber—for that matter of working them up too—is nothing to the achievement whereby these products are exchanged across the world. Moreover, production depends wholly on the exchange; the Negro could not possibly go on growing cotton, nor the coolie rubber if the bridges between the producer and the ultimate consumer were broken down. The importance of the seller's function, often overlooked by economists and pooh-poohed by socialists and co-operators, is written large over this face of things. The world's greatest and richest cities have never been the manufacturing cities. They are the mercantile cities.

With these dominant ideas, Mr. Dibblee sets to work to re-analyse and re-construct the whole theory of supply and demand. Space forbids one attempting here either to do justice to his brilliancy or to challenge his risky points. Two principles upon which much of his argument turns are the element of futurity in demand and the need of so controlling supply that demand may always remain a "force of suction." The former occasions a natural inferiority in the seller, who (broadly speaking) must always sell because he has already done his work and committed himself, while the demander is uncommitted and can change his mind. The latter is the explanation of trusts, commercial crises and many other things. Among the functions of the mercantile class, the most important is to regulate, as by a series of locks, the stream of goods from producer to consumer. At any given time, it is essential that a vast volume of goods be held back from the market. To do this

requires enormous capital and this is mainly why the business of selling employs much more capital than that of producing. Commercial crises occur when owing to stringency of the money market, the merchants have not enough capital available to hold up their goods. Obligated to open their sluices, they let loose the flood which economists call a "glut." These crises are strictly never crises of "over-production," but of "over-selling." Dear money starts them.

Mr. Dibblee tracks his idea down many by-paths. He applies it, e.g., to the sale of labour, and has an interesting chapter on the function of trade-unionism as a force controlling labour supply and providing a labour reserve. His concrete illustrations of more central arguments, e.g., his sketch of the rise of Mr. Rockefeller, are most brilliantly done. His style is throughout singularly strong, masculine and mordant; and there is an easy familiarity with the ways and personnel of modern business too commonly lacking in economists. He is the business mentioned theorist, possibly lacking quite the fullest theoretical equipment but rich in new ideas suggested by facts. Perhaps, what the average reader will most question in him is his optimism. Is it really best for the world to be supplied by a system under which goods cost more to market than to make, and half the marketing machinery is directed to prevent their being sold at anything like the price at which they can be made. Mr. Dibblee answers, yes; the system gives the consumer a freedom of choice which alone accords with a keen sense of liberty. But elsewhere he is eloquent on the "grimy business," the frauds, the self-deceptions, the freaks, the slavish make-believes, which govern nine-tenths of modern consumption. Is the right to be grimy worth the economic price which the modern world pays for it?

The States of Mind in English Education.

Speaking at the Leeds Modern School on July 23, Mr. M. E. Sadler (Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University), said that English education (sharply distinguished in this from German) was not so much an organized system as a variety of states of mind, some reflecting ancient traditions and others new aspirations which had been stirred by the stress and stimulus of modern life.

Thus four strong currents of feeling were forcing their way into English education. One current came from those working men, relatively few in number, but influential through their courage and character, who were embracing a new view of education which discarded a good deal of the old "educational ladder" theory, with its attraction of personal advancement into the better paid ranks of industry or into professional life, and was more concerned with the problem how to secure for the adult worker opportunities of study and mental training alongside of his wage-earning employment and in continued comradeship with members of his own class. A second current came from the dissatisfaction of many women with what they felt to be the habitual under-estimate of their claims to be regarded as intellectually and administratively competent to bear an unpatronized part in government and public administration. A third came from the yearning, which grew stronger in many minds as the conflict of spiritual ideals became more confused, that children should grow up into the peace of assured belief under the wing of the Christian faith. The fourth current was a new and venturesome optimism, self-confident, insatiable in its appetite for new experiences and sensations, buoyant, swift-minded, gay but often ruthless towards the incompetent, quick but fickle in its intimacies, humorously tolerant in its judgments, stoical in danger, unfrightened of the future though uncertain of the issues which the future might bring. This temper of mind, the spirit of the pioneer, was far commoner in the United States and in Canada than in Europe, but its strong infection had caught hold of the younger England and would have an influence in English education.

The common factor in these four states of mind was a sense of comradeship, whether in sex or class, or in loyalty to some religious society, or in adventurous outlook upon the opportunities of life. Hence it was that those parts of our education which encouraged comradeship were at this time the most awake.

Lord Morley on the Author in Public Life.

On July 25, Blackburn conferred the honorary freedom of the borough on Lord Morley of Blackburn and Sir William Coddington, *Bt.* The ceremony took place at a special meeting of the Town Council, held in the Assembly Room of the Town Hall and was marked by full civic honours. Lord Morley is a native of Blackburn having been born there on December 24, 1838. Caskets containing the scroll, and bearing copies of the Resolution conferring the freedom, were presented to the recipients by the Mayor, Alderman Crossley. The design of the casket presented to Lord Morley symbolized Study, Wisdom and Justice.

Lord Morley, in acknowledging the honour, spoke as follows:—I have lived, in the words of a great man, long and variously, and I think it is no mean reward for a strenuous life to be received, as you now receive me, when the course is coming near its close. You or your forefathers once did me a great service. In the year 1869, I think, there was an election in this borough, and the returning officer on Blakey Moor had the painful duty of declaring I was at the bottom of the poll. At the time I felt a pang, but a Lancashire man is not discouraged, and is not finally foiled because he loses the first bout. There were 14 years between that happy non-election and my gaining a seat in the House of Commons. In those 14 years I betook myself to the profession of letters.

Now, I want you to banish from your mind the ridiculous idea that because a man knows and writes books—I know but few books and I have written too many—he cannot know men, cannot have habits of public business, and cannot render useful service in deliberation, in Parliaments, in Cabinets, in great Departments of State. That is a ridiculous idea, which I hope you will not allow to linger in your minds for a moment. I would just like to note in passing that of the last

seven Prime Ministers, five—I think I might say six, perhaps seven—have made a mark in the writing of books, and if they had been drawn by the necessities of life into journalism, daily or periodical writing and I had been in my editorial days, I would have guaranteed any one of the five or six an excellent salary.

Nobody adores literature more than I do, but action is the word for man and, perhaps, for woman. Public life is an honourable sphere whether municipal or national. It is fit for anybody—I do not care how much he may think of ease and repose—who has a decent brain, a stout heart, and persistent temper; a good mixture of which I think, we have in Lancashire—the intrepid with the sedate, the bold with the sensible. Public life, in spite of the strain, is the most splendid incomparable training ground, whether municipal or national. It strengthens and deepens the sense of public duty and public responsibility; it opens the mind to wider points of view and—what, perhaps, I should place first of all—it teaches men the habit of co-operation, of working with other people, of throwing their minds into the joint stock for some great common purpose. They may say what they will about party mischief. There is plenty of mischief about party, but there would be more without it. While maintaining the core of your own individuality you should make yourself able to work with other people. What I take to be Lancashire qualities (you will tell me if I am wrong) are useful for the work—pluck, a certain delightful and winning frankness of speech, independence of mind, and a thorough hatred of affectation in all its forms.

Organisation among Teachers, by K. A. Veeraraghavachariar, B.A., L.T.

Mr. H. Hinzange, M.A., Ph. D., Principal Cole's Memorial High School, Kurnool, arranged for a meeting of teachers when Mr. K. A. Veeraraghavachariar, late of Pachaiyappa's College, gave a lecture on "The Need for Organization among the members of the Teaching Profession." He spoke as follows:—Organization is necessary to preserve and extend the privileges the Secondary School teacher gained under the School Leaving Certificate Scheme. I have great confidence in the scheme and feel it is a distinct improvement on the Matriculation of the University. I admit there are defects in the scheme, but they are defects which will be surely removed if only teachers have organizations behind them to press the reform. The rules of the Government *re.* the admission of the holders of the School Leaving Certificates into the subordinate ranks of Government service are distinctly against the spirit of the whole scheme and betray want of confidence in the teacher and his record. It is the duty of the Secondary School teacher to get the rules modified. Great danger lies in the teacher neglecting the subjects in which there is no public examination. I am sorry that there are teachers who justify the neglect on the ground that the curriculum in the subjects of groups A and C of the School Final Scheme is over-crowded. My personal experience is that the scheme throws enormous work on the teacher and that too much is expected to be taught in connection with group C subjects. I am confident that in the light of experience gained these drawbacks will be remedied but what is wanted is organization among the teachers.

I am sorry to see that the tendency among Secondary School teachers is to depend a little far too much on Inspecting officers. There are Inspectors and Inspectors and I say that when an Inspector is erratic, as sometimes it happens the teacher must have an organisation to fall back upon to point out to the Inspector that what he does has the support of the members of the profession who by their attainments, special study, and experience are best fitted to guide and control Secondary education. My experience is that Inspectors always respect the opinion of Teachers' Associations.

The Teaching of English Literature: Sir Gilbert Parker's Plea for the Wide View.

Sir Gilbert Parker, M.P., presided at a session of the Imperial Conference of Teachers' Associations at Caxton Hall, Westminster, when English literature came under discussion. Sir Gilbert Parker said that the movement for these conferences had its origin in 1903, when it was his good fortune to arrange a congress at which every University of the Empire was represented. He had his own views about the teaching of English literature. He did not believe that knowledge, information, without something else, was of very much value. Knowledge and information joined to a human sense which was able effectively to apply that knowledge and information was the indispensable thing. They must have them all combined. Separately they got prigs and potentates. The wide view was everything. He had been engaged in literature all his life—he would not say with an undeserved success—but with a consuming desire to make his life work worthy of the thing itself. He believed there was a moment when that love of work was in danger by the fact that when he passed an examination at a certain University in English literature he received 48 per cent. which was below the necessary 50 per cent. of marks required to pass the examination. He also got 90 per cent. in Mathematics. He was absolutely certain that the 90 per cent. was wholly undeserved in mathematics—and he was equally convinced that the 48 per cent. was wholly undeserved in English literature. When his paper came he received it with joy. There was nothing he could not answer, and he was never happier in his life. He wrote freely and expressed himself concerning Coleridge, Gray, Browning and Shakespeare—he had no doubt with the pride of eighteen, and the certainty of eighteen. But there was a point of view in what he did. He might have been wrong, but the examiner should have recognised the fact that there was a man who cared enough about the thing to express his own views and be wrong. That had a very powerful effect upon him. He sometimes now in his sleep dreamed of the shock he got when he was awarded 48 per cent. in English literature. 'I never knew who the examiner was,' said Sir Gilbert, 'but I will stake my life on it that if I met him to-day I should find him just what I thought him then.'

THE UNIVERSITIES.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY

Programme for the Opening of New Buildings.

His Honour the Chancellor was to be received at the main entrance by the Vice-Chancellor, the Syndicate and subscribers to the University buildings. He was to be conducted to the dais, in the centre of which he was to be seated, with the Vice-Chancellor and the Chief Justice on either hand, the remainder of the dais being occupied by the Fellows and Honorary Fellows of the University, and subscribers to the Building Fund.

The invited guests were to be seated in the body of the hall, and accommodation for students was to be provided in the galleries around the hall.

When his Honour the Chancellor was seated, the Vice-Chancellor was to invite him to declare the building open.

The Chancellor was then to deliver his address. After the building had been declared open, a procession was to be formed in the following order:—

The Registrar.
The Members of the Syndicate.
The Hon. the Vice-Chancellor.
His Honour the Chancellor.
Honorary Fellows and Ordinary Fellows.
Subscribers to the Building Fund.

This procession was to leave the hall by the west door, and was to proceed to the site where the symbolic banyan tree was to be planted.

On arrival at the site His Honour the Chancellor was to order the removal of the planks, and after measuring the height of the root block and the depth of the hole, was to order the tree to be lowered. As soon as the tree had reached its place, His Honour was to walk round, and see that it was perfectly straight, and was to order sufficient earth to be thrown in to secure it in position, as well as water to be poured in.

After the tree had been watered, His Honour was to walk round once more and was to dedicate the tree in these words:

'May by the grace of God this tree be, and remain, the emblem and symbol of the University of Allahabad, and convey to the generations that follow us the memories of those who have gone before.'

A silver *phourah* was then to be presented to His Honour on behalf of the University by the Vice-Chancellor in memory of the occasion.

At the conclusion of the ceremony His Honour was to be conducted back to the main building, where the Vice-Chancellor was to be 'At Home' to the invited guests and Fellows of the University.

THE DACCA UNIVERSITY.

An Interesting Scheme expected.

When the Committee appointed to formulate a scheme for the Dacca University concluded its sittings in Calcutta a number of Sub-committees was formed to settle details, and in order that they might do their work more thoroughly they have been given authority to invite experts to sit with and help them. These Sub-committees are now sitting, and it is believed that the scheme they will evolve will arouse considerable interest.

THE HINDU UNIVERSITY.

Total Collection.

The total amount realised up-to-date for the Hindu University is nearly eight lakhs and eighty-six thousand rupees. The total expenditure is thirteen thousand and eight hundred rupees nearly. The Honorary Secretary, Dr. Sunder Lal, has asked the Maharaja of Darbhanga, President of the Committee, to fix a date and place for a meeting of the Executive Committee to consider Sir Harcourt Butler's letters and the preparation of a draft constitution such as the community would like to have.

THE MUSLIM UNIVERSITY.

Committee's Decision.

At the sitting of the Constitution Committee held at Lucknow under the presidency of the Hon. Raja Sir Muhammad Ali Mohammad Khan, Mahmudabad, K.C.I.E., the President explained the situation and laid the letter of the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler before the Committee.

The Secretary read letters received from the following gentlemen, to the effect that the Government be requested to reconsider its decision about the affiliation:—H. H. Sir Aga Khan, Nawab Vikar-ul-Mulk, the Hon. Mr. Fazilbhoj, Sahibzada Abdul Kayum, Dr. Mohommed. Iqbal, and M. Karamat Husain.

The resolutions sent by the Bihar Provincial Committee and by the Bareilly District Committee were read and recorded.

The Committee proceeded to consider the letter of the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler and after a discussion of more than three hours in which, says the *Indian Daily Telegraph*, every one present in

the meeting took active part, no less than six resolutions were unanimously carried.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Arrangements for a Teaching University.

A meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held at the Senate House, College Square, when Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor, presided over a fair attendance of Fellows.

The Senate was asked to accept the recommendation of the Syndicate to move the Governor-General-in-Council, to accord their sanction for the appointment of the undermentioned gentlemen as University lecturers in the subject or subjects noted against the name of each, for a term of two years with effect from the session, 1912-13:—

Mr. M. A. Hafeez, B.A., (Oxon), Barrister-at-Law, and Mr. Satishchandra Ray, M.A., Political Economy and Political Philosophy; Shamsul-ulma Snaik Mahmud Gilani, Arabic and Persian; Mr. Zahadur Rahim Zahid Suhrawardy, M.A., B.L., Persian; Aga Kazim Shirazi, Persian; Dr. A. M. Suhrawardy, M.A., Ph.D., D.Litt, Arabic; and Mr. Praphulla Chandra Ghosh, M.A., English.

In placing the resolution before the Senate, Sir Ashutosh made an interesting statement in regard to the arrangements made towards converting the University into a teaching body. The resolution was carried with acclamation.

Tagore Law Professor.

The Senate accepted the recommendation of the Faculty of Law which had been adopted by the Syndicate and appointed Babu Samatul Chandra Datta, M.A., B.L., as Tagore Law Professor and that the subject of his lecture will be 'Law of Compulsory Sales in British India.'

MANCHESTER UNIVERSITY.

The Vice-Chancellor's Annual Statement.

The Vice-Chancellor of the Manchester University (Sir Alfred Hopkinson, K.C.), in his statement concerning the session 1911-12 says the total number of students in the several faculties of the University was as follows:—All faculties except medicine and technology (including 330 women students), 1,151; faculty of medicine (including 28 women students), 334; faculty of technology (including 5 women students), 206—total, 1,691; or, allowing for 31 students entered both as science and medical students, 1,660. In addition to the above there were 199 persons attending evening

classes. This number is exclusive of about 200 students attending lectures on railway economics and of about 200 attending courses in law and economics at the Bankers' Institute. The following are the numbers of students who have been working in preparation for the degree examinations of the University in the several faculties other than medicine:—Men, 629; women, 235. Forty-six students were preparing for the teacher's diploma (15 of these being women students), 19 were preparing for the Matriculation examination (two women), and 51 were elected Research students. One hundred and fifty students in the past session were students of the University Training College for Men, viz., 55 of the first, 43 of the second, and 52 of the third year; 138 were students of the University Training College for Women, viz., 64 of the first, 47 of the second, and 27 of the third year.

It was with deep regret that he had to record the deaths of Professor Hope, W. Hogg, Professor of Semitic Languages and Literatures in the University since 1903, and formerly Lecturer in Hebrew; and more recently of Professor Dixon, Mann, Professor of Forensic Medicine.

The allocation of the increased grant of £50,000 for Universities and University Colleges in England, promised by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in reply to a small representative deputation which waited upon him in November 1910, has now, the Vice-Chancellor adds, been made on the report of the Advisory Committee of the Board of Education. The additional amount allocated to the University of Manchester is £5,500 a year, and the grants, subject to unforeseen contingencies, are fixed for a period of five years as from April 1, 1911. The report of the Advisory Committee, which has been approved by the Board of Education, was made after consideration of statements furnished on behalf of the various Universities and a personal visit by representatives of the Committee subject to two conditions the grants are to be paid over to 'general income,' to be expended 'under the direction and at the discretion of the constituted authorities.' They are to be regarded as strictly maintenance grants, to meet annual expenditure on teaching and research of a University character and standard £11,950 out of the total grant has not been apportioned, but is reserved pending consideration of a superannuation scheme, which the Advisory Committee propose to report on later. This balance will be regarded as applicable to the institution of a superannuation scheme and other contingencies. There has been an increase in the grants made through the Board of Education under the head of technical instruction, which in-

cludes medicine and engineering. These grants now include also an amount in respect of those students who take their clinical instruction in the Dental Hospital as full time students.

The University of Paris.

In the *Schoolmaster* of July 6th will be found an account of the Sorbonne, described as "certainly the cheapest University in the world," where "the wealthy student is rather in the nature of a phenomenon." For a Matriculation fee of 30 francs the student—male or female—obtains access to all the lectures and enjoys all the privileges of the institution; and for the benefit of foreigners who desire to become teachers of French, a *certificat d'études françaises* is granted on the result of an examination in history, literature, and an optional subject.

The students are under no disciplinary regulations as to place of residence—many live at *pensions*, but the ordinary course is to rent a room at a *hôtel meublé* for a pound a month or so, and make one's own arrangements as to board. There are many students, we are told, who live on fifteen shillings a week. The great disadvantage felt by the comparatively few English students who go to the Sorbonne is the absolute lack of facilities for organised sport. But there are compensating advantages inasmuch as students are admitted to the State theatre and elsewhere at reduced rates, and the museums, art galleries, libraries, and all the other treasures of Paris are freely thrown open to them.

Reviews and Notices.

MACBETH: EDITED BY S. S. GOGGIN; TWELFTH NIGHT: BY H. C. DUFFIN. (THE UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL SERIES.) 2s.

We have already had occasions to comment on the excellence of the University Tutorial Series of Shakespeare's plays and we hope it would convey an adequate idea of our hearty appreciation of the two volumes under review when we say they maintain the high standard. The introduction is very comprehensive and is admirably suited for the purposes of students preparing for our University examinations. The anxiety of the editors to guide the students in all matters pertaining to Shakespearean research is evident from a treatment of questions like the use of prose in the plays and an elaborate examination of metre. The inclusion of

extracts from the original sources is another great attraction and we have no hesitation in saying that no aspect of Shakespearean study has been omitted from the vision of the editors.

BURKE'S CONCILIATION WITH AMERICA: EDITED BY S. G. SELBY. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 1s. 9d.

Messrs. Macmillan & Co. have added to their useful series of literary classics an edition of Burke's Speeches on *Conciliation with America*. Mr. Selby is a distinguished educationist of the Bombay Presidency and his Indian experience has stood him in great stead in the appreciation of the points of difficulty in the text. The notes are choice as well as adequate. Burke's speeches on *Conciliation with America* form one of the finest exhibitions of English style, while their lofty sentiments invest the collection with a peculiar elevating value. We have no hesitation in pleading for a wider and wider recognition of this work of Burke's in our Universities and in recommending this edition of Selby's for use by our students.

ENGLISH LESSONS FOR ASIATICS, BY PHILIP A. WOOD. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 12 As.

We are not very much pleased with the title of Mr. Wood's book. Its only justification would be the introduction of methods of teaching peculiarly suited to Oriental minds. The author probably meant by it nothing more than lessons in English to those who study it as a foreign tongue. But there has not been the least attempt to make it useful in that direction. It is not a simple beginning that is aimed at, as the very first sentence runs: 'Whenever a verb is referred to in this book it will be given in the infinitive forms thus: the verb *to be*, *to have*, *to go*, *to walk*.' And that is from *Lesson 1 to Asiatic Children*. The author has again missed a good means of making it peculiarly suitable to Asiatic children by not caring to dwell in the illustrations on sights and objects with which they are familiar. We are absolutely certain no educationist would think of using this passage as an illustration for direct speech to a class of *Asiatic* children—names nearer home could certainly have been thought of: 'Dictys, the fisherman' said, 'I am ready to take *Däne* home!' At least the proper names in the illustrations might have been *Asiatic*, to justify the title in some remote manner. The use of conversational lessons is however an undeniable attraction.

JUNIOR DICTATION FROM FAMOUS AUTHORS, BY RANKIN WENLOCK. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 1s.

The practice of selecting exercises from 'famous authors' for purposes of dictation cannot but be of the highest value as it serves the double purpose of teaching the spelling of difficult words as well as familiarising the pupils with literary masterpieces. Mr. Wenlock has on the whole discharged this task of selection with commendable ability paying attention to literary merit as well as the standard of difficulty suited to the classes. We confess we do not recognise 'famous authors' in Bayly, Weatherly, Wood and Gatty and selections from them might very well have been omitted. There is a very useful appendix of examination tests and a glossary of difficult words.

MARLOWE'S DOCTOR FAUSTUS: EDITED BY WILLIAM MOLDEN. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 1s. 6d.

Among the most pathetic circumstances of English literary history is the neglect into which Christopher Marlowe has been thrown by the appearance of Shakespeare in the next generation. Making due allowance for the characteristic exaggeration of Swinburne, his claim will be granted in the main, that he had in him more of the *spirit* of Apollo than almost any other poet in English literature. And *Faustus* is the most lofty of the tragedies of Marlowe which led Elizabethan drama,

From jiggling veins of rhyming mother-wits,
And such conceits as clownage keeps in play,

to a dignity and power which must command the admiration of every lover of poetry. Mr. Molden's edition satisfies all the needs of the student though it might have been somewhat more advanced in its standard as the play is taken up only in the post-graduate or Honours classes. We are particularly pleased by the care displayed by the editor in making it as comprehensive as possible, in furnishing two valuable notes for instance on Marlowe's use of blank verse and the treatment of the Faust legend in literature.

CHAMBERS'S ETYMOLOGICAL DICTIONARY (ENLARGED EDITION.) 1s. net.

The book consists of 694 pages and is thus a marvel of cheapness. It is a real improvement on old editions and is thorough and up-to-date. Chambers's Dictionary has long enjoyed a great reputation among popular lexicons and the improvements in the present volume will undoubtedly enhance it.

XVIII

STORIES OF THE ENGLISH FOR SCHOOLS, BY F. BOOK I—FOR JUNIOR SCHOLARS: FROM THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH TO THE ARMADA. 1s. 6d. BOOK II—FOR SENIOR SCHOLARS: THE STRUGGLE FOR POWER AND GREATER ENGLAND. 1s. 6d. (WILLIAM BLACKWOOD & SONS, EDINBURGH AND LONDON). 1912.

We heartily welcome these two volumes from the pen of a writer who does not reveal his name. They are characterised by a felicitous way of narrating events and really needed in spite of other books already in the field. They contain 180 and 260 pages respectively and deserve to be used as text-books in Forms IV and V, as a special period is fixed for the last year of the Secondary School course. If the publishers have a proper agency, they can be introduced in nearly all schools in this Presidency.

IN ENGLAND, BY S. G. DUNN, M.A. (OXON), INDIAN EDUCATIONAL SERVICE. (MACMILLAN & Co.) Price 4s. 12.

It is intended to give some general ideas of England to those who do not actually visit it. Almost all the information contained in the little volume of 110 pages is already known to pupils and teachers in this presidency. It has nothing specially attractive to us. Only a book of larger and more important details will be of help here.

THE OXFORD INDIAN READER, BY W. BELL, C.I.E. (OXFORD: CLARENDON PRESS).

It contains selections from the Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vols. I—IV in four parts—Descriptive, Historical, Economic and Administrative—covering 320 pages on the whole. It is intended to be used in schools and colleges. For the former, it is too high and for the latter, too low. This remark applies with special force to the part on Economics. The historical portion does not stimulate any interest either in the teacher or in the pupil. So much is now-a-days known of the administration of India that the information given is not of much help. The first 77 pages treating of Geology, Botany, Ethnology, &c., are really useful. The type is closely set. The paper may be better. We hope that the next edition will be improved.

INDIAN FAIRY TALES, WITH ILLUSTRATIONS, BY C. S. RAMASWAMY AIYAR, EDITOR, 'TAMIL ZENANA MAGAZINE.' Price As. 4.

The Tales are told in simple Tamil Prose suited for Primary Schools of boys and girls. Phonetic spelling, as sanctioned by the University, might have been adopted.

THE STORY OF ISABEL, BY T. S. D. SAMI. PUBLISHED BY THE HINDU EDUCATIONAL TRADING CO., KUMBAKONAM. Price As. 2.

This gives, in simple Tamil Prose, the story of Shakespeare's *Measure for Measure*. Such booklets are of use for the little school-boys for whom it is intended.

SUSILA SWAYAMVARAM, BY K. VENKATARAMA AIYAR, B.A. PUBLISHED BY THE HINDU EDUCATIONAL TRADING CO., KUMBAKONAM. Price As. 2.

This adaptation in Tamil of "The man born to be king" by William Morris is on the same lines as that of Shakespeare's *Tempest* by the same gentleman. The style is much better than in such publications. Literary grace is heightened by apt quotations from the great poet Kamban. We hope that others doing similar work will imitate the example he has on a previous occasion also set in his rendering of Milton's *Samson Agonistes* where he has shown his Tamil scholarship also by quotations from Tamil poets which he has adjusted to the needs of the work by slight alterations.

THE STORY OF SELLATHAMMAL, BY K. VENKATARAMA IYER, B.A. PUBLISHED BY THE HINDU EDUCATIONAL TRADING CO., KUMBAKONAM. Price As. 2.

This is a story told in English to show how a childless widow comes to grief when led away by astrologers and ordinary expounders of the Puranas. She performs penances with her husband to beget a child. It is born and then dies. He sees the hollowness of their ways but is led back to them by the tricks the astrologer plays with her, unknown to her husband. She exhibits considerable skill in the management of her husband's property after his death in the course of pilgrimage; but, caught in the astrologer's net, she neglects property and sells it away, later on to die of cholera unable to bear the difficulties to which she is reduced. We do not like to stand between the

writer and the reader. The booklet is intended to promote social reform on right lines.

Mr. Venkatarama Aiyar, only retired last year from his teaching work at the Kumbakonam Town High School of which he was an ornament both by his impressive teaching and by his principles combined with character. He now uses the period of retirement in writing and thus continuing to exercise his influence. We hope that God will spare him for even more important work that he is known to be capable of doing.

PRIMER OF BOOK-KEEPING (INDIAN EDITION): SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS, LONDON: PUBLISHERS. Price Re. 1.

Students of commercial subjects are quite familiar with the name of Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Limited, through their widely circulated books on Shorthand, Book-Keeping and other allied commercial subjects, and this firm has now published an Indian Edition of the Primer of Book-Keeping. There is an impetus given now to the study of commercial subjects in India as may be evidenced by the institution of the Commercial Degree in the Bombay University and the introduction of commercial subjects in the C group of the S.S.L.C. scheme of the Government of Madras. There was always felt the want of a suitable elementary book on Book-Keeping which might be entrusted to the beginners of this art in India. They had to manage with books written for the use of English students and consequently they had to deal with peculiar names and with a monetary system not used by them. This new publication removes the difficulty and we come across a number of names familiar to the Indian student and the amounts are always stated in Indian currency. Part I of the book gives a clear and general idea of the method of keeping the necessary accounts with a number of additional exercises. Part II deals with Bills of Exchange and the Journal, thus giving a finish to the 1st part. Part III deals with the more difficult portions of consignment and dishonoured bills. The book is neatly got up and may be entrusted safely to the beginners in the subject.

PRACTICAL LESSONS IN BOOK-KEEPING, BY J. O. JACKSON, B.A., LL.B. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LD.) Price 3s. 6d.

This is a neat little book which can be had by all students of Book-Keeping with advantage. The treatment is most practical and it may be of great use both to the teachers and to the examina-

tion-going students who will find to their relief that every subject has been carefully analysed. The book has been divided into two parts, the first dealing thoroughly with the Balance Sheet, the different kinds of accounts, the Journal and the subsidiary books, and the Bills of Exchange, and the second dealing with accounts pertaining to Consignments, Contracts, Partnership, Income-tax and Joint Stock Companies. Abbreviations in general use have all been explained and the short definitions are well worth remembering. The book abounds in well-chosen and graded examples.

MODERN COMMERCIAL PRACTICE WITH CORRESPONDENCE, BY F. HEELIS. (MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s. 6d.

Mr. Heelis, author of *Modern Commercial Practice with Correspondence*, has done a great service to all interested in Commerce and its study by publishing this new book. It abounds in all forms used by commercial firms in export trade. The elegant style of letters, the neat and necessary rulings in the different accounts and statements, the model forms of shipping and other documents form a special feature of the book and may be copied by people actually engaged in trade. The book presents a new method of treating the Commercial Correspondence subject in as much as the student is given in full all the necessary letters, statements and documents one after the other for each of the transactions that are made mention of, thus giving him a full grasp of all the details in succession. A student who has a thorough mastery of this book need not be behind others in actual business.

TALES OF OLD INDIA, BY P. T. SRINIVAS IYENGAR, PRINCIPAL, MRS. A. V. N. COLLEGE. PUBLISHED BY MESSRS. P. R. RAMA IYER & CO. Price 6 As.

We have great pleasure in introducing to the notice of our readers this tiny book of tales from Hindu Scriptures. These tales we first heard seated on the knees of the dear old grandmother. The old times are changed and the present generation of school-boys is growing in total ignorance of these tales, which enshrine the age-long ideals of the Hindus. We therefore welcome the timely appearance of this book and hope many more of them will come. So far as the style of the book is concerned, the author has aimed at placing before the pupils of our High Schools a model of simple, chaste, idiomatic English and has certainly suc-

ceeded in doing so, barring sundry instances of careless proof-reading which can be set right in a next edition. The tales are taken from the Aitarya Brahmanam, Ramayanam, Mahabharatam, Uttaramacharitam, Raghuvamsam, Vishnu Puranam, Markandeya Puranam and the Bhagavad Gita. They deal mostly with the lives of young men of old India, rishis and avatars and are apparently intended to teach indirectly the fundamental moral ideals of the Hindu religion to Hindu boys. We commend the book to Headmasters of High Schools as fit to be used either as an English Reader or as a religious text-book, useful for teaching religion, at the same time avoiding dogmas which might offend some sect or other.

'THE PANSY PATCH' BY ALICE M. CHESTERTON is the latest addition to the Moral Instruction series prepared under the auspices of the Moral Instruction League. It is of the same character as the author's other two books of the series, viz., 'The Magic Garden' and 'The Garden of Childhood,' and is intended for the use of children in Standards I and II, while the two former are intended for children in Standard III and Infants class respectively. It consists of stories written in relation to the syllabus laid down by the Moral Instruction League for the moral instruction of children. In this book the author follows the same plan as in 'The Magic Garden' and puts the stories in the mouth of the different flowers in a Pansy Patch and as told by them to the children who enter Patch for a picnic on a half-holiday. The stories are told in conversational form in the way usual in English books of the kind and are very well-suited to English children. They cannot, however, be interesting to Indian children, describing as they do, English scenery and English life and containing names of flowers, plants and things not familiar to Indians. The morals of the stories are not obvious, but have to be deduced from the pupils themselves by judicious questioning. This has one obvious advantage, viz., that the children do not realise that a lesson is being imparted and can derive instruction and amusement at the same time and enjoy both.

We have received the following from the Secretary, Christian Literature Society:—

English.

RS. A. P.

1. Afghanistan and its late Amir. Imp. 8vo. 88 pp. ... 0 5 0
2. The Human Body and how to take care of it, by A. M. Fullerton, M.D. ... 0 4 0
3. My Duties, by John Murdoch, LL.D. ... 0 5 0

4. Bible Stories ...	0 4 0
5. Studies in St. John's Gospel, by Rev. E. L. King, M.A. ...	0 3 0
6. Christ's Message of the Kingdom by A. G. Hogg, M.A. ...	0 8 0
7. Three Dialogues, by K. J. Saunders, B.A. ...	0 1 6
8. The Philosophy of Religion, by G. W. Knox, D.D. ...	0 2 0
9. Scripture Lessons ...	0 2 0
10. Old Testament Stories ...	0 1 6
11. The Candid Friend, by K. J. Saunders, B.A. ...	0 1 0
12. Amir Ali's Vision, by Miss L. Marston ...	0 6 0
13. Lal Bahari Day, by Hari Har Das ...	0 4 0
14. Kali Charan Banurji, by P. R. Barber Ph.B. ...	0 4 0
15. Stories of Animals ...	0 1 0

Tamil.

16. The Garden of the Heart...	0 1 0
17. Old Testament Stories ...	0 1 6
18. New Testament Stories ...	0 2 0
19. Eli, Samuel and Saul ...	0 3 0
20. English-Tamil First Standard Reader...	0 3 0

Telugu.

21. Christianity explained to a Hindu ...	0 2 0
22. Old Testament Stories ...	0 2 0
23. Phulmani and Karuna ...	0 4 0
24. Homilies ...	1 0 0
25. English-Telugu First Book ...	0 2 0
26. Geography of Madras Presidency ...	0 5 0

Indian Educational Notes.**MADRAS.****The Madras Poor Boys' Fund.**

We are asked to announce that the following students of Colleges in Madras have been awarded scholarships from the above Fund for the year 1912-1913. The scholarship for a student of the Honours Course is Rs. 10 per mensem and that for the Intermediate Course is Rs. 7 per mensem.—

THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY COLLEGE.

Honours Course :—(1) M. K. Ramani, (2) M. Duraiswamy, (3) G. V. Mahalingam. *Senior B.A.* : (4) P. S. Narayanan. *Junior Intermediate* :—(5) K. Seshagiri Rao.

THE PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE.

Junior B.A. :—(1) C. Ramachandran. *Senior Intermediate* :—(2) R. Venkiah, (3) T. Krishnaswami, (4) T. V. Ragavachari, (5) C. Krishnamachari, (6) M. Venkataramana Rao, (7) C. Duraiswami Aiyangar, (8) P. V. Anantanarayana

Aiyar, (9) T. K. Ramaswami Aiyangar. *Junior Intermediate* :—(10) S. Srinivasan, (11) V. Veeragavan.

THE MADRAS CHRISTIAN COLLEGE.

Honours' Course (1) E. V. Sundara Reddi. *Senior B.A.* : (2) M. N. Venkataraman, (3) A. Manickavasagam. *Senior Intermediate* (4) B. Subba Rao, (5) V. Natarajan. *Junior Intermediate* : (6) T. V. Srinivasan, (7) A. S. Janakiraman.

THE WESLEY COLLEGE.

Senior Intermediate :—(1) B. Bhima Rao, (2) C. R. Amareswara Iyer. *Junior Intermediate* :—(3) K. V. Varadachari.

The Telugu Academy.**OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE DEPUTATION**

The following is the official account of the proceedings of the Deputation of the Telugu Pandits which waited on His Excellency the Governor at 11 A.M., at the Government House, Madras, on the 7th instant :—

STATEMENT BY THE DEPUTATION.

The deputation drew His Excellency's attention to the Resolutions passed by the Conference of Pandits convened under the auspices of the Telugu Academy and pointed out that, while the Sabha of the Pandits and the Academy were anxious that the morality of the future generation should not be corrupted by the literature which might hereafter be published, they requested His Excellency to consider that in point of taste there was a wide difference between the literature of the ancient days and that of the modern time and that what was considered now to be out of taste and immoral, to use a strong expression, was not so considered in ancient days and therefore, the Government should draw a distinction between the ancient classical Telugu works and modern Telugu works. It was not possible to change the literature of a particular period to suit the moral taste of a later generation, and both from a historical and literary point of view, it would be impossible to cut down or mutilate ancient classical works,—works recognised for centuries, especially when there was no evidence to show that these works had had any demoralising effect on the people. Those books are written in a pedantic language and were considered to be of grammatical and literary interest by men well-versed in Telugu literature and well-known in the Telugu literary world and these men were considerably exercised in mind when it became known that the question was being considered of

prohibiting these works or expurgating them to suit the modern taste.

The deputation urged that if prosecutions were instituted in connection with ancient classical works, it would dissuade people from publishing ancient writings and therefore requested the Government to leave the ancient classical literature alone. But, if the Government should consider at any time that any of the works were dangerous then the question should be referred to a responsible body of scholars like the Telugu Academy before any action was taken in regard to such works.

The second point discussed by the deputation was the style to be adopted in Telugu works intended for the spread of vernacular education among the masses. They urged that every body recognised that for the improvement of Telugu literature and the spread of vernacular education among the masses, a style different from that which had been cultivated in writing poetry in the past should be adopted. The deputation admitted that, except of late, there had been no prose production. There was at present literary activity in the Telugu country where a number of works were being published. Every one recognised that the works would have to be written in chaste, simple Telugu so as to be readable and understandable by the public. But what the Sabha and the Academy objected to was any violent departure from the traditions of the past or any attempt to introduce what were mere colloquialisms into the written language of literature. This could only result in retarding the real progress of the language. It was well-known that the spoken Telugu of one district was different from the spoken Telugu of another. The spoken Telugu of Ganjam would have an admixture of Uriya, that of Hyderabad would have an admixture of Hindustani and that of North Arcot and Nellore would have an admixture of Tamil. It was, therefore, essential that cultivated Telugu should be common to all. The deputation urged that no necessity had been shown why all rules of grammar should be discarded and what was supposed to be spoken Telugu in a particular district should be forced down the throats of other people. The whole agitation, the deputation pointed, arose out of prescribing certain books as text-books in schools and though the Government had been kind enough to place on the Text-Book Committee some men who were well-versed in Telugu yet, some of the Committee, were not of this kind and the Committee included men to whom Telugu was not the mother-tongue.

HIS EXCELLENCY'S REPLY.

After some informal discussion, His Excellency, in reply, said that the test as to whether a book came under the provisions of law as regards indecency had been very clearly expressed by Lord Cockburn who said that the whole question was whether a book was likely to deprave and corrupt the morals of these people into whose hands it was likely to come. If an indecent book was published in a big edition and sold for a few annas at all book-stalls, then it clearly came under the law. If, on the other hand, it was privately published for distribution to a small number of scholars and literary men who wished to preserve it for the sake of its literary and grammatical form the publisher was in no danger of prosecution. They, accordingly had the matter in their own hands. As regards the second question, His Excellency promised that Government would preserve a neutral position and that he would see whether the Text-Book Committee could not be further strengthened by the inclusion of more scholars whose mother-tongue was Telugu.

The deputation, after thanking His Excellency, withdrew.

Retirement of a Veteran Teacher.—

Mr. T. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, 2nd Assistant of the Native High School, Kumbakonam, retired from active teaching work towards the middle of last month after a strenuous service of 36 years in the same school. He was not, like the young men of the present day, a rolling stone. His keen sense of duty and his suave manners have made him an object of special esteem and his voluntary retirement proves that lucre had never been his end and aim in life. Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar still continues to do some work for the school as he had all along identified himself with the institution and had never thought of migrating for a couple of rupees to fresh pastures. The large body of his students will hear with regret his retirement from the school in the building of whose reputation, Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar had had a considerable share.

Madras Junior Muslim Literary Association.—The 2nd Anniversary of the Madras Junior Muslim Literary Association was celebrated recently at the Harris High School, Royapettah, with the Hon'ble Nawab Syed Muhammad in the chair. The proceedings commenced with prayer in Urdu. A scene from Shakespeare's *King Lear*

was enacted. There was also a comic-recitation. The Annual Report was read and adopted.

The Chairman in winding up the proceedings of the evening observed that the Report showed considerable improvement and great progress during the year under report. He was glad to learn that cultivation of moral culture formed one of the objects of the Association. The Chairman laid great stress on the importance of religion and character and hoped that more success would attend the efforts of the office-bearers of the Association in future. The Chairman was then garlanded. A prayer in Urdu followed. With a vote of thanks to the chair the proceedings were brought to a close.

An Educational Meeting at Trichinopoly.

The Assistant Masters of all Secondary Schools in the District assembled together on the 8th instant at the Town Hall to discuss the questions of Provident Fund, Teacher's Salary, Tenure of Service and the formation of a Union of Teachers. No less than six Resolutions were passed with Mr. T. V. Swaminatha Iyer, B.A., L.T., in the chair, he having kindly consented to fill the place of Mr. Khaja Khan Sahib, B.A., Assistant Inspector of Schools, who was to have presided but who was unable to be present.

The following is the list of Resolutions passed:—

Resolution 1 moved by Mr. S. A. Subramany Aiyar, seconded by Mr. Thangasami, B.A., L.T., and supported by Mr. Panchipekasa Sastri, B.A., L.T.:—This Conference of Assistant Masters in all Secondary Schools in the District tenders its respectful thanks to Government and Managers of Schools for the initiative they have taken regarding a Provident Fund for Teachers in all recognised schools and respectfully submits the following proposals for their kind consideration:—

(1). That the Manager and the Government each contribute an amount equal to the Teacher's contribution, at the rate of anna 1—4 pies per rupee of the salary.

(2). That the Fund be managed on lines approved by Government.

(3). That the rules re the Fund be after the model of those obtaining in the S. I. Ry.

Resolution 2 moved by Mr. Nelliappa Sastri, B.A., L.T., and seconded by Mr. T. S. Subramaniya Aiyar, B.A., L.T.:—This Conference while thanking Government for promise of teaching grant says:—

(1). That Government be pleased to allot liberal grants in aid of teaching;

(2). That Government be pleased to fix liberal-

ly the minimum salary of teachers in all grades in all schools; and that the scale of salary already in force in schools be revised and made sufficiently attractive with fair annual increments;

(3). That provision be made for famine allowance to all teachers as per Civil Service Regulations.

Resolution 3.—That rules relating to service, leave, etc., be in accordance with Civil Service Regulations. This was moved by Mr. M. Balakrishna Aiyar and seconded.

Resolution 4.—That an Association of Assistant Masters be formed: (1) to improve the status of Assistant Masters; (2) to improve methods of instruction; (3) to give mass lectures for popular culture; this was moved by Mr. William Ramasami Aiyar, B.A., L.T., and duly seconded.

Resolution 5.—That the President be requested to communicate printed copies of these Resolutions (1, 2 & 3) to the Inspector of Schools, VI Circle, the Director of Public Instruction, the Secretary to Government, Legislative Department, all Managers of Secondary Schools in the District, the University representative in the Legislative Council, and to all others as may be decided later on by Mr. C. K. Thayagaraja Deikshder. This was seconded and carried.

Resolution 6.—Vote of thanks to the chair by Mr. Madanagopala Deikshder.

As a result of the meeting, a number of teachers expressed their intention of forming themselves into an Association for the objects mentioned.

Presidency College, Madras.—Mr. E. W. Middlemast, M.A., the Acting Principal of the Presidency College, has given us a very full and interesting report of the working of this College during the year ending 31st March, 1912. The average number on the rolls for the year was 568.9, and the average daily attendance 530. The number on the rolls was considerably above the average. This was due principally to the fact that as this is the last year in which the College gives instruction in the old B. A. course, promotions and re-admissions to the fourth year class were made with more freedom than usual, and the class was above the average strength. However, owing to the introduction of new conditions, a reduction is anticipated in the strength of the College next year and the future number is estimated at 523. There were 18 lady students during the year. It is interesting to note the large number of students who take Sanskrit as a second language; 69 out of 149 students making this choice, whilst Malayalam comes next with 33. It is remarkable that only 3 out of 83 students taking the various combinations of subjects under group (iii) of the intermediate course, have taken a combination comprising a language. This unpopularity of lan-

guage subjects is very striking and not easy to account for, especially now that restrictions which formerly existed have been removed. There were 35 students reading for M. A. during the second term, and among these English Literature was most popular, with a total of 13. The College possesses a fine library, which is under the charge of the Professor of English. The issues on loan during the year 1911-12 amounted to 5,556 and the number issued for study in the library itself or for short loan periods amounted to 13,983. These figures are large and testify to the appreciation shown by the scholars of the benefits conferred by its existence. The College secured a large amount of success in every subject in the Intermediate, B.A. degree and M. A. degree examinations of the University. Out of a total of 80 students examined in the Intermediate examination, 55 passed, 31 being first class. The B. A. degree examination attracted 276 candidates, of whom 234 passed, and out of 9 candidates who sat for the M. A. degree, 8 passed. This was the first year in which admissions to the first year University class were made on the strength of Secondary School Leaving Certificates. The number of applications for admissions was far in excess of the number of vacancies, 276 candidates registered their names and 86 were actually admitted. Speaking of this innovation, Mr. Middlemast says: "In my opinion, which, I think, is shared by those of the professors who helped in the selection of students, the School Leaving Certificate is of much more value than the Matriculation certificate or the mark list of the Matriculation examination in determining whether a student is fit to take up one of the Intermediate courses of the University." The receipts for the year were Rs. 57,349 of which Rs. 57,271 represent fees collected, while the expenditure amounted to Rs. 193,474. In concluding his report the Acting Principal states that thanks are due to the Professors and the other members of the staff for their zealous co-operation in the work of the College, both in and out of their respective departments. Commenting on the report Dr. A. G. Bourne, Director of Public Instruction, says: "The efficient condition of the College during the year under review was creditable to the Principal and the staff of Professors and Assistants."

The Simplified Spelling Society.—A meeting of the South Indian Branch of the Simplified Spelling Society was held in the Presidency College on Tuesday, 30th July. Mr. E. W. Middlemast, M.A., Principal of the College and Honorary Treasurer of the Branch was in the chair. The Honorary Secretary, Mr. Mark Hunter, gave an account of what had already been done by the Branch to advance the movement for the simplification of English Spelling, and read a number of letters from members of the Branch unable to attend, expressing warm approval of the aims of the Society and wishing the Branch success. On the proposition of Mr. Middlemast Mr. W. B. Hunter, Secretary and Treasurer of the Bank of Madras, was unanimously elected President of

this Branch. It was further resolved that a Branch Committee should be formed consisting of seven members, including the officers for Madras and one member to represent each centre that may be instituted in the mofussil. Mr. K. B. Ramanathan, M.A., B.L.L.T., Professor of English, Pachaiyappa's College, was elected a member of the Committee for Madras, and three gentlemen were elected mofussil members, viz., Mr. L. C. Hodgson, M.A., Principal of the Maharajah's College, Trivandrum to represent Travancore. Mr. J. A. Yates, M.A., Principal of the Government College, Kumbakonam, to represent Tanjore and Mr. P. T. Srinivasa Iyengar, M.A., Principal of the Vizagapatam College to represent Vizagapatam. After certain measures for the promotion of the work of the Branch during the year had been discussed and adopted, the meeting terminated.

Building Grants.—The Government are pleased to sanction the following building grants:—

(a) A grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure nor exceeding Rs. 6,350 towards the cost of providing additional accommodation required for the Town High School, Kumbakonam, subject to the following conditions:—

(1) that in carrying out the work the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note No. 562 D., dated 9th July 1912, read above are adopted; and

(2) that all other conditions prescribed in the Grant-in Aid Code have been duly complied with.

On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

(b) A grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, not exceeding Rs. 2,700 towards the cost of construction of an additional room for the Maharaja's College, Vizianagram, subject to the following conditions:—

(1) that in carrying out the work the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note are adopted; and

(2) that all other conditions prescribed in the Grant-in Aid Code have been duly complied with.

On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

The District Teachers' Association, Mayavaram.

—The fourth meeting of the District Teachers' Association, Mayavaram, was held on the 24th instant in the Municipal High School. There were above sixty teachers present in all including those that came from Tanjore, Kumbakonam, Tiruvalur, Pattukota and other places. These were treated to a good breakfast, after which the business commenced at about 8.30 a.m. Mr. E. Swaminatha Aiyar, Headmaster, Town High School, Kumbakonam, was duly voted to the Chair. After a few words of thanks, the President commenced business by calling on Mr. S. Daniel Pillai, B.A., L.T. of St. Peter's High School, Tanjore to open the subject of discussion on "The English Papers of the S. S. L. C. Examination."

Mr. Daniel began by observing that the aim of

the S. S. L. C. scheme was over-ambitious; that considering the age of the boys it was impossible to awaken anything like a literary conscience in them—the idea of style, paragraph, structure, etc., were far beyond their comprehension—the difference of “Detailed” and “Non-detailed” was only a paper difference, completely ignored by the examiners—that examination questions were all of one set stamp demanding summarisation. The paraphrase passages were unhappy and unintelligible, being dislocated from their context—the themes of composition demanded superior powers of description, and a code of ethics far too much for young boys—that the text-papers aggravated the “cramming” tendency more than hindering it, had given rise to a host of dreadful annotations.

Mr. C. Subramanya Iyer of the Municipal High School, Mayavaram, continued the discussion by saying that the S. S. L. C. scheme aimed at giving a complete preparation for life to the boys—its object was too high—its scheme far too vague and indefinite. In his opinion the English teachers of High Schools were most by competent examiners.

Mr. V. Mahadevan of the Native High School, Kumbakonam, differed from his previous speakers: he deplored the tendency to look up to the examiners for ideals; the aim of the S. S. L. C. scheme being known, he said, that we are at perfect liberty to adopt our own methods—that the aim of the scheme did not seem an ambitious one, but quite a sensible one, being merely to enable boys to write simple, easy, straightforward English,—that “Detailed” and “Non-Detailed” was probably a difference made more for *teaching* purposes than *examining*—that examiners were certainly not responsible for the upspringing of annotations, that these were inevitable so long as there was a race of hungry book-makers—that the themes were not very inappropriate, that for the matter of that, no theme was beyond criticism to those who are bent upon fault-finding—that the standard was by no means too high as the Presidency average might testify—he thought it better that other than high school men should examine, though they should have a title to be regarded as a consultative body.

Mr. G. A. Pichaimuthu said that text-books or no text-books, the course of boys was at all times no bed of roses—schemes and systems might come and go, but the boys would go on “cramming” for ever—there was no use of frittering away our energies in minor details—every serious attempt should be made to turn out really good scholars from schools.

Mr. V. Mahadevan next stood up to say that the time of *three* hours given to each paper was a great strain upon the boys, and proposed it might be limited to *two* hours. There was very warm discussion on the point in which Messrs. S. Vembu Sastriar Ayl. and K. Seshu Aiyer Ayl. took a leading part. It was feared that *two* hours was too short for searching and thorough examination in all the portions of a particular subject, it might lead to increasing the number of examination days, and some subjects notably Physics, and special Mathematics might require a longer time; and it

was settled that for the present attention should be confined to English. Mr. K. Seshu Aiyer Ayl. finally proposed that, “considering the age of the examinees, and the season of the year at which the examinations are held, the time allotted to each paper in English is too long and should be cut short to two hours and a half” which was put to the vote and passed unanimously.

It was now high-time for dinner, and the meeting was adjourned to recommence at 2 p.m. A Sub-Committee was formed to draft resolutions to be brought up before the meeting in the afternoon.

The following resolutions were put before the meeting in the evening and passed *nem con.*—

(1) In view of the fact that Secondary School Teachers are not sufficiently represented in the S. S. L. C. Board, it is quite necessary that a Board of Moderators should be appointed, composed *mainly* of Secondary School Teachers, to pass all the question papers of the S. S. L. C. Public Examination.

(2) That one of the papers set in English should be such as to test an intimate study and knowledge at least the “detailed” text-books, and such as to encourage a good literary taste.

(3) That the quality and quantity of matter set for “detailed” study be so regulated as to meet the requirements of the above resolution (2).

The President in a neat brief speech thanked all present at the meeting, and those in special who helped on in the discussions and deliberations of the meeting. He thanked the Municipal High School Headmaster and his staff for the very grand and cordial reception which they accorded to outside members.

After music and lunch, the meeting broke up.

CALCUTTA.

Success of Scholars of Bengal National Council of Education in America.—Intimation has been received that Messrs. Dharendra Kumar Sarkar and Surendranath Ball have just graduated from the Michigan University as Bachelors of Science.

Mr. Dharendra Kumar Sarkar (brother of Prof. Benoy Kumar Sarkar, M. A., joined the Bengal National College after winning a 2nd grade Government Matriculation Scholarship; read as a student in Mechanical Engineering; worked for some time as honorary teacher and organiser of some mofussil National Schools and with two months' preparation stood first at the seventh standard examination of the National Council; was elected to one of the foreign scholarships of the National Council in August 1910, and joined the Yale University as a student of Industrial Chemistry. At the annual examination of the Yale University Mr. Sarkar obtained 85 per cent. of the marks in Mineralogy, Organic Chemical Laboratory, Theoretical Organic Chemistry, Crystallography and French; above 75 per cent. in Theoretical Gravimetric Analysis, Practical Gravimetric Analysis; above 65 per cent. in Mathematics and German. He

then joined the Michigan University where he did creditable work and graduated as Bachelor of Science. He thus completes the four years' course in two years by doing extra work in summer and other recesses—a privilege granted to deserving students by all American Universities.

Mr. Surendranath Ball passed with distinction the seventh standard examination of the National Council of Education, standing first in the Biological subjects; studied Economics, Advanced Chemistry and subjects allied to Pharmaceutical Chemistry at home and prepared text-books in vernacular with Prof. Benoy Kumar Sarkar according to his method on Botany and Zoology for use in Secondary Schools; worked for sometime as Assistant, Biological Laboratory, Bengal National College; served as apprentice in the Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works, specially in the Preparation Department; was elected to one of the foreign scholarships of the National Council and joined the University of Michigan (U. S. A.) from which he graduates as B. Sc. and Ph. C. He also completes four years' course in two years. He has written a treatise on Pharmacy.

BOMBAY.

Sir George Clarke at the Guzerat College.—The Governor of Bombay in laying the foundation stone of the Emperor George V and Sir George Clarke Library in connection with the Guzerat College in Ahmedabad, delivered a long speech in the course of which he said:—

When I was here last I inflicted rather a long educational discourse upon you. I daresay that you did not at all agree with what I then said and I have never known any educational reforms which did not meet with opposition. Education like everything else must be judged by results and that the University of Bombay needed changes was obvious, though the need would necessarily seem more glaring to one going fresh to the study of Indian educational problems than to those who had become accustomed to routine. I heard complaints on all sides. Government found difficulties in obtaining the qualifications they required. The Indian leaders of commerce and industry were not able to secure trained assistance of the right kind. It is necessary to import brains that India should supply or to send Indians Home to get instruction which ought to be made available in India. The recent changes are of two kinds. There will be a most notable increase of science teaching and commerce will have a College of its own. Thanks entirely to the munificent contributions of Sir Chinubhai Madhowlal and the patriotic citizens of Bombay, the University courses have been systematized and in place of diffusion over many subjects, of which only a smattering could be obtained, there will be a concentration which should lead to greater thoroughness. Moreover the special grants of the Government of India will, if wisely used, enable the University of Bombay to make a fresh start in directions hitherto neglected and to become, as I have urged, a real centre of

light and learning in Western India. The relations between the University and the affiliated Colleges leave much to be desired. In the new life which is now opening and which will certainly grow stronger with the years, I am sure that the Ahmedabad Colleges will fully share and new relations will be established which must add alike to the dignity of the University and to the efficiency of its integral parts. The first duty of a real University is to help and to inspire not only within the sphere of its authority but on broad lines embracing the general guidance and advancement of the culture of the community. These must be the aims of the Ahmedabad University of the feature of which Sir Chinubhai Madhowlal has laid deep the foundations. I shall always recall with pleasure the fact that every change that will now be carried out has had the cordial support from Indians who are specially qualified to form opinions on educational matters. Experience will certainly lead to further changes and all living Universities have constantly to adapt themselves to conditions rapidly changing. The problems of higher education admit of no exact solution and thought. Regulations are necessary for the working of all great systems of administration. They must never be regarded as final and perfect. All that the educational reformer can do is to strive to establish true principles to which future changes can conform.

Foreign Notes. GREAT BRITAIN.

Sanskrit Manuscripts at Oxford.—A loan of rare works.—His Highness Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana, G. C. B., Prime Minister of Nepal, who in 1909 presented a very valuable collection of 6,300 Sanskrit MSS. to the Bodleian Library, has just placed the University of Oxford under a new obligation by sending on loan from his private library at Katmandu 70 carefully-selected Sanskrit MSS., which have been personally handed over to the Boden Professor of Sanskrit at Oxford by a representative of Messrs. Keymer, Son, and Co., of 1, Whitefriars Street, London.

The MSS., which for the most part consist of palm leaves, are of priceless value either on palaeographic grounds or on account of their rarity. About 30 of them date from between 700 and 1400 A. D., being nearly all older than almost any Sanskrit MSS. obtainable in India itself, thanks to the excellence of the climate of Nepal for the preservation of MSS. They are to be reproduced by the photograph and colotype processes, which the Clarendon Press have raised to a high degree of perfection. A grant for the purpose has been voted by the administrators of the Max Muller Memorial Fund. When the reproductions have been deposited in the Bodleian, that Library which already possesses by far the largest collection of Sanskrit MSS. in the West, will be also the richest Library in the world in palaeographical specimens of Sanskrit MSS. beginning from about 400 A.D. down to the last century.—“Times.”

The Educational Review.

Education has been very much to the fore in the last few weeks, but Government's educational ideals by far the most important event is the proclamation of the Indian Government's educational ideals by the Under-Secretary of State for India. It is of course gratifying that the elementary-school-going population is to be doubled and the initial salary of the primary school-master will be as much as that of an inferior servant. But unless the Training Schools are also doubled and staffed with people who *can train*, the mere increase of Primary Schools will not be much of a boon. A bad teacher as surely kills out the budding brains of his boys as a good one helps them to grow. More places run on the old lines, where mechanical drilling in the memorizing of dreary stuff was the only teaching method used will, we fear, do more harm than good to the country. Moreover teachers of rural schools must be trained in special training schools located in the country, their course of training being necessarily different from that of teachers of town schools. But are there many people in the country who realize this?

Referring to secondary education, the Hon'ble Mr. Montagu announced the extension of model schools staffed with graduates on salaries ranging from Rs. 40 to Rs. 400. Violent exception has been taken by some people in our Presidency to the proposal to start model schools. This has been more from mixed motives than from any real objection to the spread of efficient education among the people. Possibly the objectors fear that such schools will present a model undesirable to follow. We do not share such fears but we decidedly protest against the assessment of

the initial monthly worth of a graduate at Rs. 40. For this amount but the refuse among B.A.'s can be secured. It is such niggardly payment in the past that has driven the best of our graduates into the legal profession or the public service. Even if a good teacher should be forced by hunger to accept the pay, the loss of self-respect due to under-appreciation of one's service is bound to re-act on the work of the teacher. That the State should set such an example to private managers whose love of economy is so well known!

Mr. Montagu next spoke of University education and vaguely promised the opening of residential Universities. The question of secular residential Universities is, so far as we are concerned, still out of the region of practical politics. The only residential Universities we are likely to have soon are the proposed sectarian ones of Aligarh and Benares. We regard the starting of sectarian Universities as a positive danger to the progress of the land. In India all the great religions of the world are fully represented and anything that will accentuate the separative tendencies of these religions, anything that will make one set of people imagine itself to be superior to another, will prove a national peril. Whatever there is of permanent value in Muhammadan or Hindu theology has persisted through all these centuries without the protection of a University, and we do not see why the shelter of a University is required for them in the future.

The Muhammadan Educational Conference formulated proposals for the betterment of Muhammadan education. The Three Conferences. The root of the problem lies in the fact that the

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bulk of the Muhammadans will not take kindly to modern education but fondly cling to old world ideals which led them on to the van of the world's progress a thousand years ago but are now out-worn. While we admit that Universities in this country must be multiplied, we yet hold that pursuing a separate policy, such as underlies the ideal of special Muhammadan Schools, Muhammadan Colleges, Muhammadan Universities for the purpose of isolating communities is, in our opinion, a blunder. Even Muhammadan young men will not lose anything by rubbing shoulders with young men of other communities in schools and colleges, in libraries and play-grounds and having their special angularities of birth and breeding knocked off.

The "Anglo-Indian" Education Conference resolved to ask for an "Anglo-Indian" College, not affiliated to the existing Indian Universities. In other words, this is a proposal to start an "Anglo-Indian" University to balance the proposed Hindu and Muhammadan Universities. It now only remains for the Parsees to propose a Zoroastrian University and a twentieth century Manu to re-define the four new castes of India and legislate that though all the four communities are Indian, and seek the same education by the medium of the same language, for the purpose of serving the same country, they should be shut off from each other in the impressionable years of their life, when alone they can learn to understand each other!

It is a relief to turn to the account of the Congress of the Universities of the Empire, where more than 50 Universities met on the common platform of culture. We commend to the notice of our readers the following remarks of Mr. Balfour, as bearing

on present-day educational politics in India: "The general training of the young is only in part carried out by the official teacher..... The most important part of our training at the school or University is due to the collision of minds between the boys or the under-graduates." If this is so in England, how much more should it be necessary in India, where four great communities have arisen, all having come to stay?

The ideals of German Universities as described by Mürich are discussed in *Nature*, No. 2229: "German professors regard

scientific research rather than teaching as their distinguishing task, or at least their teaching mostly takes the shape of initiation into the methods of research." If a professor in an Indian University should propose such a course of work, would he be allowed to "profess" at all? "Few people wish for definite or printed curricula, even if these should be only for the sake of suggestion." In India, the average teacher will not proceed to teach a subject until a very precise and rigid curriculum is placed in his hands, nay, some will strike work unless a printed text-book is officially prescribed. We do not hold that the German system is ideally good or is at all suited to the present conditions of Indian school work, but the intellectual contemplation of the full academic freedom that has done so much good to education in Germany will be of some use to those of our teachers who follow the cast-iron methods of the early XIX century.

"The Universities of France, like those of Germany, are highly specialized institutions in which students are prepared for professional or official careers," says *Nature*, No. 2231,

in an article abridged from a chapter on *Educational Movements in Western Europe*, by Anne T. Smith, in the report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for the year ended June 30, 1911. It may interest some of our readers to learn that in France Colleges are different from Universities and their province is general education; they prepare students for the Bachelor's Degree and it may sound paradoxical to the Madrassee that the Bachelor's Degree is a *pre-requisite* for Matriculation at the French Universities. In the year 1910, 41044 students attended the State Universities alone! The combined incomes of the fifteen Universities, excluding Algiers, in 1906 aggregated £530,000! And yet, we, in Madras, imagine that we are progressing at a headlong pace!

Many of our English masters in our High Schools believe that the use of Phonetics in our English classes.

English classes is the fad of some hot-headed reformers whose love for novelty has run away with their discretion and have, hence, not troubled to enquire what Phonetics is. The most that they know is that it is a strange, new alphabet. This wrong notion is due to a confusion between Phonetics and Phonetic script. By Phonetics is meant the scientific method of training "the vocal organs to express" and "the ear to receive and differentiate" speech-sounds. The old method of teaching A, B, C is a crude, irrational method of doing the same. In the modern method we teach the English speech-sounds by showing children how to make them and take the trouble to point out the distinction between allied sounds. The distinction between *p* and *b*, *k* and *g*, *f* and *v*, each set produced in the same way, except

that in making the latter, the vocal chords also vibrate, the distinction between the *a* in 'fat', and the *a* in 'glass', such things taught systematically and rationally can scarcely be considered bad and this and this alone is Phonetics.

Now when we teach these sounds, we have to represent them by written symbols. In this portion of the work, the well-known imperfections of the English alphabet come much in evidence. Thus in 'make,' 'man,' 'all,' *a* is the symbol not of the same sound. If an English master wishes it, there is nothing to prevent him from teaching these several sounds and putting on the black-board the same symbol to represent them. Only he will find his pupils get rather confused and perhaps himself unable, in the course of his lesson, to distinguish one symbol from another. To obviate this, it is desirable to begin the teaching of English with a Reader printed in the Phonetic script and when all the English sounds have been mastered by the pupils, they can be easily introduced to the ordinary irrational English spelling. If English masters realized the absurdity of the present haphazard way of teaching English reading, they would give it up at once. Suppose a teacher of Arithmetic attempted to teach the subject by taking up at first a book of miscellaneous examples and began to teach his pupils to solve them as each example turned up, without any other previous teaching of Arithmetic, would he not be regarded as a bad teacher? Yet, that is exactly how English reading is taught in most schools!

Of all subjects in the school course, Geography is the most important, in that it is a science dealing with objects within reach of all pupils; yet

A Syllabus for a First Geography Book.

there exist few or no vernacular books which introduce the subject to young minds in the proper way. A good First Geography Reader is a pressing need at present. It goes without saying that it must be written in such a style that pupils of the second or third standard can read and understand it *without the help of the teacher*. It should be profusely illustrated with pictures that little children could read for themselves. The subject should not be treated as in the Manuals of Geography, still being used in our less progressive schools; in other words, the book should not consist of catalogues of proper names, articles of produce, etc., printed in types of various sizes but should be as continuous reading as a child's story-book. It should not start with the heavenly bodies, but should begin with an account of a village; for geographical teaching, like all sound teaching, should proceed from the known to the unknown. It should not be devised with the object of imparting to the child as much information as is possible in a year's time, but merely to interest him in the study and enable him to gain an intelligent grasp of the methods of obtaining geographical instruction. We request that those of our contributors who have thought about the subject will kindly draft a syllabus of such a First Geographical Reader and we shall be glad to publish it in our next number.

Now that the season of admitting students in the Junior Intermediate classes is over, we proceed to make a strong protest against the manner in which most Principals have treated the entries called "school marks" in the Secondary School Leaving Certificates.

To the best of our information, the capabilities of most of the candidates for Matriculation at colleges were decided by the marks they earned at examination. This is unfair both to the pupil and his school-masters. When the S. S. L. C. scheme was introduced, it was believed that the golden era was to come when the school-master's estimate of the capabilities of his pupils arrived at after a three years' day-to-day contract with him was to be the criterion and that the public examination in connection with the scheme was merely intended to check individual vagaries by way of over-sanguineness of particular masters. Now the position is just the topsy-turvy of this. Now the S. S. L. C. is treated just as the University Registrar treats the tabulated marks sent in by University Examiners, *i.e.*, decides whether the pupil has "passed" or "failed." The object of the S. S. L. C. was scarcely to relieve the University Registrar of this inarduous task. If school marks are referred to at all, it is only to relieve a Principal's conscience when he is tempted to admit a pupil who has "failing marks" in one subject at examination but has good marks at school. This is as it ought not to be.

The school marks are awarded in accordance with an elaborate scheme provided by the S. S. L. C. Board. The marks earned by a pupil during a period of three years at the hands of half-a-dozen masters will, surely, more correctly indicate who are the more capable boys of a school than the marks obtained at a single public examination conducted by a single examiner assisted by a number of Assistant Examiners working under conditions in which absolutely uniformity of standard can scarcely be maintained. The whole

trouble is due to certain instructions issued by the Syndicate last year to Principals of Colleges. With the instructions themselves we are not concerned here; but when they were received, many Principals of Colleges immediately came to the conclusion that it was safe to take into consideration public examination marks alone when choosing candidates for Matriculation at colleges and, what was worse, told pupils so. This has led to a widespread belief among pupils that steady day-to-day work at school would not pay any more and that as of yore they should save themselves in the earlier part of the year for a spurt during examination season. This has re-acted on school work badly. Thus the very purpose of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate scheme is being defeated, at a time when in England, teachers are advocating some thing similar to our scheme, at least, some method of record of the estimates of school-masters as a check on the marks of the external examiner.

The current number of *The School World* contains a discussion of this question by various History masters. So far as we are aware very few of our High Schools have made any experiments in the use of this, the latest method of History teaching. The source-method is but the extension of the 'inductive' as opposed to the 'dogmatic' method to the teaching of History. The teaching of Geometry, of Grammar, of Geography, have all been more or less vivified by the partial adoption of the inductive method and the teaching of Physical Science is now professedly done throughout on inductive lines, though the necessities of

dodging the Science Examiner impose a good deal of dogmatic teaching in the science class-room. But we must remember that in any subject, the inductive method can be only partially adopted, since the aim of teaching is both to impart information and to train the child-mind in the way of the scientific method of enquiry. Very little can be done in schools to secure this latter aim, but this little will go a long way. For one thing, even a few inductive lessons in History will dispel the illusion which possesses most so-called educated people, that everything founded in print must be gospel truth. The study of original records with regard to any one person or event will bring home to the pupils that the truth of every narration, of every estimate of character and motive in historical books rests upon a balance of probabilities, coloured by the personal bias of the historians. It will also awaken the mind to the fact that school manuals of History contain many out-worn myths, which have got a way of sticking to school books, long after they are exploded. Another gain even a few lessons in History by the inductive method will secure is that it may stimulate the spirit of historical enquiry latent in some of the pupils and lead them to a pursuit of historical enquiry. A large part of the History of India is yet to be investigated. Every town, every village teems with materials for enquiry. Ruined temples, inscriptions, old and new, copper-plate grants, coins, pottery of all ages from the early Buddhist times, and innumerable other historical treasures await the hands of the historical investigator. There is work available for any number of workers and even if a school interests one pupil a year in this kind of work, the school

will have more than justified its existence in its neighbourhood. Therefore, even a very limited adoption of the inductive method in our Secondary Schools is a duty that the patriotic History master owes to the land of his birth. We hope to publish in future numbers, accounts of work done by means of the source-method in some of our Secondary Schools, both in the teaching of English History and of Indian History.

The current number of *The Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* contains a powerful plea for the use of the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association for Oriental languages. In this matter, the Government of India and the Orientalists' Congress pull in different directions and endless trouble and confusion has been caused thereby. It will result in a great saving of temper to readers of the publications of various learned bodies if the Association's script is universally adopted, for it "fulfils all the requirements

which it is called upon to fulfil. That is, it is based on the Roman alphabet; it follows the principle of 'one sound, one symbol'; it is acceptable to civilized people generally; it can be used for any language; it can be read easily and rapidly when once mastered; it is elastic and considering its results economical; it is widely used already; and there is a body of phonetic experts, the Council of the Association, ready to give assistance in applying and enlarging it." The adoption of a universal alphabet will no doubt have immense advantages from an educational point of view. But this is a most thorny question, bound up, as it is, with the sentiments of innumerable peoples. All the same it is a question well worth threshing out in our columns. A few months ago we published a paper read before the South Indian Branch of the English Association on this subject. We hope that drawing the attention of our readers again to the subject, will provoke a full discussion of it.

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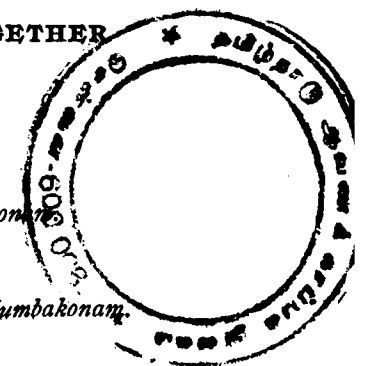
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The Educational Review

A Monthly Record for India.

VOL. XVIII.

SEPTEMBER 1912.

No. 9.

THE SIMPLIFIED SPELING SOCIETY.

By MARK HUNTER, M.A.,

Onorari Secretari of the South Indian Braanch.

The *Educaishonal Revyu* haz ciendli plaist at the dispoezal of our Sosiety a muntli paij tu be fild with mater printed in Simplified Speling. Az the cheef purpos of the paij iz tu familiariez reederz with the looc of the thing, the naitur of the mater iz larjli indiferent. Stil it wil be our endeavor tu blend precept with egzaampl, tu advaans argyments in faivor of the speling we advocait, and tu refyuet objecshonz which hav been brant agenst it.

Everi muntli sum pasij of olasical English poetri or proez wil be prezednted in simplified speling. This muntli we begin with a welnoen Sonet of Wordsworths. Sum reederz mai regard this az a sort of desecraishon, but the ofens, thai mai be remiended, if it be an ofens at aul, iz no graiter than iz comited in everi edishon of Shakespeare or the English Biobl which iz printed in the curret speling.

The world iz tu much with us: lait and suun
Geting and spending, we lai waist our pourz;
Laitl we see in Naitur that iz ourz;
We hav given our harts awai, a sordid bunn!
The see that bairz her boosom to the munn,

XVIII

The windz that wil be howling at aul ourz,
And ar up-gatherd nou liec sleeping flourz;
For this, for everithing, we ar out of tynen;
It muvz us not.—Grait God, I'd raather be
A Paigan sucl in a creed outworn;
So miet I, standing on this plezent lee,
Hav glimsez that wood maic me les forlorn;
Hav siet of Proteus riesing from the see,
Or heer oeld Triton bloe hiz reethed horn.

Proper naimz, acording to the sistem of the S.S.S., ar stil tu be spelt in the tradishonal wai. Hens 'Proteus' not 'Proetyus,' 'Triton,' not 'Trieton.' Az, however, Indian teecherz and lurnerz ofen fiend a seerius difficulti in arieving at the corect English pronunsiaishon of proper naimz, this 'conseshon' iz wun which in thair interests miet wel be dispensed with.

The siet of a familiar poem prezednted in an unfamiliar dres mai, and undoutedli wil, at furst disturb sum reederz. Thai wil be incliend to sai that the thing iz uncouth and groetesc; thai mai eeven caul it an outraj on literatyr. But if thai be reesonabl peepl—unfortynaitli sum pursonz, in this mater, seem incaipabl of reezon—thai wil hav tu admit, if thai reflect for a moement, that the speling displeezez, not becauz it iz intrinsicali ugli, but meerli becauz it iz unfamiliar, and bi its veri unfamiliariti, undyueli forseez itself upon the reederz atenshon; gets between him, so tu

speec, and the mater it containz, and so marz hiz eesthetic enjoiment ov the sound and substans ov the vurs. That iz tu sai, rashonal speling wil displeez so long az it remainz unfamiliar, and no longer. Thoez hu lurn tu reed and riet in simplified speling wil surtenli not eespeeriens eni sens ov ugliness az thai contemplait a paij printed in rashonal orthografi; nai, tu them the speling to which *thai* ar acustomd wil not oenli apeer eestheticali satisfiing becauz ov its familiariti; it wil pozes a real byneti—the oenli byneti that can atach tu speling az such—the byneti inherrent in simplisiti, consistencei, simetri and the adecwitaajustment ov meenz tu endz. Az for thoez hu hav long been familiar with the oeld speling, if thai cair tu giv the nyu a trial, thai wil be surpriezd tu fiend hou sunn the sens ov strainjnes wairz of, hou rapidli the ie acustomz itself tu the nyu condishonz, hou sunn, in short, the ‘eesthetic argyument’ agenst speling reform lunzez for them the oenli wait and fors that can ever belong tu it.

Eesthetic consideraishonz, rietli aplied, must be aul in faivor ov rashonal speling, not oenli on the groundz I hav just urjd, but becauz, so far az literatyur maics its apeel tu the sens of byneti thru the eer, that iz tu sai, so far az byneti in literatyur iz a mater ov byneti in sound, so far a speling which strievz faithfuli tu reprezent the actyual spoecen soundz, iz tu be prefurd tu wun which, az ofen az not, lundicrusli misrepresents them. It iz for this reezon that poets, whenever the curenth orthografi alouz an opshon, hav jenerali prefurd the mor tu the les fonetic form; hav riten ‘blest’ raather than ‘blessed’ (when the wurd iz tu be pro-

nounst az a monosilabl), ‘kist’ raather than ‘kissed,’ ‘droopt’ insted ov ‘drooped,’ ‘mixt’ insted ov ‘mixed,’ and so on.

Uther objecshons tu simplified speling I hoep tu egzamin in laiter isyuz ov the *Revyu*; such az the argyument that we must not tamper with the curenth orthografi becaus ‘langwij iz a groeth’; ‘the etimological argyument,’ in its vairius formz; what I mai caul the ‘seemantological argyument,’ the contenshon, that iz, that bad spelingz tel us the histori ov the meenings ov wurdz and so help us tu yuez wurdz acyuraitli; the ple for irashonal spelingz on the ground that tha distingwish wurdz which sound alieo but hav diferent meeningz. Nun ov theez argyuments ar or cood be advaanst bi pursonz hu hav seeriusli studid the subject. Thai ar aul ov them meerli eescyuesez caut up bi peepl hu do not *liec* chainj in speling, and hu ar unwilling, perhaps afraid, tu submit thair indivyual preferensez and prejoodieez tu thuro egzaminaishon. Thai ar aul falasiz—wun miet sai, traanspairent falasiz—but thai ar nun the les perhaps the moest seerius obstaclz in the wai ov a reform which iz calcyulaited tu bring far-reeching benefits tu aul fynetyur jeneraishonz ov peepl hu speec and lurn the English tung.

N.B.—The Sositati admits tu claasez ov memberz, ful memberz and asocesiatt memberz. The minimum subscripshon for ful membership iz FIEV SHILING (Rz. 3.12) a yeer, or THREE POUNDZ (Rz. 45) for lief. The minimum subscripshon for asocesiatt membership iz WUN SHILING (anaz 12) a yeer, or TWELV SHILING (Rz. 9) for lief.

Aul memberz (ful and asocesiatt) ressev aul publicashonz ov the Sositati that ar isyud for graitis distribyuehon. Ful memberz aulso ressev graitis aul publicashonz ov the Sositati—including the Sositati

jarnal, *The Pioneer ov Simplified Speling*—that ar isyud at a loer pries than sicspens.

For further informashon relaiting tu the Sositati aplicaishon shoed be maid to the *On. Secretari, South Indian Braanch ov the Simplified Speling Sositati, "Bainton," San Thomé, Madras.*

Aplicaishonz for membership shoed be sent with subscripshonz tu the *On. Trezherer, E. W. Middlemast, M. A., "Bishop's Gardens," Adyar, Madras.*

THE NEGLECT OF THE VERNACULARS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

(Continued from page 350.)

III

A retired and esteemed educationist writes:—

THERE are three classes of persons who have set up the cry that (to use the very words of the people) “*the vernaculars are gone.*” These are the Pandit, the Examiner, and the Madras Patriot.

The Pandit has very grave cause to be discontented with the present position of the vernacular languages in the University courses. He finds his occupation gone in schools and colleges, because the study of the Indian languages in them is put on a new footing. The students are not required to study much of poetry the teaching of which alone required the services of the Pandit, because poetry in almost all the South Indian vernaculars is written in an archaic language more or less differing both in vocabulary and in grammar from the spoken language, spoken even by the educated and cultured Indian. The requirements of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination as well as of the University, so far as the compulsory courses thereof are concerned, are satisfied if the student can express his ideas in the ordinary

spoken vernacular, and for this it is sufficient if the student reads prose works and practises composition and translation. The Pandit is not competent to teach these. The work can be done, and ought properly to be done, by the graduate who can himself write and speak the language well and has made a special study of it. Even for the teaching of students who take up these languages as their optional branches, what the new curriculum in those languages for the Degree examination lays stress upon is a critical knowledge thereof and a comparative study of the Dravidian languages, and the Pandit is not quite well-equipped for this kind of teaching. Hence he is not required in schools and colleges under the present circumstances.

Another reason why the Pandit is exasperated is that his literary effusions can find no sale in the present circumstances. His literary productions consist chiefly of poetical works on some episodes of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata or of metrical translations of some ancient Sanskrit works. He displays his learning, ingenuity and individuality in this not in setting forth any new thoughts, but in expressing the same old thoughts in his own words. The excellence of a production in his view consists in the ornateness of the style and in the stringing together of as many jingling sounds as possible. He thinks himself bound by the old canons of composition and his descriptions, his similes and metaphors are all stereotyped and strictly governed by tradition. Such are the works he is able to produce. When he has succeeded in writing such a work, his next business is to go and worry the members of the Dravidian Board of Studies in the University, to prescribe it for any of the University examina-

tions, because that is the only chance of his getting a sale, large or small, for his book. When he tries his hand at writing prose he is hopelessly out of his element. He has neither the subject-matter to write a prose work on, nor the taste for a prose style. His love of jingling sounds and the traditional figures of speech and ornate style overtakes him even in trying to write prose. His literary and poetical abilities are, therefore, very much at a discount now that the University does not want them. Thus the new courses of study in the vernacular languages both in the University and in the High School are particularly hard upon the Pandit. They have "hit him upon the stomach" as the Indians say.

The next man who suffers from the new state of things is the Vernacular Examiner or the would-be examiner. Under the old University bye-laws the Matriculation examination was the principal source of income to the University examiner. Now this source is dried up. The number of candidates whose answers he has to value as well as the number of papers he has to set in connection with the Intermediate and B.A. Degree examinations is considerably reduced. Hence he too has very grave cause to complain. However little he may care for the vernaculars in his heart of hearts, he must at least pretend that he is a great vernacular scholar and a lover of its literature. Hence he joins in chorus with the Pandit.

IV

The third man from whom the complaint comes is the Madras Patriot. The Madras Patriot is a unique product of Madras. His patriotism is not altogether disinterested. It brings him no pecuniary gain directly, but it brings him popularity. He becomes better

known in the country and thereby also among the litigant population. It may ultimately bring him recognition from Government in the form of a title, a judgeship, a legal office or a Legislative Council membership. Such an appointment is to him the be-all and end-all of existence in this mundane world. He is a man of thought and words, but not of deeds. In social reform matters his motto is "the line of least resistance," "take the masses with you" (which means let them go before, not behind you). He waxes eloquent on the questions of female education and late marriages of girls, and even joins "The Hindu Marriage Reform League" and pledges himself to promote late marriages of girls as far as possible, i.e., not in the case of his own daughters. He holds forth most eloquently on the elevation of the depressed classes. He has great reverence for the *Sastras* and religion and everything ancient and stoutly opposes every movement which in his opinion, interferes with either even in the remotest way.

His patriotism costs him almost nothing. All that he has to do is a little grievance-hunting, that is all. When he has lighted upon a grievance of the people, fancied or real, he makes the most of it. He is not called upon to make any self-sacrifice. He looks to Government for everything. He thinks that all he has got to do is to ventilate the grievance from the platform and in the newspapers. If the grievance he has lighted upon is something even remotely connected with the religion or customs and manners of the people the ventilation of it at once brings him popularity among the masses. He is dubbed a patriot, and 'immortalized' in verse by the orthodox Pandit for whom there

fore he has a peculiar partiality. He is in requisition everywhere among the students and among the orthodox people to preside at meetings, to give addresses and read papers. He looms large in the eye of the people. He is made a secretary of this association, the treasurer of that, president of a third and vice-president of a fourth, if not also the director of a company of the business of which he knows nothing. He does not like to decline any of these honours because he fears that his influence may be limited thereby. He has thus to attend to so many things in addition to the principal work which brings him money. Hence he has no time to study the public questions which he poses to have made his own and the result is he hopelessly blunders.

Now this is just what has happened in the present case:—The Pandit being 'hit on the stomach' goes to such a patriot and complains and convinces the patriot and public man that the vernaculars are "going to the dogs." That not even 20 Intermediate students have taken up the vernaculars as their optional subject in the whole Presidency, that our religion is therefore in danger and so on and so forth. Our patriot, to keep up his reputation as a great orthodox supporter of the Hindu religion and staunch defender of everything ancient, feels himself bound straightway to ventilate this grievance and obtain kudos for himself among the orthodox community. He does not think that if the vernaculars are not studied by the student it is not the fault of the University. He does not know that there was no real study of the vernaculars at any time even when the University had them as a compulsory subject at every examination and

not less than 5 hours a week were devoted in every class to the teaching of them; that there is no adequate return for all the time spent by the student in mugging up the meanings of a number of poems in an out-of-date language and that things would not be better even if the vernaculars should be made a compulsory subject of study in colleges once again.

Such then is the origin of the agitation about the vernaculars that is now set up and echoed from end to end. It is therefore for the University and Government to say what weight they would attach to it. I for one think that the University ought not to make any modifications in the present regulations relating to its Examinations for some years to come. These regulations have not been in operation sufficiently long for anybody to judge of the ultimate effect of the changes that were introduced under the provisions of the Universities Act of 1904. In fact the examinations in accordance with them have only just begun or are yet to begin.

(To be continued.)

IV. ON THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.*

(Continued from page 113, Vol. XVII.)

DIVISION (continued).

ARRANGEMENT (a) is to be discouraged except in the case of beginners. Arrangement (b) is in general use. It saves time and space and trains the pupil in mental work. When the divisor and quotient are large it is desirable to have the multiples of the divisor ready for use in the division work; this can be done in a minute or two and en-

* The right of publishing these articles in a pamphlet form is reserved.

sure accuracy in division, for the multiples are formed one from the other by addition and the last multiple proves the correctness of the rest.

To divide 8150224249188 by 98973.

	82347956
98973...1.	98973 8150224249188
197946...2.	23238
296919...3.	34438
395892...4.	47463
494865...5.	78742
593838...6.	94618
692811...7.	55424
791784...8.	59383
890757...9.	

Here each line is formed by addition of the previous line with the first line, the second line is formed by adding the first to itself. The last line when added to the first must give 10 times the first line which proves the correctness of the whole. If three division questions of similar size and difficulty be given to a class, it is seen that the arrangement (a) gives the greatest failures, and arrangement (c) the least. Also, the arrangement (a) takes the greatest time, arrangements (b) and (c) very much less time. I gave this division question to the VI form and to my surprise, more than 60% of the students failed to do the question at all. While the best boy did it in 3' the last who did it correct took a little over 7½'. Such is the ability of our students at calculation, and yet it is generally agreed that the chief aim of Arithmetic teaching should be to train the pupils at calculation. The importance of such training is not fully realized in the lower forms. When, for instance, the Italian method of division is insisted on in the higher forms, I have detected students doing the division in a rough paper by arrangement (a), omitting the partial products and giving only the form of the Italian method of work in the margin of the class note-book!

Arrangement (c) tests the neatness of the students' work. The previous question will be arranged thus:

98973	8150224249188
	8832843
	3364128
	2447643
	3478459
	2347955
	82347956.

To illustrate arrangement (c) by another example: Divide 271132329757 by 875.

875	271132329757
	6 7324202
	8 5785753
	7544186
	309865519

Arrangement (d), as has been remarked already, is applicable only when the divisor is a very small number.

Now in the division of decimals and approximate division the 'Grade Rule' is very important. The 'Grades' of numbers and the 'leading digits' of numbers have been explained in the previous article. The grade rule for division may be enunciated thus: The grade of the quotient = the grade of the dividend — the grade of the divisor generally and it is one less when the leading digit of the divisor is greater than that of the dividend. The examples below will make the rule clear:

Determine the grade of the quotient 'G' in the following cases:

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| i. 234694/136. | iv. 36.495/7654. |
| ii. 453635/8964. | v. .00364/4.8654. |
| iii. 234/23549. | vi. .03988/0.0002986. |

i. $G = 5 - 2 = 3$; there are 4 digits in the integral portion.

ii. $G = 5 - (3 + 1) = 1$; there are 2 digits in the integral portion. One more is subtracted since the leading digit of the divisor is greater than that of the dividend.

iii. $G = 2 - (4 + 1) = -3$; there are 2 cyphers after the decimal point, and there is no integral portion.

iv. $G = 1 - (-1 + 1) = 1$; there are 2 digits in the integral portion.

v. $G = -3 - (0 + 1) = -4$; there are three cyphers after the decimal point.

vi. $G = -2 - (-5) = 3$; there are four digits in the integral portion.

Thus after the form of the quotient is determined, i.e., after the position of the decimal point is fixed, it is not necessary for the student to trouble himself with the decimal point in the division operation. He deals only with the whole numbers formed of the significant digits of the dividend and the divisor, i.e., with the dividend and the divisor considered as whole numbers.

To do the last division sum as far as the fifth significant digit we proceed thus:

2986 3986	13348.
10000	
10420	The grade rule gives
14620	1334.8 as the quotient.
26760	
2872	

The grade rule forms a more accurate and reliable substitute for the rough check advocated in the modern text-books to lessen the chances of pupils giving absurd answers. It will also be seen that the grade rule becomes indispensable in cases where the rough approximate checks fail to give the form of the quotient.

Approximate Division:

The grade rule gives the number of digits required in the quotient; have one more digit in the divisor; if you have more in the divisor, begin with the next one in forming the partial product, and carry; proceed as in ordinary division; if at any stage of the division you have one more digit in the divisor

(than the number required to be found at that stage + 1) strike off that digit and do not bring down a fresh digit of the dividend. I shall give two examples to illustrate the rule.

i. Find the nearest integer to 96.048259 divided by .08654.

The grade of the quotient is $1 - (-2) = 3$; there are 4 digits in the integral portion and one more digit is necessary to correct the last digit. So we require 5 digits in the quotient. Since the divisor does not contain more we proceed as in ordinary division:

	11098
8644 960482*	
	950
	854
	754
	62

In forming partial products after striking we begin multiplying the digit struck off and carry.

The answer is as previously determined 1110.

ii. Divide .007654321 by 834.89653, correct to two significant figures.

From the grade rule we learn that there are $[-3 - (2 + 1) = -6]$ 5 cyphers after the decimal point; we require 3 digits in the quotient.

	916
8344 76543	
	1408†
	669
	69

So the quotient is .0000092.

I shall give one more example which involves both approximate multiplication and

* At this stage we require 2 digits in the quotient and we have more than 3 in the divisor; so we strike off the 4th digit and stop bringing down the '5' from the dividend.

† Since multiplication with '9' in the divisor gives '8' to carry.

division before closing this portion of my article.

* The basin of a river is 7620 sq. miles in area and the yearly rainfall 30 inches; a third of the rain that falls is evaporated and the rest flows to the sea. Find to the nearest million gallons the discharge of water to the sea per hour. It is easily seen that the number of gallons is

$$\begin{array}{r} \frac{7620 \times 1760 \times 1760 \times 36 \times 24 \times 24}{73 \times 12 \times 138 \ 637} \\ \hline = \frac{1000 \times 9144 \times 80976 \times 9}{970459 + 415911} \\ \hline = \frac{82296000 \times 80976}{10120501} \\ \hline = 252 \text{ millions.} \end{array}$$

82	296000	2519
80976		
493	10120	25492
5760		5251
74086		191
2468880		90
25492		

[To be continued.]

S. CHINNASAMI AIYAR.

* P. V. Seshu Ayer's 'Elementary Mathematics,' p. 285.

† At this stage some explanation is necessary. The grade of the quotient is $(7 + 4 + 1) - 4 = 8$. So there are 9 digits in the integral portion. Since the answer is to be correct to the nearest million and since it is greater than 100 millions and less than 1000 millions, we require only the first 4 digits of the quotient and only the first 5 digits of the divisor and of the product which forms the numerator.

Since the grade of this product is 12, and since we require only the first five digits, the partial products need only be correct to the million. This explains the contracted multiplication, and the contracted division is easy to follow.

This question is found on p. 285 of P. V. Seshu Ayer's 'Elementary Mathematics;' nothing of approximation seems to have been written so far. By 'nearest million' the authors could not have meant that the accurate answer should be found by long and tedious multiplications and divisions and then the approximate answer written down. Evidently the question is thereby a mistake.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS AND ITS TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

THE School Final Board rightly estimated the educative value of Elementary Mathematics by including it in the group of compulsory subjects to be studied under the School Final scheme. It will be hardly possible to find a subject better suited to train the thinking and reasoning faculties of the pupil and possessing more practical utility. That such an important subject should be so much under-estimated by a section of our school-going population clearly attests to a misconception of its value and the method of study.

The error, at the outset, may be attributed to the too early specialisation in the High School Forms at a period when the discerning faculty of the pupil is in its embryo. The result is, in some cases, the pupil is put to the necessity of changing his optional subjects at the beginning of his collegiate course, which is hardly desirable and which is truly against the principles of the School Final scheme. Then a pupil who selects a particular subject as optional is under the misleading impression that his brain and mental powers are specially adapted only for that subject and consequently treats the other subjects as unworthy of his attention and hence with supreme indifference. Thus a pupil taking up Algebra and Geometry as his optional neglects altogether Indian History and Geography and a pupil with the History of England as his optional treats with utter contempt Elementary Mathematics and Elementary Science. Boys may be made to take a deeper and more abiding interest in the subjects other than their optionals by a judicious selection of their optionals, by pointing

out the relative bearing of the subjects to one another, by attaching as much importance to them as is attached to English and the optionals in the matter of awarding promotions and the like, by exacting proper work from the pupils in such subjects, and above all by good and attractive teaching.

To ensure the interest of the pupils in Elementary Mathematics, the teacher has to bear a few principles in mind. Elementary Mathematics as is contemplated by the School Final Board does not consist in the teaching of Arithmetic mainly and in the solving of a number of meaningless and impracticable problems nor does it imply the teaching of a few unconnected and dissociated principles from Algebra and Geometry in addition. It must be considered as a science aiming at a common result though treated from different points of view and by different methods. Taking any mathematical principle, the teacher has at first to lead the pupils to its understanding by actual measurement and by a correct inference, has then to illustrate it by reference to concrete examples and the like, has to elicit its general bearing and application, and lastly has to work out a rigid proof of the same.

As regards the problems proposed to illustrate the principles there must be a good number of simple questions rather than one or two difficult questions which beginners very often find it hard to grapple with. Half a dozen simple questions done in a period are far more beneficial than a single question left half done in the same time. Again the problems must be based on facts and figures that lie within the common experience of the pupils and should not deal with partridges exchanged for pigeons, pigeons for ducklings and the like nor should they aim at such un-

natural results as a man being equal to 24 boys or a man doing a work in $2\frac{1}{11}$ days. In this connection, it is desirable for the teacher to adopt the system of framing the questions for his class himself from such general publications as the census returns, railway time-tables, school maps, attendance and marks registers rather than depend mainly on set text-books.

Lastly it is desirable for the teacher to have constantly in view the truth that success in the subject could be assured not by devoting the major portion of the school time to an exhibition of the teacher's readiness and ability to solve a number of difficult problems intelligently, but by spending the whole school time if need be to a careful and clear exposition of the principles of the subject and their application to the solution of problems by short and simple methods, supplemented, of course, by enough exercises based on the principles taught set to be attempted at home. Such an attempt will go a great way towards avoiding our pupils of the higher forms from falling into such palpable errors as considering

$$1 \text{ yd.} : 2 \text{ Rs.} :: 3 \text{ yds.} : 6 \text{ Rs.},$$

a correct proportion or that an angle increases in its magnitude according as its arms are lengthened.

P. RANGANATHAN.

Main heading.	Matter.	Appliances, diagrams, reference to books, etc.
Refraction of Light.	1. Through a homogeneous medium, light is propagated in straight lines. But, when a ray of light passes from one medium into another of different density, its path is changed (except when the incident ray is normal); it is then said to be <i>refracted</i>. 2. The direction as well as the magnitude of refraction depends upon the nature of the media, at the surface of separation of which the change of path occurs. 3. (a) On passing from a rare into a denser medium, light is refracted towards the normal, e.g., from air into glass or water. (b) When it enters from a dense into a rarer medium, it is bent away from the normal, e.g., from glass, water or petroleum into air. 4. Phenomena due to refraction of light:— (a) The bed of a river or a tank appears shallower than it is. (b) A stick partly under water seems to be bent at the surface, the tip and the immersed portion appearing raised. (c) The sun and the stars appear higher in the heavens than they are.	1. A beam of parallel light from a strong source is allowed to fall slantwise against the edge of a rectangular tin-box or an enamelled basin. The point where the edge of the shadow (cast by the side of the box or basin) falls should be noted: (i) when the box is empty; (ii) when it is filled with water without disturbing the position of anything. Observe the direction of refraction. 2. A coin is put on the bottom of a basin filled with water, so that it is just visible along the edge. Syphon off the water and observe that the coin becomes invisible; or place the coin in an empty basin so as to be just hidden by the side. When water is poured in gently, it becomes visible. Vide 'Heat and Light,' by D. E. Jones: pp. 169, 170.
	In addition to the terms explained in connection with the laws of reflection, the meaning of the <i>refracted ray</i>, the <i>angle of refraction</i> and the <i>sine of an angle</i> should be clearly impressed on the pupils' minds. Laws of refraction:— 1. The incident ray, the normal and the refracted ray are in the same plane.	3. As an exercise, the pupils may be asked to draw correct diagrams for 4 (b) and (c), showing the paths of the rays. For demonstration purposes, the experimental verification of the laws may be made with: (i) Blumel's refraction apparatus: No. 9586, P. Harris & Co.'s catalogue. (ii) Refraction and reflection apparatus: No. 9580, P. Harris & Co.'s catalogue. (iii) Wright's refraction trough. No. 2—6202, J. J. Griffin's catalogue.
Laws of Refraction.		

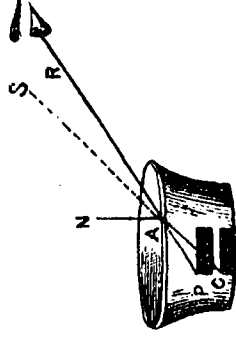


FIG. 24.

2. For the same two media, the sine of the angle of incidence bears a constant ratio to the sine of the angle of refraction. This law generally called 'The law of sines,' was first given by Snell, but is frequently attributed to Descartes.

The second law may also be stated thus:—

If points equidistant from the point of incidence be taken on the incident and refracted rays and if, from these points, perpendiculars be drawn to the normal, the ratio of these perpendiculars is constant for any given pair of media.

Also vide Fig. 89, page 110, Mark Wright's 'Physica.'

For students' practical work, the following may be used:—

1. The cheap refraction trough: No. 2—6211, to be had of J. J. Griffin & Sons, for 2s. 6d.
2. A refraction tank that can be conveniently made out of a tin biscuit-box. [p. 175, D. E. Jones, 'Heat, Light and Sound.']
3. The pin-method: Apparatus required: A glass plate with rectangular (not bevelled) edges, a drawing-board, paper, pins, a millimetre scale and a wooden block.

Vide (i) 'Practical Exercises in Light,' by Clay, pp. 6—8.

(ii) 'Practical Physics,' by L. M. Jones, pp. 131—132.

Refractive index:

- (i) When light is refracted from air (strictly speaking, vacuum) into a given medium, the ratio of the sine of the angle of incidence to the sine of the angle of refraction is called the *refractive index* (or, the index of refraction) of the medium and is denoted by the symbol μ .
- $$\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \mu.$$
- (ii) If light passes from one medium, a into another medium b , the ratio of the sines of the angles is termed the *relative index of refraction* from a to b and denoted by μ^a_b .
 - (iii) The refractive index from a given medium into air is $\frac{1}{\mu}$ (the reciprocal of the refractive index of the medium.)
 - (iv) If μ is known, the path of the refracted ray may be found by a geometrical construction. (See Fig. 25.) The methods of drawing the diagram may, with advantage, be elicited from the students as far as possible.
 - (v) On account of refraction, transparent media such as glass and water appear less thick or shallower when looked into. It may be geometrically shown

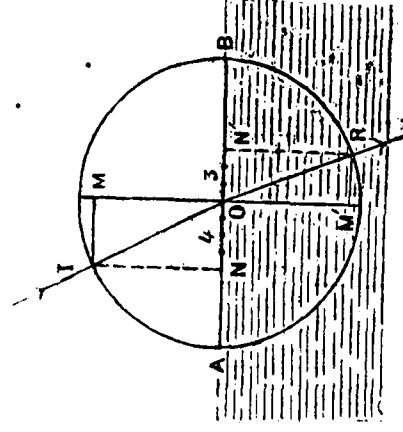


FIG. 25.

Vide (i) Page 261, 'A Class-book of Physics,' by Gregory and Hadley.

(ii) pp. 175—7 and 184—5, 'Heat, Light and Sound,' by D. E. Jones.

that the ratio of the real to the apparent thickness or depth, when looking normally, is equal to the index of refraction.

$$\mu = \frac{\text{real depth or thickness}}{\text{apparent depth or thickness}}$$

Determination of Refractive index.

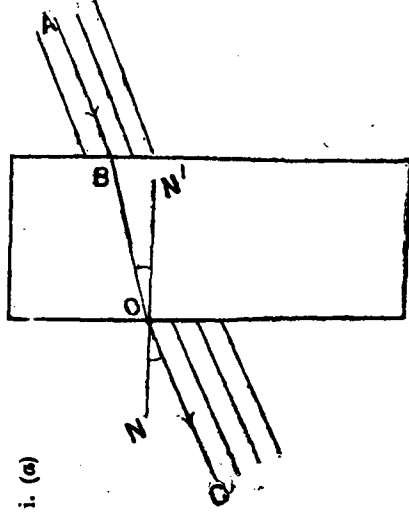
The principle noted in (v) above is often useful in determining the refractive index of solids and liquids. The refractive index may be determined by the following methods:—

(i) Solids—

(a) Determining the paths of incident and refracted rays and finding the ratio of the sine of the angle of incidence in air to the sine of the angle of refraction in a given medium.

FIG. 26.

Place a glass slab or a sheet of ruled paper so that one face is *perpendicular* to the direction of the lines. The lines seen through the slab appear continuous with those on the near side; turn the slab slightly and observe that lines inside appear *displaced*. If turned sufficiently they seem continuous with the next ones, e.g., AB seems to be in one line with OC. Join BO and draw the normal at O. $\mu = \frac{\sin \text{CON}}{\sin \text{BON}}$.



i. (a)

(b) The pin-method:—

Draw the paths of rays of light in air and in glass (a rectangular slab, a cube or a prism of glass may be used); drop perpendiculars upon the normal from the incident and the refracted rays.

$$\mu = \frac{\text{perpendicular in air}}{\text{perpendicular glass}}$$

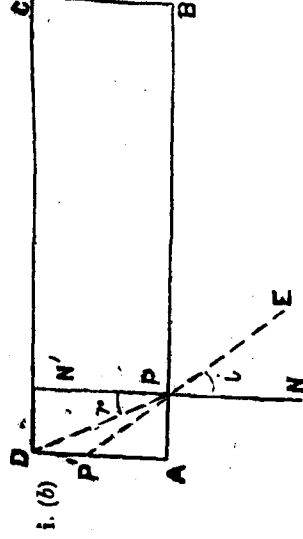


FIG. 27.

i. (b)

The usual method might be made simpler, thus: Stick a pin P close to the edge AB of a slab, and observing the corner D, stick a pin P' such that D, as seen through the slab, may appear to be continued above by P'. Draw normal at P. PE is the direction of emergent ray.

$$\mu = \frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \frac{PD}{PP'}$$

(c) *For solids*.—A pin is stuck to the edge of a glass cube looked at normally: another pin P' is placed on the cube such that P' appears continuous with the image of P in all directions of view:

or

The cube is placed on a piece of paper ruled with 2 parallel lines. Another paper, similarly ruled, is held outside, close to the cube so that, on looking vertically down, the lines in the portions of the paper *below* and *outside* the cube appear *equally separated*.

In either case,

$$\mu = \frac{\text{distance of object from the near surface}}{\text{distance of image}}$$

vide 'Practical Exercise in Light', by Clay, page 31.

For liquids.—A graduated glass jar filled with water or alcohol: a coin placed at the bottom (or, a piece of ruled paper kept down on the bottom, by a small piece of lead, if necessary). Hold a coin or another piece of paper outside the jar so that, on looking down into it, the two coins appear continuous (or the lines equally separated in both.)

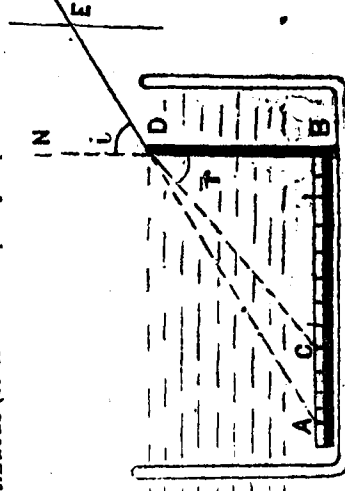


FIG. 28.

(b) By tracing the paths of incident and refracted rays and finding the ratio of the sines of the angles, i and r .

In Fig. 28, a piece of tin (or wood) BD is attached to a scale AB at rt. angles, which is placed in a trough. The division A is visible, when looked along DE (E being a hole in a card-board); but if the vessel is filled with water or other liquid up to D, the division C is visible.

$$\text{Refractive index} = \frac{\sin \text{NDE} (= \text{ADB})}{\sin \text{CDB}} = \frac{\text{AB} \times \text{CD}}{\text{AD} \times \text{BC}}$$

and these lengths can be actually measured.

A microscope with a low power objective is set up with its tube vertical and focussed :

- (i) on the bottom of a shallow vessel, when empty.
- (ii) on the bottom of the same with a layer of liquid 1 or 2 cms deep, and
- (iii) on the surface of liquid, (rendered clearly visible by lycopodium powder scattered on it).

Readings are taken with a millimetre scale or on the scale attached to microscope adjustment.

The index of refraction of the important substance may well be learnt by students, e.g. diamond, carbonbismphide glass, turpentine, alcohol and water.

Total Reflection ; Critical angle :

Common illustrations of 'Total Reflection' may be found in the following, and their explanation may, as far as possible, be elicited from the students.

1. A glass prism is laid face downwards on a printed page. If looked at directly from above, the print can be read through the glass. But, if you shift your eye to one side and gradually lower it, you will come to a position at which the print will become invisible and the face of the prism appears bright as a sheet of polished silver or the surface of mercury. Lower the eye and notice the inverted image of the print as in a mirror. The same appearance is shown by glass cubes, such as paper-weights and ink-stands. Why?

2. Look from above at a test-tube held slantwise in water; it looks as if filled with mercury. Pour water into the tube and notice the brilliancy disappears as the water rises. Pour mercury into the lower part of the empty tube and compare the brilliancy.

3. Hold a glass of water with a spoon or a rod partly dipped in it, raise it above the level of the eye and look at the under surface of water. The portion of the spoon above water is invisible, and an image of the lower part is seen by reflection in the under surface which shines like mercury.

(c) By means of a microscope, the *apparent* depth of a column of liquid may be found; this method is very useful in determining the refractive index, when only *thin* layers (also, thin sheets of solid) of transparent liquid are available, in which a microscope of very *fine* adjustment is required.

Note.—The methods suggested above for the determination of μ are not all intended to be adopted by all the students during their course of practical work. It is left to the teacher to choose from them, according to the time and facilities for practical work, mental calibre of the pupils, etc. They afford scope for varying the exercises set to different sets of students and for comparing the results variously arrived at.

When a ray of light travelling in a dense medium strikes the surface of separation between it and a rarer medium, it is partly reflected and partly refracted; and the angle of refraction (r) is greater than that of incidence (i). For a certain angle of incidence, the angle of refraction is 90° . If now, i is increased, there will be no refracted ray: the whole light will be reflected in the same medium, according to the laws of reflection: it is then said to be *totally reflected*: the phenomenon is termed *total internal reflection*.

The *largest angle of incidence*, for which the *angle of refraction* is 90° , (i.e. for which any of the light passes into the rarer medium) is called the *critical angle*.

Critical angle for water is about 48.5°

"	diamond	24°
"	glass	$41^\circ-42^\circ$

Note (i)— $\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{\sin i}{\sin 90^\circ} = \frac{\sin i}{1}$ or the sine of critical angle is the reciprocal of the refractive index. Diamond which owes its brilliancy to its highest refractive index has a low critical angle.

(ii) There will be no total reflection for light passing from a rarer into a denser medium.

(iii) *Total reflection* suggests that a right-angled prism can be used as a mirror.

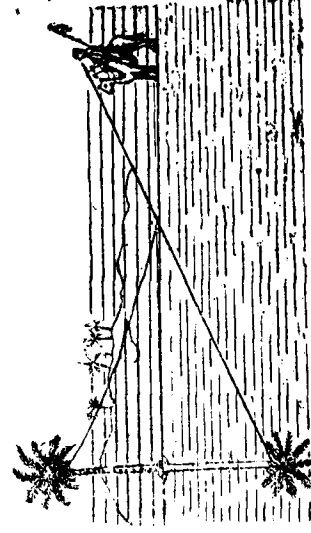


FIG. 29.

Place a glass cell containing water, in front of the lantern and, with a loose lens focus its image on the screen. Then add ice, alcohol, hot water or syrup to the water and notice the *streaky* appearance of the image.

(iv). *Natural phenomenon due to total internal reflection.*

The mirage :—A traveller in deserts, etc., sees images of distant objects, even when obstacles prevent their being seen by direct vision. Under certain conditions, layers of air nearest to the earth are less dense than those above. Light is refracted from the normal, until it is totally reflected and then refracted *upwards towards* the normal. Image is seen in the direction the ray reaches the eye.

Irregular refraction.

If the density is not uniform in a medium (air or water), the image formed by refraction is not distinctly seen.

Cf. The quivering of objects on a hot day, common on the Madras Beach, or over-heated coke due to *unequal* refraction.

(To be continued).

A. VARADACHARIAR.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE KINDERGARTEN CLASSES.

IT is not a debatable point that the human child is the most imitative of all the higher animals. From the very birth, imitation plays a prominent part in the life of a child. When the child comes into the world, he brings with him the instinct of imitation. By closely observing the actions of those around him, the child tries to imitate what he observes and, after repeated trials, succeeds in his attempts. Thus he is progressing day by day in the path of life, by first observing actions and next by imitating them to perfection. If, on the other hand, he is deprived of his opportunities for observation, he will certainly grow up to be a dull and dumb creature. A story goes that the great Mogul Emperor, Akbar, once experimented upon two young children, by confining one of them to a solitary cell and keeping the other in the company of the highly educated men of the time. They were thus brought up for over twenty years and, after that period, were summoned to the presence of the Emperor. It is no wonder that the one was found to be diametrically opposite to the other. Bright intelligence was stamped on the face of the one, dull stupidity on the other. The presence of men around was a source of pleasure to the one, to the other it was a source of nameless fear. The one was a perfect man, the other a perfect beast. Whatever may be the opinions as to the truth of the story, the fact remains that man is what he is by imitating those around him.

When the child comes into the world, he does not bring with him any language. An Indian child, brought up by his parents in the surroundings of the English, can speak the

English tongue as perfectly as an English child. He can thus master two languages, his own mother-tongue and a foreign tongue. Instances are not wanting of children born of Tamil parents, temporarily residing in a Telugu country, simultaneously mastering both the languages, even before their parents can hope to attain to any perfection in the foreign tongue.

When, first, a child learns a word or two by imitation, he tries to connect the word with the object seen, (e.g., mamma with his mother, papa with his father). Thus, when the child learns his language, he does not go in for a translation, but he directly goes to the things observed. Along this direct path he proceeds and as he proceeds he is gradually building up his vocabulary. This is the most natural method by which a child should be taught a language, a foreign language. Let the child first observe things, and let him then connect them with names. He should be given fair opportunities to make his trials and to record his successful results one by one. If it be utterly impossible to make his surroundings at home foreign, let there be at least some places set apart wherein he can have the opportunities for using the foreign tongue.

Such opportunities are nowadays provided for within the school premises. We are thankful to the Educational authorities for the recent improvements made in the education of our young children. The old Translation Method of teaching the foreign tongue is gradually giving its place for the new Direct Method. The speech-language first, the written language next is the order of the day.

But the one disadvantage—the greatest disadvantage—attending at present upon

this new method is the want of sufficient amount of exercise. The argument “since a child learns its mother-tongue by the Direct Method, it is but possible for it to learn the foreign tongue by the same method” is cogent enough. But here the question of time seems to have been neglected. The opportunities for a child to learn his mother-tongue are very great. In the house and in the circle of his friends he cannot but use his mother-tongue if he is to be properly understood. It is not for 45 or 50 minutes a day he is learning the use of his vocal organs. Every minute of the day, excepting the period for sleep, brings in words ringing in his ears. But in the kindergarten section of our schools, our children are introduced to the foreign tongue, not in the first, but in the third year course. Excepting in the period allotted for the purpose, the educator is prohibited from using the foreign tongue. This state continues in the kindergarten section and even extends to the time when the children reach the end of the eighth year course. Yet, they are expected by the Educational authorities to express themselves fairly well in the foreign tongue, even before they complete their seventh year course. Including the eighth year course, the number of hours spent on the foreign tongue comes to less than 2000, even supposing them to utilise all the 365 days of the year. Comparing this with the number of hours devoted to learn the mother-tongue at the rate of at least 14 hours a day for 4 years, one cannot but be astonished at the rapidity with which the authorities insist upon learning the foreign tongue. Perhaps, there may be the argument that the difficulty of mastering the second language is not so great as that of the first. Allowing a fair margin for this, we cannot but feel that the

time allotted for mastering the foreign tongue is quite insufficient and provisions must be made for its increase.

Again, the educators of our children are themselves, in many cases, not quite used to the foreign tongue. It is no wonder, then, that children stumble where the educator himself fails.

In spite of these disadvantages attending upon the learning of the foreign tongue, there is one decided advantage. The difficulty of acquiring an entirely new language is not so great as that of setting right the habitual mispronunciations and incorrect expressions of an acquired language. This does not hold good so well in the case of adults as it does in the case of children. In learning English our children have this advantage over their fellow-children in England. But this advantage is more than counterbalanced by the existing disadvantages. Unless some remedy is forthcoming, the expectations of the Educational authorities with respect to the English language are but an additional burden thrown upon the innocent shoulders of our young friends.

Before our children are introduced to the written language, they should spend at least three years in the speech-language. They should be able to converse, in simple sentences, upon things familiar to them. Even in the very first year of their school-life they may be introduced to the foreign tongue. But care must be taken that this is regarded more or less as a piece of recreation. Their memory must not be unnecessarily loaded with the names of unfamiliar objects. Later it is better if they can be made to memorise the splendid little lines written for children by some of the greatest English poets. But these are all questions to be taken up,

only when the question of time is solved. Without that, the Direct Method of teaching a foreign language cannot be as fruitful as it is expected and as it ought to be.

K. KRISHNAMACHARI.

THE FUTURE OF OUR UNIVERSITIES.*

I

Persons venturing to peep into the future with the aim of unveiling its mystery in any measure, are consigned by Dante to one of the most dreadful regions of the *Inferno*. They have their faces reversed and set the contrary way on their limbs, so that they are ever compelled to walk backwards:

Each wondrously seemed to be reversed
At the neck-bone, so that the countenance
Was from the reins averted; and because
None might before him look, they were compelled
To advance with backward gait.

Any attempt to discuss the *Future of Our Universities* must perhaps be accompanied by a fear of this punishment looming in the distance and waiting for the moment of death to fall on the unfortunate victim. But it is proposed to avoid the disaster, by not attempting the task of predicting the future of our Universities, but by confining our attention to an examination of some of the lines on which they must advance in the future.

It must be prefaced by an unstinted admiration of the brilliant achievements that the Universities can already boast to their credit. The period of half-a-century is too short in the annals of a country to judge the effects of an educational movement, but there could be no hesitation in pronouncing a verdict of the most favourable type on the appreciable progress that our Universities have made. They have gener-

* A paper recently read before the Literary Society, Hindu High School, Triplicane, by Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., of the Pachaiyappa's College.

ated impulses that have vivified all aspects of national life. The methods of science and reason have begun to regulate the intellectual outlook; the ethical sense has been trained to feel the wrongs of centuries; and various movements for the national good and prosperity have been successfully conceived and worked by the products of our Universities. It will not be wrong to compare the movement in its intensity and beneficent consequences to the great Renaissance in Europe, which Walter Pater has called 'an outbreak of the human spirit, though the operations of the Indian revival are necessarily on a smaller scale. Robust faith in the good work they have been turning out in the past, and their capacity for further usefulness are among the first essentials for efforts for their future progress. Interested critics have often assailed the work of our Universities on grounds that will not bear the test of any impartial enquiry. A desire for political progress on modern lines has been represented as an inspiration for sedition and disloyalty; an attempt to free the nation of its accretions of superstition and corruptions in religious faith as a sign of national degeneration; and the cherishing of a sense of manliness and self-respect as open rebellion against all constituted authority. Even the critic imbued with a strong desire for sketching directions of future progress, ought however to take this faith as his starting point in his programme of constructive work. As Principal James says in his recent work on *Education and Statesmanship in India*, in vindication of the influence exercised by Western culture on the people of this land: 'On the main question I venture to think, the answer is complete. . . . This vindication holds as against the impatience of advanced political thinkers who complain that too little has been done and grasp at a hasty realization of the ends to which the educational process is waking before the work of training is sufficiently advanced; and also against the one-sided condemnation of critics who pay disproportionate attention to the morbid products of

a great intellectual and moral transmutation and decline to see to what extent these are merely incidental to a process in itself essentially healthy and beneficial. . . . Improvement in the details, expansion all along the line, more liberal employment of funds, these are wanted as they have always been wanted. For the rest, the watchword is *Forward* and not *Back*; *Courage* and not words of doubt and despondency.'

II

The first great step in the future of our Universities has already received some recognition—the gradual transformation of our examining bodies into teaching centres whose influence may be felt on a more appreciable scale. Thanks to the wisdom and far-sighted policy of the eminent statesman who presides over the destinies of this country to-day as the Viceroy, a happy beginning has been made by the initiation of the scheme for the teaching University of Dacca and the proposal to limit the scopes of the prospective Universities of Benares and Aligarh to the two cities. Some earlier attempts in the same direction are indicated in the organisation of University lectures, though it must be observed that their fruits have yet been shared in only by a few and the subjects which have sometimes been chosen for treatment have by no means been capable of even attempting to satisfy the intellectual needs of the community. While the University of Calcutta has wisely enough included within its programme and has even carried out special lectures on subjects like Indian Economics, the Literature of Bengal and the History of India, taking the additional care to see that the courses did not clash with the work done in the class-room, the University of Madras has thought it fit to lend the dignity of the name of University lectures to what is being said to the classes in the usual course of teaching on subjects prescribed for the examinations of the University. There is no point in marking out some of the hours in the time-tables of

the Honours classes of colleges, for special recognition as University lectures. The suggestions thrown out by Sir George Clarke in a recent note on the subject of University reform in Bombay might be kept in mind with very great advantage—the drilling in the class-room might go on in the usual routine of college work, but what is more important is the attempt to make the Universities, centres of culture to which the nation might look up for a satisfaction of its intellectual sense.

The necessity for this transformation will be felt to be fairly pressing, at least when we realise that the carrying out of the noble ends of a true University is possible only when all the intellectual resources are concentrated for effect. The Universities of Athens in the past, Paris in the middle ages, and Oxford and Cambridge in modern times owe not a little of their glory to this characteristic of collecting all the available energies into one point. One has only to go through the eloquent pages of Newman's writings on Universities to feel convinced of the utter futility of venturing to realise the ideal, in a number of scattered centres. This is especially true when the sum-total of the available resources is by no means very potent for good. 'A University,' says Newman, 'is a place of concourse, whither students come from every quarter, for every kind of knowledge. You cannot have the best of every kind everywhere; you must go to some great city or emporium for it. There you have all the choicest productions of Nature and Art all together, which you find in its own separate place elsewhere. All the riches of the land and of the earth are carried up thither; there are the best markets, the best workmen. It is the centre of trade, the supreme court of fashion and the umpire of rival talents. It is the place for seeing galleries of first-rate pictures, and for hearing wonderful voices and performers of transcendental skill. It is the place for great preachers, great orators, great nobles, great

statesmen. In the nature of things greatness and unity go together; excellence implies a centre. And such.....is a University.....It is the place to which a thousand schools make contributions; in which the intellect may range and safely speculate, sure to find its equal in some antagonist activity, and its judge in the tribunal of truth. It is a place where enquiry is pushed forward, and discoveries verified and perfected, and rashness rendered innocuous, and error exposed by the collision of mind with mind, and knowledge with knowledge. It is the place where the professor becomes eloquent, and is a missionary and preacher, displaying his science in its most winning form, pouring it forth with the zeal of enthusiasm, and lighting up his own love of it in the breasts of his hearers....It is a place which wins the admiration of the young by its celebrity, kindles the affections of the middle-aged by its beauty and rivets the fidelity of the old by its associations. It is a seat of wisdom, a light of the world, a minister of the faith, an *Alma Mater* of the rising generations,—and even the great genius and artist in words is made to confess at the end of the glowing picture: 'It is this and a great deal more, and demands a somewhat better head and hand than mine to describe it well.' When this ideal is kept in mind, it will be nothing short of narrowness of vision of the worst type, not to draw the colleges scattered over an area of examination closer and closer, and work for a realisation of the end at least on some small scale.

Somewhat allied to this measure of reform is the necessity for making them as much residential as possible. The students must be enabled to breathe the atmosphere of the University not only in the hours of actual instruction, but also during all the moments of their college life. The inspiration must be constant and deep enough to affect profoundly every bent of the mind and every throb of the heart. It cannot be denied that efforts have long been made in the

direction, but the most discouraging voids might still be found. The disastrous consequences of the defect have been emphasised upon with special reference to Calcutta, by a distinguished educationist of the city, the Rev. Garfield Williams, in his *Indian Student and the Present Discontent*, and the situation does not seem to be much better in Bombay and Madras.

The wider introduction and improvement of hostel-accommodation is however not the only means of affording a really good training in University life. The observation has often been made that a course at the University must be more marked in its imparting to the undergraduates the polish and refinement of the true gentleman than even in the supply of information on various branches of human knowledge. And its achievement must be by paying more attention to the social aspects of our University life than Indian youths have been disposed to do in the past. Freedom of intercourse among the members of various colleges at the University Union, close touch with the Professors and Tutors which is possible only under a developed system of residential life in the college, and an increased consciousness, on the part of the various members of the University, of belonging to the same noble fraternity, are some of the means of achieving this and associated ends.

III

The assimilation of western culture by Indians is the end towards which our Universities have long been striving and there are two circumstances incidental to it which must receive more adequate attention than they would seem to have in the past. Under ideal conditions the effect ought to be to enable Indian students to begin their University work in directions having an obvious bearing on their environments and national life. Every effort must be made to indianise the alien culture, to lessen the amount of artificiality which must necessarily be found

when it is imparted in entirely different surroundings. The separation must be felt to the least extent possible. There must be greater attention bestowed on things Indian; the history of the land; the philosophical systems of its ancient sages which have elicited the admiration of the world; a study of political economy in special relation to the material conditions of the country; a knowledge of its constitution and administration; a more intimate touch with the social and economic conditions of other provinces—in a thousand such departments—the impulse for enquiry must be given in a more direct manner at the University itself as the best means of laying the foundation for an assimilation of western culture and its methods.

The indianising of western culture through the agencies of our Universities must necessarily remind one of another important step of reform which must also be gradually effected. The process of absolute assimilation is hindered seriously by making the Englishman in India the supreme intellectual light of the Universities, by taking it for granted that an Englishman by merely passing through the portals of a British University must excel years of scholarship, originality or any kind of superior natural endowment in the Indian. There is no doubt that this might be interpreted as a sign of national humiliation or as a badge of political inferiority. There is also no hiding of the bitter fact, that it is an injustice somewhat peculiar to the Indian educationist that while Indians could aspire to preside over His Majesty's High Courts of Judicature, take part in the highest kinds of administrative work by being members of the Governor's or Viceroy's or Secretary of State's Council or even be elevated to the position of Right Honourable members of the Privy Council, they cannot hope to rise to professorships and principalships of eminent colleges. The question is viewed here purely as a grave educational evil. It must be disastrous to prevent the most cultured and gifted

of our men from acquiring the valuable experience of the higher kinds of University work. It also works a negative evil in often repelling the best intellect of the country from applying itself to University work, in making brilliant young men expected to win laurels as Professors of Arts change their vocation for the more lucrative one of the lawyer. The evil can be arrested only by opening the highest offices in the line to the Indian, as the work of assimilation could after all be most effectively discharged only by himself. The Lord Bishop of Madras is reported to have remarked in a recent speech of his at Cambridge that a great step in the wider and more permanent evangelisation of India, would be the creation of an Indian Church. It might be pointed out analogically, that the assimilation of western culture will be rendered deeper and more effective in this country by allowing Indian intellect to have its full play, to be made largely responsible for the work at least in the Universities of the future.

IV

When the work of assimilation itself has not been carried out with any completeness it is probably somewhat premature to talk of widening the influence and scope of the studies of our Universities. But the ideals of progress in the two directions might at least be kept in the mind together. It is a melancholy reflection indeed that the influence which our Universities have exercised in the past, has left untouched the fairer sex. When even the percentage of literacy is discouragingly low among them there is no immediate scope for University work but the time must soon be coming for separate Halls of Learning thronged by Tennyson's 'sweet girl-graduates in their golden hair,' who will not necessarily develop the notions of rebellion against the conventions of domestic felicity dealt with by the poet in his *Princess*. This will not certainly be understood as any desire to reproduce in the East, the Sporting Girl, or the New Woman of

Europe and America, who fast threaten to obscure some of the virtues which ought to sanctify noble womanhood. It is on the other hand nothing more than the desire to unbar the gates of knowledge to a class which has been kept very far from our Universities.

It is curious that such a grave void as the absence in our Universities of any provision for the fine arts does not seem to have attracted any general attention. The æsthetic faculty of the Indian must at present be satisfied with the training it receives in the departments of poetry and general literature. Without underrating its value, it may be pointed out that there must also be a more concrete appeal to his sense of the beautiful, some touch with music, painting and sculpture which do not at all enter at present the atmosphere of an Indian University. It is not merely the enthusiastic preachers of the gospel of art like Ruskin that testify to the elevating influence of a study of art in its various departments. The idea has been urged upon the world since the days of Plato who taught man 'to use the beauties of earth as steps along which he mounts upwards, going from one to two, and from two to all fair forms, and from fair forms to fair action.' The Indian with his constitutional leanings towards melancholy and religious speculation stands in greater need of it than the energetic and adventurous children of the West. An interest in the fine arts will relieve his habitual seriousness, and bring in a vein of real happiness and buoyancy of spirits. The Universities in the West have long had their Professors of Music and the Fine Arts and their sweet refinement must soon be introduced into the sombre routine of work in an Indian college.

To those who have studied the educational developments of Great Britain during the last three or four decades nothing could be more striking than the institution of University Extension Lectures which have met with remarkable success, in spreading the culture of the Universities among the masses. The time is probably ripe even in this country, for at least the consideration of the establishment of such Universities for the people. The benefits of the highest kinds of culture must be open even to those who do not enjoy the privilege of being undergraduates at the University. Persons who have ceased to be students, but would yet like to spare an occasional hour, morning or evening, for further education; those who are forced to toil in humble walks of life but would grasp at opportunities for raising themselves by acquiring additional, intellectual and professional accomplishments; the commercial classes which

may also sometimes possess the leisure for study—the movements for University Extension must appeal to these varied types. They will serve in some measure to create for the average citizen of to-day the intellectual atmosphere in which, for instance, the inhabitants of ancient Athens had the privilege of moving. There are no Olive-groves of Academe at the present day where people might breathe the wisdom of philosophers without any effort on their part. Nor are masterpieces of poetry and the drama recited at periodic exhibitions of games at centres like Olympus in Greece. It is therefore to schemes of University Extension that the citizen of to-day must look for enlightenment, and there must soon be organisations even in this country to enable students to carry on their education into maturer years, concurrently with the occupations of everyday life. It is not the select community of holders of University Degrees that can bring about the progress of the nation as a whole. There must be a general awakening of the intellect of the people which must be sustained by this new class of Universities yet to spring up in this country. We cannot conclude better than by quoting the following words of Lord Morley, uttered in connection with a powerful plea for popular culture: 'What we see every day with increasing clearness is, that not only the well-being of the many, but the chances of exceptional genius, moral and intellectual, in the gifted few, are highest in a society where the average interest, curiosity, capacity, are all highest. The moral of this for you and me is plain. We cannot like Beethoven or Handel, lift the soul by the magic of divine melody into the seventh heaven of ineffable vision and hope incommensurable; we cannot, like Newton, weigh the far-off stars in a balance, and measure the heavings of the eternal flood; we cannot, like Voltaire, scorch up what is cruel and false, by a word as a flame, nor like Milton, or Burke, awaken men's hearts with the note of an organ-trumpet; we cannot, like the great saints of the churches and the great sages of the schools, add to those acquisitions of spiritual beauty and intellectual mastery which have, one by one, and little by little, raised man from being no higher than the brute to be a little lower than the angels. But what we can do is by diligently seeking to extend our own opportunities to others, to help to swell that common tide, on the force and the set of whose currents depends the prosperous voyaging of humanity.'

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Communal Universities in India: The Affiliation Question.

Indian advices show that there has been considerable disappointment particularly on the part of some of the subscribers to the Aligarh University scheme, as to the reported decision of Government on the question of affiliation. They seem to have cherished the expectation that their "national" University would be given powers to affiliate Moslem institutions, in whatever part of India they might be situated, teaching up to a prescribed standard. They were prepared to see the power safeguarded by making its exercise subject to the approval of the *ex-officio* Chancellor, the Viceroy. They recognized that as the first great duty would be to make Aligarh itself worthy in every way of the distinction of which the founder, Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, dreamed, the day for linking distant colleges to it must be far distant—that its light might not be seen for a generation to come. But some of their leaders state that they could not have collected the large aggregate sum now in hand unless the prospect of ultimate affiliation had been before them; and it is even suggested that in some instances a return of subscriptions may be demanded by disappointed contributors.

The restriction of the power of affiliation to Government is the result of the adoption of a considered policy of general application. Impressed by the admitted deficiencies of the system of higher education hitherto prevailing, the Government of India are encouraging the development of teaching and mainly residential Universities instead of permitting any further extension of so-called "federal" or examining Universities. The first definite step announced in this direction was that of the establishment of a University at Dacca to relieve the pressure upon the University of Calcutta with its 52 widely-scattered affiliated colleges having an aggregate roll of more than 13,000 students. In

a letter to the Bengal Government last April respecting this scheme, the Government of India pointed out that it has long been recognized that the federal type of University implanted in India though convenient at the outset by reason of the paucity of institutions and their situation at long distances from one another, contains radical defects. Among these were cited the want of corporate life, the growth of external examinations, imperfect supervision, and the difficulty of fostering among students reverence for a central institution and loyalty to its ideals when that institution is remote and impersonal. "The Government of India," added the letter, "consider the creation of new Universities an important factor in educational progress. It is eminently desirable that these, should be where possible, of the teaching and residential type, binding together the colleges of a single town or a single circumscribed area."

In accordance with this principle the creation of Universities at Patna, Nagpur, Rangoon and other centres is projected as circumstances permit; and from it the Secretary of State declines to depart in the special case of the communal Universities. Even Viceroys may err in the exercise of permissive powers; systematic and continued refusal would be resented and in course of time future Chancellors might find it difficult to withstand pressure for the affiliation of institutions much below the standard of the communal Universities themselves. Aligarh owes its position in a large measure to the great traditions inherited from Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, and the linking with it of inferior institutions might soon debase the hall-mark of Aligarh, which has stood for so much in the progress of Indian Moslem culture. The difficulties of supervision and inspection found so great in the case of the larger State Universities would be augmented in that of unofficial communal institutions offering to survey colleges from Peshawar to Tuticorin and from Bombay to Mandalay.—*The Times (London).*

The Progress of Education in a Civilized Country, by Dr. T. M. Nair.

Dr. T. M. Nair writes to the *West Coast Spectator*:—To give your readers an idea of the present state of education in Switzerland, I shall briefly describe the educational system of one of the Swiss Cantons—the Canton of Geneva. The Canton of Geneva has a population of 149,172. Its total annual expenditure for all public purposes is £435,198. Out of this a sum of £111,589 is spent on public instruction and a further sum of £42,279 on Special Schools and Museums. Over and above the Cantonal expenses for education the Federal Government gives an annual educational grant of £9,903 to the Canton of Geneva. And the villages comprised in the Canton of Geneva subscribe for educational purposes an annual sum of £6,351. The sum total of educational expenditure in the Canton of Geneva per annum is thus over one hundred and seventy-one thousand pounds which works out at something over one pound per head of the total population of the Canton. I believe that this is the highest proportion of educational expenditure in any country in the world.

Public instruction in the Canton of Geneva is divided into—

- (1) Primary education.
- (2) Secondary and professional education.
- (3) Technical education.
- (4) University education.
- (5) Private school education.

Primary education is free and compulsory from the age of six to that of fifteen. Primary education begins in the *Infant Schools*, is continued in the *Primary Schools* and completed in the *Rural High Schools* and *Supplementary Schools*. The curriculum of studies in the *Primary Schools* embraces the following:—French, Arithmetic, Drawing, Geometry, German (only in the three upper classes), Geography, History, Civism, Writing, Music, Gymnastic exercises and Sewing.

Secondary education is imparted in three different kinds of institutions:—

- The Colleges for boys;
- The High Schools for girls; and
- The Professional Schools.

The Colleges for boys are divided into a Lower and an Upper division. The Lower division is a three years' course and the Upper a four years' course. The upper division is usually called "Gymnasium."

The curriculum of studies in the *Lower division* comprises French, German, Latin, Geography, History, Mathematics, Elements of Physical and Natural Science, Drawing, Composition, Music, Gymnastics. The fee is 40 francs a year—which is equivalent to about 25 rupees.

The *Upper division* is more advanced. It has also as compulsory subjects for all students French, German, History, Geography, Mathematics, Cosmography, Natural Science, Physics, Chemistry, Drawing and Gymnastics. In addition to the compulsory subjects the student takes one special optional branch. The special branches are:—

- (1) *Classical*.
- (2) *Modern*.
- (3) *Pedagogic*.
- (4) *Technical*.

The High School for girls is run very much on the same lines as those for the College for boys.

The *Professional Schools* are divided into the Professional Schools for boys and for girls.

The course of study extends over two years. Boys come to these schools straight from the 6th Form of the Primary Schools without going through the long course of the College. The subjects of study are:—French, German, Commercial Geography, History, Civic Instruction, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, Natural Science, Book-keeping, Drawing and Modelling, Technical Drawing, Manual Handicrafts, Gymnastics. Students must be 13 years of age for the first year course of studies, and 14 years for the second, and have passed the 6th Form examination of the Primary Schools. The fee is 20 francs a year (about Rs. 12-8-0).

'Simplified Spelling,' by Mark Hunter, M.A.

A meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild was held in the Presidency College when a discussion took place on the question of "The Movement for a Simplified Spelling of the English Language." Mr. Mark Hunter opened the discussion. He said:—

"The ideal spelling is one that would approximate to the rule of one sound, one symbol, and every symbol would represent one sound and no more, so that when the one symbol had been learned, there would be no difficulty in trying to learn to write the language. There is probably no language, no civilized language, which has a spelling so utterly bad as the English spelling." Then he gave illustrations of the proposed simplified system of spelling, comparing it with the old system, and pointing out the various changes proposed. In the course of his demonstration, he said under the old scheme they found that one sound was written in a great number of ways, and that it was impossible to formulate any rules about the present English spelling and consequently they had to rely merely on the weight and authority in teaching children. He said they had no right to impose anything under the sanction of authority, unless later in life reason would support it. He told the audience that it had been estimated that children lost about a year of their schooling time in trying to learn the old method. A year is spent in the life of every person trying to learn to spell English. It was sometimes argued that it was a good disciplinary training, but it was a training on an entirely wrong basis.

It was the difficulty of the spelling that was preventing English from becoming the second language of the earth. That is to say that it would become the second language after the mother-language of every nation on the earth, but for this difficulty of spelling. The speaker then proceeded to read a long extract from an

article by a Swedish gentleman in which the reasons for the spread of the English language were given, and the hindrance of its spelling was referred to. He next referred to the etymological objections to any change. He maintained that even if etymology would suffer a little by the existence of consistency in our spelling, what was etymology in comparison with the benefit to future races. Proceeding to outline the scheme of the Spelling Reform Society, he said that it was thought necessary to adopt the symbols of the present alphabet, since the ideal of a phonetically perfect system would not be practicable, and so a system which uses for the representation of sounds the nearest representation of that sound in the present spelling. After outlining the system with the aid of examples, the speaker said that the system came easy to one after a little practice, and it was possible to learn to write it after half an hour's study.

He then dealt with the chief criticisms, the first of which was that the change did not go far enough, another that it went too far, and a third that it was not absolutely phonetic. With regard to the last, he said it was said that unless they adopted the one-sign-one-sound symbol, they were doing practically nothing to relieve the children of the full burden of which they desired to relieve them. But there was no chance of persuading the English people to adopt an absolutely phonetic system of spelling. They admitted that there were difficulties even in the simplified spelling, but it did not mean the last word in spelling reform. They wanted something that could go before a representative commission of English speaking States, something that would form the basis of instruction to those who approved the general scheme, and who are asked to use it. He commended the spelling reform movement to the teachers, and after hearing the result of the discussion, he hoped they would admit that the case for reform was a good one, and that they would not content themselves with academic, but would give them their real and active, support by joining them,

Ruskin's Life and Work, by Sir E. T. Cook.

The Examination Hall at Cambridge was crowded when Sir E. T. Cook gave his lecture on "Ruskin's Life and Work."

Sir E. T. Cook said that whilst he was pursuing his investigations the one aspect of Ruskin's life and work which had struck him most had been his width of range and his industry.

He took extraordinary pains with his writing. Every word was examined and weighed, every sentence tried and turned. A study of his manuscript revisions would furnish material for many a discourse. The lecturer gave examples, showing Ruskin's search for the right word. In the eloquent passage about the lamp of sacrifice in "The Seven Lamps" the word "heaps" in "heaps of deep-wrought stone" gave Ruskin, said the lecturer, much trouble, and he tried and rejected several other words. He also took great pains to build up a pointed and impressive passage. In "The Stones of Venice" he recast the opening chapter. The lecturer read the accepted and rejected versions, and remarked how much less perfect the latter was; by comparison it was flat and dry, and far less harmonious and impressive in sound. It was interesting to note the process of polishing. Curiously enough the number of words in each version was the same—68. In the work of revision superfluous words were omitted, and by comparison Ruskin knitted his sentences more closely and found room to introduce an ending not only beautiful in sound, but expressing a beautiful thought. The work of revision meant something more than a search for beautiful sound: it meant the attainment or deeper and fuller sense and exactly the same thing might be observed even in his alteration of single words. The result of this careful craftsmanship was that there was not a page in his writings which was not alive. "We have to

remember," continued the lecturer, "that his enormous output in printed matter was only one half of his work."

He illustrated his books, and was an artist as well as a writer. He had prepared a catalogue of Ruskin's drawing, only those that had been engraved, published or referred to in his writings, and the list comprised 2,145 drawings. What prodigious industry it meant when they remembered that he was the most voluminous writer of his time! Many of those drawings might more accurately be called studies, which was the description Ruskin himself applied to them. His purpose was to learn. He drew as a means of drawing attention, not as a means of exhibiting his skill. His studies, though unfinished, often took a great deal of time. Ruskin's reputation as an artist would, the lecturer believed, be greatly extended when fine examples of his work came to be placed in public galleries, which he believed would some day be done. Ruskin's industry in drawing had a marked effect on his literary work, both his artistic criticism and his descriptive writing. He was a word painter, but the point was that he painted always with his eye on the object. "I doubt if he ever described anything he had not previously drawn," said the lecturer. Speaking next of Ruskin's wide range or miscellaneous industry, the lecturer remarked that nothing was too small for him. He even ran a model tea shop. The secret of his immense industry was partly mechanical and acquired partly organic and innate. He was not particularly jealous of his old moments. He was fond of dozing, and he always seemed to have odd minutes to spare for his guests and friends. But he never had less than 20 things in his head at the same time or less than seven books in hand.

Some Nature Poetry before Wordsworth, by J. C. Rollo, M.A.

A meeting of the Madras Christian College Literary Society was held recently in the Second Class room of the Madras Christian College, when Mr. J. C. Rollo delivered the inaugural address on "Some Nature Poetry before Wordsworth."

Mr. Rollo, in the course of his interesting lecture, observed that it was absurd to say that Wordsworth found something new in nature in relation to poetry. The beauty of nature, the sublimity of nature, and the harmony of nature were all implied in what many other poets had written before Wordsworth. The genuine love of nature was based on the feeling that they were all one with nature—Wordsworth was full of the idea of personal love for nature. The favourite theme of Wordsworth was the influence of nature on man of which he had always a characteristic interpretation to give. He was full of the idea that harmony with nature was a matter of the soul. Nature was to him a living thing which communicated its thoughts in direct impulses to man through the medium of natural objects. Wordsworth was the first poet to be conclusively animated by the above idea. Another aspect of nature poetry in Wordsworth was the double idea that as nature passed soon, so all must pass and that in nature spring returned next year and the sun set one day to return the next day while for man there was no return. Chaucer was animated by a desire to note the changes of seasons and their respective influence on man. His summer feeling was expressed in many fine passages. Sir Philip Sidney was another poet longing for May mornings in summer. Spencer had a kind of love for nature and gave fine description of nature. For him all beautiful scenes were valued as the background of man. He delighted to be in smooth pastoral places because men could be busy there and gather there after a busy day's work. Keats was another poet who wrote some verses on summer happiness. Milton, inspired purely by the Christian spirit, set at naught the sad harmony in mortality and applied that very sunset and sunrise metaphor of Catullus to bring home his confident belief in the immortality of the soul. Shakespeare had also treated of nature in several well-known plays and his description of nature clearly showed the depth of his observation of nature.

Lessons from the experiences of a Schoolmaster, by R. Souri Raja Iyengar, B.A., L.T.

The following is a summary of a lecture entitled "Lessons from the experiences of a Schoolmaster," delivered to the students of the Training School at Tanjore by Mr. R. Souri Raja Iyengar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, National High School, Manargudi:—

A master's life is divided into four periods. The training or formative, the first period, is the most happy portion of a schoolmaster's existence. The next ten years, the second period, is not so cheerful. In this, one has to feel his way learning of elders and superiors and men of large experience. There is also much excitement or hurry and a tendency to overwork to gain distinction. So there is less comfort and great moderation has to be observed to avoid illness. The second ten years are marked by sobriety, patience, reserve and others, an appreciation of order in everything and the consequent obedience to it. The last period is a very dangerous one. We use friends and create enemies. Adaptability to new surroundings ensures success. Sympathy towards juniors facilitates good work. As the profession is ill-paid and as a schoolmaster's opportunities are little, he dies very often in harness.

The duties of the Headmaster are as follows:—He is answerable to parents. He has to please the management and the Department. He has to protect the interests of his assistants and withal keep a clear conscience; while the assistant feels at liberty as soon as his allotted work is done the Headmaster cannot afford to be so because of the difficult nature of his position. Sometimes it happens that private schools are under the dual control of the Headmaster and the management, in which case they suffer very much. Worst of such institutions—the discipline is undermined and success disappears slowly.

The duties of the assistant are:—He must do his work loyally and successfully. He is to keep the discipline of his class. He must avoid the use of slang, the remote allusion to the deformities of boys, the unintelligibility of his words. He must be ready for his work at all times and careful to dispel any idea of slovenliness in his duties. In the lower classes, an assistant must be able to handle all subjects and keep the discipline of his class by his ability and humour. He must also attend to his dress as "the apparel oft proclaimeth the man." He must conduct himself in such a way that he can secure the respect of all,

Sir George Clarke On University Work.

The Governor of Bombay, in laying the foundation stone at the Emperor George the Fifth Hall and the Sir George Clarke Library in connection with the Gujarat College in Ahmedabad, delivered a lengthy speech, in the course of which he said:—"Addressing a great gathering of Mahomedans in Poona the other day, I pointed out that in India as in Western countries the multiplication of Universities seemed to be among the developments of education in the future and that far-reaching affiliation is destructive of the true University spirit. I said that there was already scope for the Universities of Bombay and of Poona and that before long there would be a University of Ahmedabad. I have no doubt that my prophecy will come true and that this old city with its traditions of kingdoms that have passed away will revive its ancient glories as a great centre of learning and of industry helped and inspired by the training and the research which the Madhawal Ranchhodlal Science College will soon be actively undertaking. So best will the welfare and prosperity of Gujarat be promoted and so will Ahmedabad most worthily take its place in the advancement of India. It is a very interesting fact that the quincentenary of the city of Ahmedabad should coincide with the inauguration of a great educational step certain in the future to do so for Ahmedabad what was impossible to the many rulers who have controlled its chequered fortunes.

"In all directions India is advancing far more rapidly than is generally realized. In the five years that I have spent among you I have noted progress which far exceeded my expectations, and that the next five years will develop in accelerated speed. I have no doubt, in the awakening due to the Western education which we British people are spreading broadcast in this ancient land, there may be elements of danger, but there are also immense possibilities of good. Whether good or evil shall predominate depends upon the spirit in which education is imbibed.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

B. A. Text-Books.

In modification of the lists of text-books for the B.A. Degree Examinations of 1913 and 1914 (old bye-laws) at pages 340-346, it is notified that the Syndicate has resolved that the text-books in the following languages for those Examinations be the same as those prescribed for the B.A. Degree Examination of 1912:—Sanskrit, Marathi, Uriya, Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese and Malayalam.

Scholarships.

The Government of Madras have sanctioned a grant of Rs. 1,650 towards the Wenlock Memorial Scholarship Fund, raised to found a scholarship for Mahomedans in memory of the late Baron Wenlock. The scholarship will be of the monthly value of Rs. 10 and will be awarded to a Mahomedan studying for the degree of B. E. or, in the absence of such a candidate and in the following order of preference to a Mahomedan studying for L. T., or M. B. and C.M. or B.L. The scholarship will be awarded by the Mahomedan Educational Association of South India.

The Director of Public Instruction is pleased to award a Government scholarship of the monthly value of Rs. 20 tenable for two years from 1st July 1912 to each of the undermentioned students to enable them to engage in post-graduate study in Physics:—S. Narayan, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly; T.N. Krishnaswami Aiyar, Presidency College, Madras; Manjunnath Mulky, Presidency College, Madras; C. P. Narayanan, Madras Christian College.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Examination Results.

At the Intermediate Examination in Law held in July 1912, 390 students have passed of whom 34 are placed in the First Division and 356 in the Second Division. Probodh Chandra Dutta from University Law College headed the list of successful candidates. *First Division*: University Law College—20; Ripon College—7; Dacca Law College—5; Patna Law College—2.

Senate Meeting.

A formal meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held on the 31st August at the Senate House, College Square, when Sir Asutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor, presided over a fair attendance of Fellows,

There were in all fifteen items on the agenda, of which the first related to the change of curriculum of the practical course in Geology for the B. Sc. Examination, while the rest were all applications from candidates to the various University examinations to be permitted, for reasons mentioned therein, to appear at such examinations as non-collegiate students, with the recommendations of the Syndicate in each case. The Senate accepted these recommendations.

The Calcutta University Institute.

Mahamohopadhyaya Pramotho Nath Tarkabhushana delivered a lecture on "Indian Philosophy—Vedic Age" under the auspices of the Calcutta University Institute on the 24th August at the Institute Hall, Dr. P. K. Roy presiding. The meeting attracted a large audience which included Mahamohopadhyaya Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhushana, Babu Hirendra Nath Dutt, Prof. Rajendranath Vidyabhushan, Kaviraj Jamini-bhusan Roy, M.A., M.B., Profs. Manmotho Mohon Bose, Hem Chandra Das Gupta, Harihar Banerji, Pundit Sritikanta Bachaspati.

THE BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

Question of Recurring Grant.

A report has been prepared by the Committee of the Bombay University Syndicate regarding the disposal of the recurring grant of Rs. 50,000 given by the Government. The Committee discusses the prospect of future work of the University, referring for instance, to the approaching desirability to establish lectureships on subjects connected with commerce and architecture, and branches of Oriental study, such as Sanskrit, Zend, Pahlavi and Indian Archaeology. They remark that it is necessary also to create a Research Fund from which the University might give help to those who are engaged in Research work, but cannot carry it on, without assistance. The most important part of the scheme is the re-organisation of the University library which is declared now to be practically useless as an aid to the higher studies now under consideration. It requires the enlargement with increased annual allotments for the purchase of books, and a trained librarian is needed, for which purpose the Committee recommend sending a young man to Europe or America for special training. The Committee summarises other recommendations regarding the recurring grant as follows:—The cost of bringing out annually a lecturer or lecturers on some of the post-graduate courses with or without the co-operation of other Indian Universities, to organise inter-collegiate lectures, to engage an

expert adviser for one year at a cost of Rs. 20,000. The Committee recommends the allotment of half a lakh as the initial cost for refitting the library

HINDU UNIVERSITY.

The donations received by the Hindu University Society since the 10th to the 31st of August amount to Rs. 2,34,297-90-. Including the payments previously announced the amount collected has now reached Rs. 9,91,948-15-7. This is exclusive of the lakh and a half paid by H.H. the Maharana of Udaipur and the three lakhs paid by H. H. the Maharaja Holkar. These included, the total realisations come up to 14½ lakhs in round figures. Inquiries have been received from many persons as to whether the collection of funds for the Hindu University is proceeding or is suspended by reason of the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler's letters recently published. The collections made in July and August since the publication of the press communiques demonstrate that the work is getting on vigorously. As Sir Harcourt Butler has already stated in his letter to the Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga, the Committee has not yet submitted any definite proposals. These are now being prepared for submission, and the Committee will state definitely what the requirements of the Hindu University Society are with reference to the proposed University at Benares.—*The Leader*.

MANCHESTER UNIVERSITY.

Benefaction to Manchester University.

Manchester University is to have two new professorships and at least four scholarships founded from forty thousand pounds bequeathed by the late Mr. John Hall, of St. Leonards-on-Sea. The benefaction is to encourage Chemistry and Philosophy; and the endowment is to be known by the name of the late Sir Samuel Hall, the testator's brother.

LONDON UNIVERSITY.

A Lady University Professor at London.

A lady—Miss Margaret J. Benson—became a "Professor in the University of London" at the last meeting of the Senate, when this status was granted to seventeen teachers in incorporated colleges and "schools of the University." In several British Universities—notably in those of Scotland and the provinces—there are lady lecturers, but none of the great seats of learning has hitherto had any but male professors. The innovation is fitly made by London, which led the way in recognition of women's claims to degrees.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY.

Oxford Reforming Herself.

A University Board of Finance of nine members has been constituted at Oxford as part of the Chancellor's scheme of reform. The duties of the Board are mainly to review, to report, and to advise. It will, in every year, investigate the facts and figures upon which it can form an estimate of the income and expenditure of the University for the coming year. The estimate will be submitted to the Council, accompanied with recommendations as to the mode of meeting estimated expenditure or the improvement of financial administration. The discharge of this duty will give to the University, what it has never hitherto provided for itself, something in the nature of a budget statement.

Reviews and Notices.

A PRIMER OF INDIAN BOTANY, BY P. F. FYSON, B.A., F.L.S. PUBLISHED BY THE CHRISTIAN LITERATURE SOCIETY FOR INDIA (MADRAS BRANCH). Price Re. 1.

This is another little book written by Prof. P. F. Fyson, B.A., F.L.S., of the Presidency College, Madras, on Indian Botany, and forms an abridged edition of his "Botany for India," so as to suit it exactly to the requirements of the School Final Course. The author has exercised much judgment in the arrangement of the matter of the book. He begins by giving the student at the outset a complete survey of the different parts of the plant. Having laid this foundation, he proceeds to give an account of the food of the plant as well as the way in which it gets it. At the same time he deals with the work done by the different parts of the plant body. After this he goes to deal with the other parts of the subject. He has also included small and easy accounts of 'Homology,' 'Species and Genus,' 'Pollination,' 'Distribution of seeds and plants,' etc. The significance of the binomial nomenclature of plants is well explained in the chapter on 'Species and Genus.'

The second part, following the plan of the bigger book by the author, deals with the classification of plants; but the number of Natural Orders dealt with is restricted to sixteen which include those prescribed for the School Final Course.

The value of the two books written by the author lies chiefly in the large number of Indian examples he quotes under the different headings. But we would again hold that a larger number of illustrations is a great necessity with such elementary books. We believe that this want will largely be obviated by the excellent bulletins on Madras plants, which are being issued now from the Presidency College and which contain good drawings and descriptions of common plants. We would suggest also that common popular names of plants, in English or Vernacular or both, may be given side by side with the scientific ones. The author has made an attempt in this direction by giving common English names for certain plants. But we wish he would extend this to all the other plants also which have common English and Vernacular names.

The book is written in very simple language and with a minimum of technical terms. The get-up is quite good. It will form a neat useful little primer for teachers and pupils who have to do with the School Final Course.

RECENT NATURAL SCIENCE BOOKS.

ZOOLOGY, BY GRAHAM KERR, F.R.S., F.L.S., F.R.S.E. LONDON. (J. M. DENT & SONS, LTD.)

This is one of Dent's new "Scientific Primers" and is a very interesting and well-written little book. Beginning with the usual way with descriptions of *Amoeba* as an example of the *Protozoa*, *Hydra* of the *Coolenterata*, and the Earth-worm of the *Coelomata*, it then sketches the chief distinguishing characteristics of the higher groups. The concluding chapters deal with the facts, method, and mechanism of evolution. Many interesting things are told but always to explain some point of scientific importance. In dealing with the main groups of animals stress is continually laid on the homology of organs or parts which in form, as in function, are very different. The book has thus considerable educative value, and is thoroughly up-to-date, whether as regards the parasitic origin of diseases and pearls, or in theories of evolution; though we miss any reference to the bearing of the Mendelian hypothesis on this subject. It is a book we would unhesitatingly recommend to anyone wishing to get acquainted with the main facts and current ideas of animal life.

THREE CAMBRIDGE MANUALS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE.

Price—1s. each.

SPIDERS, BY C. WARBURTON, M.A.

Mr. Warburton has compressed into some 130 pages a very readable and useful account of spiders. He begins with the evidence of a spider's presence and the variety of their habits. He then answers the question: "What is a spider?" and describes their webs, trap-snares and balloons. There follows an interesting account of a spider's senses, from which we learn that though they can apparently smell and hear the particular organs which enable them to do so have not been discovered. Water-spiders, Wolf-spiders, Jumping-spiders and other kinds are given each a separate chapter, and well worth reading these chapters are. Stridulation, of which many spiders are capable, and spinning are also dealt with, the special apparatus for the latter being described with the help of figures. The author has some interesting and suggestive remarks on the uses of spiders, combating the old idea that animals were placed here for the benefit of man, and attention is drawn in the concluding chapter on the efficiency of the spider's internal economy. Of all animals he seems to get most value for his food, and the tiny egg, barely a twelfth of an inch across, of the *Tarentula*, contains enough to enable the young spider to live and move about for months, and even to spin silk, truly a marvellous storing and using of food beside which the endurance of a man is as nothing. This is a book which we hope will be widely read by educated people, and we feel sure that the extremely interesting and able way which the subject is dealt within will make it difficult for anyone who takes the book up to lay it down again.

THE ORIGIN OF EARTHQUAKES, BY C. DAVISON, SC.D. F.G.S.

To the ordinary dweller in South India an earthquake is only known by hearsay, but in some lands, more particularly Japan, they are of daily, almost hourly, occurrence. It is only when one is severe enough, or near enough to a populous centre to cause loss of life and property, that any account of an earthquake gets into the papers. This book will therefore be of more interest to the student of Geology, and the intelligent inhabitant of an earthquake area than the ordinary reader in this country. For them however it is well worth reading, for the facts are told clearly, and illus-

trated with a number of maps and photographs. Earthquakes we learn are not at all deep-seated in origin, the smallness of the area affected and the decrease in intensity in proportion with the distance from the centre of maximum disturbance, showing that the fracture or slip which is the primary cause, can seldom be more than a few hundred feet below the surface. The author strongly supports the view that an earthquake is the result not of a sudden upheaval somewhere, but of a giving way, at last, to some long continued strain which may have been going on for a hundred years. He describes simple and complex earthquakes, fore-shocks and after-shocks, and earthquake sounds, discussing in each case the probable cause. The book closes with an account of the distribution of earthquakes and a map showing the twelve areas, of which four are oceanic, six partly oceanic, and only one wholly on land.

The book will be of interest as we have said to geologists, but the subject is not one of immediate importance to the dwellers of India.

ROCKS AND THEIR ORIGINS, BY G.A.J. COLE.

The Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature are intended, we understand, not for students of colleges, nor yet for past-students as such, but for the ordinary well-read and educated man who is not a specialist in the subject of the particular book. The volume before us is too technical to appeal to the layman and abounds in technical terms which to any untrained in the physical sciences would, we imagine, be quite unintelligible. This is perhaps the fault of our education, for Chemistry and Geology are not yet recognised as necessary to the perfect man, and it is impossible to deal with rocks without reference to their chemical constitution. Still something, we think, however, might have been done to avoid the use of so many technical terms and to build on the everyday knowledge that most men acquire, in the course of a life of travel.

There is so much of the ordinary text-book, so little of the broader outlook that the older school of geologists, like Geikie, showed. The illustrations, good enough in their way, are drawn mostly from standard instances on the Continent and elsewhere. An English reader would have been more helped by English examples, and the Indian reader will not be any more benefited by these. The book is full of solid matter, and gives impartially the views of different men, among whom we are surprised to find the name of Charles Darwin quite frequently appears. That it does so is another sign of that great naturalist's wonderful

genius. As a zoologist pure and simple, his work have stood out in the first rank. As a botanist he will be remembered for all time. Yet we never now hear of him in any capacity but as the founder of the modern view of descent and evolution. And here he is quoted as an authority on rocks! We can hardly recommend the book to the ordinary reader, it is too technical. But the student of geology will find it of great use.

A HISTORY OF CIVILISATION IN PALESTINE, BY R. A. S. MACALISTER, M.A., F.S.A.; METHODISM, BY H. B. WORKMAN, D.LIT.: (CAMBRIDGE MANUALS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE.) 1s. net.

It is unnecessary to speak of the merits of the admirable series to which these two volumes belong; it is high praise to say that each of them is worthy of belonging to the series. Like the other books in the series each of them is by a scholar altogether competent to his task, and each of the books gives a remarkably clear and suggestive account of its subject. Professor Macalister's name is well-known in connection with the work of the Palestine Exploration Fund, and the book he has given us is of the fascinating sort that only a master of the subject could have produced. His scholarship is saved from any hint of the dullness that so often besets the scholar by delightful touches of humour and imagination, but apart altogether from that the interest of the subject never flags for a moment. Particularly excellent is the analysis of the importance of the Philistines, and of the debt of civilisation to them; Chapter 7, which in small space gives an illuminating account of the growth of the religious consciousness of the people; and the later pages in which the significant features of the Crusades are well brought out. One trifling misprint occurs on p. 95, in the date 70 B. C.

Dr. Workman's book on Methodism is by one who has already won a wide reputation for sound work in the field of ecclesiastical history, and while we doubt whether this little book will add anything to that reputation it is as satisfactory a short account of the great Methodist movement as we have seen. It is written by a convinced Methodist, but, as the preface tells us, "for the interested outsider." Justice is done to the great work that Methodism did in the century of its origin—a work that has received very general recognition from the later historians of the period; and also to the more neglected field of the great-

ness of the Methodist church as a world-wide organisation to-day. The criticism that suggests itself, in viewing the book as a whole, is that perhaps it would have been well to devote a little less space to the story of Methodist divisions—a story interesting enough in itself, but hardly worthy of the amount of attention it receives in comparison with the rest of the book; we should have preferred to hear a little more of the heroic beginnings of the movement, or of its no less heroic developments in countries far removed from the land of its birth.

A SCHOOL CHEMISTRY, BY F. R. L. WILSON, M.A., AND G. W. HEDLEY, M.A.

This book is a *shorter course* of progressive lessons in chemistry than the authors' *Elementary Chemistry*. The method of treatment is well-adapted to taking the students through a course of practical work to a knowledge of the elements of chemistry and cannot but prove a very valuable guide to those that wish to take up, in earnest, a study of the subject. The main features of the book, that deserve special mention are:—

1. *Theory* is developed, side by side, with *experiment*.

2. Clear instructions are given for *practical work*, with requisite *precautions* in the handling of apparatus, thus greatly relieving the teacher from explaining the details of manipulation. Of course, much scope is left for the exercise of the pupils' faculties of *thought* and *observation* by leaving it to them to note and describe the chemical and physical phenomena that occur. Questions are appended to each experiment, which, along with information on 'Laboratory Record' to be kept by the pupils, serve to focus attention, to ensure reflection and to fix firmly the results of the experiment in their minds.

3. With a view to exercising the *power of application* of the *quicker* students and keeping the members of a class fairly well engaged, frequent problems are added.

4. The first five chapters forming about a seventh of the book deal with the preliminaries of manipulations, such as the cutting and bending of glass tubing, the blowing of bulbs, boring a cork, and the use of chemical balances. A knowledge of such physical and quasi-physical phenomena and laws as are quite necessary for the proper understanding of Chemistry, is clearly imparted by means of well-chosen experiments, e.g., the determination of freezing point, boiling point, and solubility; Boyle's Law and Charles' Law.

Chapters VI to IX treat of 'combustion' and the method of chemical investigation followed is very suitable to beginners.

The main portion of the book is devoted to the study of the *classification of materials*, the *nature of oxides, water, acids and salts*. A knowledge of *atomic theory* and *equivalent weights* is introduced here, and the study of the important non-metals and their compounds as well as of a few typical metals closes the book, not to speak of the questions from the various examination papers of English Universities, which form a useful appendix.

The authors cannot be too well congratulated on the production of such an excellent handbook of chemistry for use in schools. It is priced at 4s. 6d., a price low enough for its bulk and usefulness. The book is neatly got up and the name of the publishers, the *Clarendon Press*, Oxford, is itself a guarantee for excellent printing and neat get-up. It is not designed to meet the requirements of any particular examining body; it is intended to be a guide to all who take up *chemistry* for study. We feel great pleasure in recommending the book to all earnest students of chemistry.

JUNIOR HEAT, BY JOHN SATTERLY, D.Sc., M.A. (PUBLISHED BY THE 'UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LTD.' LONDON.)

The book is intended to meet the requirements of the syllabus for the various 'Junior Local Examinations' in England and presents a clear account of the rudiments of the subject. The treatment, throughout, is of an elementary character; the subject-matter is well arranged and forms a connected whole; and the experiments are so designed as to elucidate the nature of the phenomena under investigation. This is not a course of practical work; yet the author's aim is to encourage the student to experiment for himself so that he may understand and assimilate the theory of the subject. No doubt, much is done in this direction by means of a number of well-chosen experiments, which are mainly *qualitative* at the beginning of each new subject and *quantitative*, later on. But we are of opinion that, so far as the exercise of the thinking faculty on the part of pupils and the development of their capacity for making accurate observations and drawing correct inferences are concerned, it would have been well if the results of the experiments had not been mentioned, but left to be arrived at by the students themselves. Simpler apparatus might, with advantage, have been suggested for some of the experiments, so as to provide for greater facilities for students' work.

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The diagrams are simple and carefully prepared; but a uniform method does not seem to have been strictly followed in the representation of the sketches, some being drawn in *perspective*, some, in *section*, and a few, in a mixture of both. Sectional diagrams might advantageously have been used throughout.

Mathematical calculations involved in working out the results of most experiments in Physics usually appear difficult, probably owing to the abuse of mathematical formulæ which the beginners apply mechanically in a meaningless way. This book is free from such a defect, as every facility is given to students for working them out as far as possible from *first principles* in the early stages and taking to the use of formulæ only in later stages where there is need for quicker and more concise work.

The book is nicely printed and neatly bound and is priced only 2s. We can recommend it as a useful guide to elementary pupils for grasping the fundamental principles of Heat.

NUMERICAL TRIGONOMETRY, BY J. W. MERCER, M.A. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). Price 2s. 6d.

This is a well got up little volume of 157 pages. The object of the author in writing the book is to enable a student to solve numerical problems in Trigonometry without a considerable knowledge of the theory of the subject. As a matter of fact in working practical questions in Trigonometry only most elementary principles are required.

The author begins by defining the terms *elevation*, *depression* and the *tangent* of an angle. Next the *sine* and the *cosine* are introduced. These three ratios are used for the determination of heights and distances, all points involved being either in the same plane or in different planes. A chapter is also devoted to the consideration of the reciprocals of the sine, cosine and tangent. Oblique-angled triangles are solved by dividing the triangles into right-angled ones. Triangles are also solved using logarithms. The only two trigonometrical formulæ obtained and illustrated are the sine-formula and the cosine-formula of a triangle. Thus for a student of the *Numerical Trigonometry* under review nothing beyond the three ratios, the sine, cosine and tangent and the two formulæ $\frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}$, and $a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$ are required.

On the whole the treatment of the subject is excellent and the number of examples many and

varied. We can safely recommend this book to any student of the High School in India who desires to have a practical working knowledge of Trigonometry. The book will also be a valuable addition to the Mathematics library of any High School.

EXAMPLES IN NUMERICAL TRIGONOMETRY, BY
E. A. PRICE, B.A. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY
PRESS). Price 2s.

This book of 90 pages is a collection of graduated examples in Arithmetical Trigonometry and is divided into thirteen small chapters and a number of small appendices. The appendices give (1) the definitions of the trigonometrical ratios, (2) the formal proofs of the sine-formula and the cosine-formula of a triangle, (3) model solutions of a few numerical problems. The only theoretical knowledge of Trigonometry that is expected of the student is what is indicated in the appendices. There is a chapter on *Logarithms* just before entering on the general treatment of triangles but the student is not expected to use them in all cases. The book is meant for a student working examples under the supervision of an expert teacher and may be more appropriately styled *A Companion to Numerical Trigonometry*. The get-up is excellent and the book should find a place in the library of every High School.

A CORRECTION.

The following was not correctly printed in the last number; hence it is reproduced below in its proper form:—

[I do not deny that Prof. Mitra has given the correct view of the nature of the so-called faculties, or recognised the influence of education on conscience, in their proper places in his book, but what I take exception to is the inconsistency with these views of the terms in which he speaks of conscience in the quotations taken from the "Elements of Morals." Prof. Stout certainly does not mean that moral principles as such are intuitively perceived when he speaks of certain physiological tendencies as developing with the growth of the brain].

S. MANGESH RAU.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Union Jack.—It has been suggested for consideration—

(i) that the Union Jack should be displayed on schools and on Government buildings on certain anniversaries, and

(ii) that the National Anthem in various vernaculars might appropriately be played or sung at public or social functions, especially in schools and colleges.

2. The Governor in Council approves generally of the suggestion in respect of the display of the Union Jack on schools and colleges. Further orders regarding the supply of flags to Government schools and colleges will issue separately in connection with the general suggestion to provide all Government buildings with the flag which is under consideration. In the meanwhile, the Director of Public Instruction will be requested to furnish Government with a list of the Government educational institutions to which flags should be supplied.

3. Presidents of District Boards and Chairmen of Municipal Councils will be requested to give effect to the proposal approved above, so far as Board and Municipal schools are concerned, the cost being met from the funds at their disposal.

4. The Director of Public Instruction should instruct inspecting officers to suggest the same course to the managers of aided and unaided institutions.

5. The Government have already decided that the singing of the National Anthem in English and to the English air should be encouraged in educational institutions and that it is not advisable to arrange for the translation of it into the different vernaculars.

Building Grant.—The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, not exceeding Rs. 7,150 towards the cost of construction of an additional building for the Wesleyan Mission High School, Negapatam, subject to the following conditions:—

(1) That in carrying out the work the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note are adopted; and
(2) that all other conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code have been duly complied with.

2. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

A Secondary School for girls at Vizagapatam.—The Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to open a secondary school for girls in Vizagapatam and sanction the entertainment from 1st November next of the establishment specified in paragraph 4 of his letter on a temporary footing for a period of five years and subject to the condition that the increments in the pay proposed for the headmistress and the assistants should be

biennial so as to spread the total increase over ten years.

2. Separate application will be made to the Government of India in regard to the proposal to provide free quarters for members of the staff without assigning to them definite responsibility for the supervision of pupils out of school hours. In the meanwhile no expenditure should be incurred on this object.

3. The provision at State expense of the furniture required for residential buildings is very unusual and cannot be permitted in this case. The sum of Rs. 400 entered for that purpose in the statement of non-recurring expenditure appended to the Director's letter will accordingly be omitted.

4. Further orders will issue in the Financial Department sanctioning the additional allotment necessary to meet the expenditure during the current year.

New Elementary Schools for girls.—The Government generally approve the proposals submitted by the Director of Public Instruction for the opening of thirteen new elementary schools for girls and the addition of a training section to the Government Girls' School at Karuntattangudi, Tanjore.

2. The scale of establishments proposed by the Director of Public Instruction for these institutions will be sanctioned subject to the following modifications:—

(i) The minimum pay proposed for the teachers in the new schools in the central circle is in excess of the rates now in force in similar institutions in the same circle and those proposed for the schools in the other two circles. The Government consider that for the present the following scale of establishment should be adopted for the schools proposed in the central circle:—

Muhammadian Girls' School at	
Tirupattur	Rs. 25, 20, 15, 12.
Hindu Girls' Schools at Tirupattur, Tirupati and	
Tiruvadamardur.	Rs. 20, 14, 12, 10, 10.

(ii) The pay proposed for the headmistress in the Karuntattangudi training school is also unduly high. It will be fixed at Rs. 125—5—150 as in the training school for mistresses at Coimbatore and the Hobart Muhammadan training school for mistresses.

3. This sanction will be registered as No. 122 of 1912-13.

4. The following errors are noticed in the calculation made by the Director of Public Instruction as regards the cost of the schools:—

(a) The non-recurring charge of Rs. 1600 on account of the furniture and apparatus for the new four schools in the northern circle should not have been included in the "annual total cost" of those institutions given in paragraph 2 (i) of the Director's letter.

(b) The cost of furniture, apparatus, etc., required for the schools to be opened in the southern and central circles should not have been omitted in calculating the total cost of establishing those institutions.

(c) In estimating the extra cost of converting the Karuntattangudi school into a combined model and training school, the recurring charges (other than establishment) of the existing school have been taken into account, but the recurring charges (other than establishment and stipends) of the new school have been omitted.

(d) The cost of furniture for the new Muhammadan Girls' School at Palghat is treated as a recurring charge in paragraph 2 (iv) of the Director's letter.

The Teachers' Association, Guindy.—"A meeting of the Elementary Teachers' Association, Guindy, was held in the premises of the Advent Mission Guindy Girls' School under the presidency of H. W. Callagan, Esq., B.A., L.T., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Chingleput District. Mr. S. K. Ramaswami Aiyangar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the Government Training School, Saidapet, delivered an interesting lecture on 'The Experimental Study of Gases'. The demonstrations which formed the essential feature of his lecture were highly instructive and useful and were very much appreciated by the audience. The lecturer pointed out to the teachers, towards the close of his lecture how an adequate supply of the apparatus necessary for the teaching of "Nature Study" in elementary schools can be provided for at a moderate expense.

After some valuable remarks in connection with the lecture, the Chairman spoke to the teachers assembled on the necessity of the preparation of a detailed syllabus of studies for the efficient working of an elementary school and gave them some valuable hints in connection with the same.

Mr. C. P. Venkatarama Aiyar, M.A., L.T., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Saidapet Range, thanked the lecturer and the Chairman for the educative advice they gave the teachers.

After the singing of the National Anthem, the meeting was brought to a close.

Board High School, Amalapuram.—The prize-distribution of the above institution was celebrated on the 17th August, with Mr. H. S. Schield, I.O.S., in the chair. The importance of the occasion was heightened by the fact that a gold medal in memory of the late Mr. Ashe was instituted by Mr. Genti Lakshman, B.A., B.L., for proficiency in English. The Headmaster placed before the audience a succinct report on the work of the school during the last year, which was one of steady progress in all directions, the results achieved at the S.S.L.C. public examination being also good. He made some general observations on the new S.S.L.C. scheme, which went to prove his great faith in it and showed the audience how it was superior to the Matriculation in every way. The students then recited some choice and humorous pieces, which were all much appreciated.

After awarding the medals and giving away the prizes, the Chairman congratulated the winners. He then complimented the school on the good and

the earnest work turned out by it and its taking a foremost place not only in the Circars but also in the Presidency, and remarked that the bistrionic performances of the boys were distinctly good, showing that English was well taught in the school. He then observed that a hostel was a great desideratum and hoped that the *alumni* who were in high positions would follow the example of Mr. G. Lakshmananna and come forward to supply the crying need. He concluded by saying that the real object of education was that learning should be pursued for its own sake, and that we should not only do right things but also enjoy them.

With the usual vote of thanks proposed by the First Assistant, the singing of the National Anthem in Telugu, and three cheers to Their Imperial Majesties, the proceedings closed.

The Sourashtra High School Literary Society, Madura.—The inaugural meeting of this Association was held in the High School Hall on Tuesday, the 18th September 1912, with Mr. Rajaram Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Principal of the Madura College, in the chair. A large number of students and teachers from the Madura College and other institutions were present on the occasion. The Chairman commenced the proceedings by introducing to the audience the lecturer of the evening, Mr. A. Govindaraja Mudaliar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the Sourashtra High School as a distinguished educationist, and congratulated the school authorities on having secured his services. Mr. Mudaliar then delivered an eloquent address on "Debating Societies," which was listened to with rapt attention. He dilated on the many advantages of Debating Societies to school and college students and quoted the illustrious examples of the late Mr. Gladstone of England and the late Mr. Kisto Das Pal of Bengal, who owed their greatness to their having attended Debating Societies in their younger days. The Chairman, in winding up the proceedings of the evening, endorsed every word of what Mr. Mudaliar had said, and in his usual impressive and felicitous manner pointed out to his young hearers what a powerful instrument 'the gift of the gab' would be in their future career, if they but cultivated it in the right way. With the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman and the Lecturer, the meeting came to a close.

Teachers' Association, Vadamadurai.—The fifth anniversary meeting of the Teachers' Association, Vadamadurai, was celebrated in the Board School premises of Vadamadurai on the 6th inst. Mr. Abraham, B.A., L.T., the Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Dindigul Range and President of the Association, presided over the meeting. The annual report of the Association was read by Mr. D. R. Subramania Iyer, the Secretary of the Association and Headmaster, Board School, Vadamadurai. A story re "Greediness" was acted with action songs by the pupils of Vadamadurai Board School. Two other stories re

"Truth and Pride" were acted by the pupils of Thennampatti and Padvur Board Schools, respectively. Then kolattam performance was displayed by the pupils of the Erode Board School. Mr. Mariyappa Pillai, Headmaster, Board School, Erode, read an essay on the "Present Educational System and the Advantages of the Same." Then another lecture was given on the "Benefits of British rule," by Mr. P. Govindarajulu Naidu, Assistant-Master of Thennampatti Board School. Afterwards an eloquent and stirring speech was delivered by our learned, energetic and popular Chairman. With a vote of thanks and the singing of the National Anthem and with the distribution of flowers and *pan supari* the meeting was brought to a close.

Prize-distribution at the Noble College.—The prize-distribution of the Noble College, Masnlipatam, and the opening ceremony of the new Clark Hostel came off on the 12th evening with the Hon. Mr. Carr, I. C. S., Member of the Board of Revenue, in the chair. It was in the year 1908 that His Excellency Sir Arthur Lawley, the Governor of Madras, laid the foundation stone of the hostel. Towards the close of last June the building operations were completed. The building presented a gay and animated scene.

The business of the evening opened with a prayer. The Principal then read his annual report on the working of the college last year. The report revealed that last year was a year of brilliant achievements and distinctions to the college. It was gratifying that two students secured first classes in History in the last B.A. degree examination, not to speak of several second classes. These results showed the efficiency of the college staff and their indefatigable labour for the cause of the students. On the conclusion of the annual report, the Chairman rose amidst cheers and in the course of his lucid and eloquent speech he observed that hostels formed an integral part of colleges and it was only in these nurseries that wholesome and lofty principles would be inculcated, that stern moral doctrines would be indelibly engrafted on the plastic and pliant brains of the young and, in short, their character would be moulded and shaped by these benevolent and humane institutions. Nothing short of ennobling the mind and launching the young upon the momentous voyage of life, providing at the same time all the contrivances to pilot and steer their course through the grim and darksome waters of turbulent life could be performed by these hostels. Further he congratulated the two first class students in the B.A. degree examination upon their rare and distinguished honour and he wound up his remarks with the hope and wish that the institution would nurse brilliant specimens of moral character and rare great intellects.

Prizes were then distributed to all the deserving students of the college by Mrs. H. L. Braidwood. In proposing a hearty vote of thanks to the chair Rev. G. R. Eanna, M.A., said that the college should feel proud of the distinguished visitors of the evening.

prominent among whom were the Collector and the District Judge. The animating presence of the high Government officials would impart a healthy tone to the organism of the college.

National High School, Trichinopoly.—The Secretary of the National High School, Trichinopoly, Mr. T. V. Swaminatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., begs to acknowledge with thanks the following donations towards the Endowment Fund since March last:—

Messrs. T. V. Swaminatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Pleader, S. Venkoba Rao, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, S. Jalpesvara Aiyar, B.A., B.L., Pleader, T. V. Balakrishna Pillay, Honorary Magistrate, Diwan Bahadur, A. Krishnasami Aiyengar, B.A., Retired Deputy Commissioner, K. S. Krishnamachari, B.A., B.L., Chairman, Srirangam, Municipal Council, S. Kasturirangachariar, B.A., B.L., Pleader, R. V. Srinivasa Aiyangar, Mirasdar, Srirangam, K. Ragnathaswami Aiyar, Mirasdar, Kulumani, each Rs. 100. Total Rs. 1000.

Railway Schools.—The different Railway systems in India maintain schools for Europeans and Indians with funds made up of Government grant, Railway grant, from revenue and the Fine Fund, and school fees. Railway aided schools do not seem to get Government grants. It is very odd to find that the Fine Fund, which consists of fines and bonus forfeited, is devoted to payments for hospitals for sick employees, compassionate allowances, schools, recreation clubs, and other miscellaneous purposes. The East Indian, the South Indian, the Bengal and North-Western, the Rohilund and Kumaon Railway systems have balances exceeding Rupees fifty thousand at the end of 1911 to the credit of the Fine Fund. Education should receive support from sources other than those of an objectionable nature. Complaints are often made of the reckless method of fining which prevails in the Railway Department. Is it not one of the duties of the Railway Board to see that the Fine Fund does not accumulate year after year? The South Indian Railway whose assets amounted to Rs. 311,211 during 1911, spent Rs. 50 for hospitals, Rs. 675 for schools, Rs. 7596 for recreation clubs, and Rs. 191,007 for miscellaneous, whatever that may mean, and had a balance of Rs. 102,844. The next best is the Bengal and North-Western which saved Rs. 165,067 at the end of the same period.

The late Mr. Sankaranarayana, M.A.—We regret to report the recent death, at Vizianagaram, of Mr. P. Sankaranarayana Chetty, M.A. Born some 55 years ago, he was educated under the kind patronage of the Maharajah of Vizianagaram, and after passing the M.A. degree examination, he served in the Kumbakonam College as an Assistant Professor and then as Professor of Mathematics in the Maharajah's College at Vizianagaram. For nearly twelve years he was tutor to the Princes of the Cochin State,

On the death of Prof. Ranganatha Mudaliar, he acted as Professor of Mathematics in the Presidency College, Madras. The deceased was well-known as a Telugu lexicographer.

CALCUTTA.

A Commercial College.—Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University, laid the foundation stone of the first Marwari College in Calcutta. The Marwaris raised nine lakhs, out of which two lakhs have been spent in purchasing land, and two lakhs will be spent for building. One special feature of the College will be the imparting of commercial education, namely to teach young men how to manage business, to give them practical training in banking, to start joint stock companies, and kindred subjects.

Edward College, Pabna: Donation of Rs. 50,000.

To place the College at Pabna on a permanent basis is the all-important subject engaging the attention of the people for some time past. Unless sufficient funds came forth its permanency could not be secured. Recently, to the infinite joy of the people of the whole District, Kumar Radhica Bhnsan Roy, son of Rajarshi Roy Benamali Roy Bahadur, the premier Zemindar of the District, promised at His Excellency the Governor's "Durbar" at the local Town Hall a donation of rupees fifty-thousand towards the funds of the Edward College, Pabna, in honour of His Excellency's first visit to this District. As this fulfilled the condition imposed by the Government that it would contribute Rs. 50,000 provided a similar amount was locally raised, His Excellency was pleased to announce a donation on behalf of the Government of the said sum towards the upkeep of the College. Lord Carmichael publicly expressed his appreciation of the munificence and thanked the Rajarshi in suitable terms. This princely gift demonstrates the keen interest the Rajarshi is taking in the cause of education of Pabna. He has besides established a higher-class English school at Banwarinagar, the head-quarters of his estate. The people are grateful to the Rajarshi and his able, public-spirited manager, Babu Sadasiba Mitter, for this act of public utility in particular and their exertions to ameliorate the condition of the District in general.

BOMBAY.

The Poona Fergusson College.—His Excellency Sir George Clarke opened the N. M. Wadia Amphitheatre as part of the Fergusson College. This College which is managed by the Deccan Education Society secured a grant of Rs. 25,000 from the Trustees of Wadia Charities and decided to name the building after them. There was a large gathering present to witness the ceremony. Sir George Clarke gave a long speech eulogising the work of the College and combating the idea of Colonial self-

Government as something that involved absolute destruction of all that is most deeply ingrained in the life of the people of India.

Training of Urdu Teachers.—The Bombay Government has decided to open a class for training Urdu teachers as an experimental measure for two years, and the Ahmedabad Training College has been elected to try the experiment. A Mahomedan graduate familiar with the work of a Training College is being engaged for the purpose. The Government has decided to issue at the vernacular final examination a set of papers entirely in Urdu for candidates wishing to take them.

The Vice-Chancellor.—We learn that Sir Narayan Chandavarkar has resigned the office of Vice-Chancellor of the Bombay University and that Mr. Justice Heaton has been appointed to succeed him. Sir Narayan has been Vice-Chancellor for four years we believe, and his tenure of office has been an eventful one in the history of the University, as it has synchronised with the period of Sir George Clarke's Governorship and Chancellorship. Several reforms—good, bad and indifferent—have been introduced in the University during this period, and some of them have given rise to acute controversies. Being Vice-Chancellor Sir Narayan could not take an active open part in the discussions in the Senate, but the general impression (which is perhaps correct in part at least) is that he has been in agreement more with Sir George Clarke than with Sir Pherozeshah Mahta, the redoubtable protagonist of the other side. This of course is no reproach any more than it is a commendation. If Sir George is often autocratic, Sir Pherozeshah is sometimes anachronistic in his views of educational subjects. Nor will any responsible publicist cast a doubt on Sir Narayan's sincerity and disinterestedness. He himself is one of the best read and most cultured of Indian patriots and no sane man will think of questioning his right to form his own independent opinions and to seek to give effect to them when there is the opportunity to do so. Now that he has come into a position of greater freedom and less responsibility in University affairs we shall no doubt hear his opinions expressed and vindicated before the public more frequently—unless indeed he is caught in the Government net as a member of the Bombay Executive Council. A tribute cannot be withheld at this moment for the learned Convocation addresses delivered by Sir Narayan, which have been so much above the level of a typical Indian University Convocation address—those soulless Government-resolution-like documents to which we at Allahabad, for instance, have been painfully accustomed.—*The Leader.*

Technical Education: Success of Indian Students.—The results of the City and Guilds of London Institute examinations held in the Victoria Jubilee

Technical Institute, Byculla, Bombay, in April, have been received.

Thirty-two students of the Institute entered for the cotton spinning examination and 28, or 88 per cent., were successful, viz., 12 in the ordinary grade I year, 10 in the ordinary grade II year and 3 in the final section A, and 3 in final section B. Thirty-one students of the Institute entered for the cotton-weaving examination, and 31, or 100 per cent., were successful, viz., 14 in grade I, 13 in grade II, and 4 in the honours grade. Seventeen of the Institute students entered for the mechanical engineering examination and 6, or 35 per cent., were successful, viz., 5 in grade I, and 1 in grade II. Thirty-nine students of the Institute entered for the electrical engineering examination, and 21, or 53 per cent., were successful, viz., 11 in grade I, 9 in grade II, continuous current and 1 in grade II, alternate current. Fourteen students of the Institute entered for the motor car engineering examination and 7, or 50 per cent., were successful. Telegraphy: appeared 20, passed 7; telephony: appeared 8, passed 4.

These results compare very favourably with the results obtained in England, the papers and conditions of examinations being the same in both cases.

The condition of education in the Bombay Presidency.—In a Government resolution reviewing the Land administrative report of the Bombay Presidency we have the following:—The education of all classes continued to receive close attention from district officers. With the aid of special grants from Government new primary schools were opened in most districts and the opinion is frequently expressed that it is now time to divert attention and money to improving the quality of the education by providing more trained masters and better accommodation and equipment. In order to lessen the difficulty of providing funds, the Collector of Surat devised a new standard plan of school-houses which can be constructed at less cost than the old type. The plan and estimate have obtained the approval of the Superintending Engineer of the Division and in the neighbouring district of Thana a five years' building programme based on the reduced estimate has already been laid down. At the close of the year further developments in primary education were awaiting the introduction of the rural standards. The progress made in educating the backward and depressed classes was good, especially in the Panch Mahals, Surat, Thana, Kolaba and West Khandesh. Female education languishes except in the larger towns where it is steadily improving. One great impediment to its spread is the lack of trained mistresses. How far the diffusion of education has made the agriculturist better fitted for his occupation it is difficult to say, but there is no doubt that his outlook is broadening. He is now ready and even eager to follow the advice of agricultural and veterinary experts and to adopt new methods. He takes a keen interest in cattle shows and agricultural exhibitions. Co-operative

societies and agricultural associations are spreading in all directions. It is impossible not to believe that these results are partly due to the spread of education. A gratifying result of the prosperous season was the number of subscriptions raised and donations made in furtherance of educational projects.

ALLAHABAD.

Instruction to Maulvis and Pandits.—The Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, has addressed to the Inspectors of Schools and the Principals of the Training College, Allahabad, and Queen's College, Benares, on the subject of improving the usefulness of Maulvis and Pandits by acquainting them with improved methods of instruction. With this object Government has been pleased to sanction the deputation of teachers of languages already employed in Government schools to the Lucknow Training College on the same conditions as other teachers and also the admission of suitable candidates for language teacherships to the college as ordinary stipendiaries. The Hon. Mr. De La Fosse requests the officers named above to consider the advisability of recommending Maulvis and Pandits for training as language teachers when sending up the names of assistant masters for deputation and of candidates for admission as stipendiaries. It is laid down as a *sine qua non* that they should have a sufficient knowledge of English to profit by the instruction. Special arrangements will be made for the training of such men at the college. They will remain under training for one session and those who qualify will be granted special certificates as language teachers.

MYSORE.

Inspector-General of Education in Mysore.—A correspondent to the "Hindu" writes:—The post of the Inspector-General of Education rendered vacant by the sad death of Mr. J. Weir, M.A., has not yet been filled up. Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya, M.A., M.L., Senior Councillor, was looking after the duties of the Inspector-General of Education for several months and only a few months ago Mr. M. Shama Rao, M.A., Officiating Deputy Commissioner, was appointed to officiate as Inspector-General of Education.

The School Final scheme is just introduced into Mysore and in the interests of the school-going population, their parents and also in the interests of the Government, a capable Educational officer who has spent his life-time in the department is considered necessary.

The appointment has therefore been offered to Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., F.B.S., F.M.U., of Madras, who retires from the Madras Service in the next month.

The Inspector-General of Education is also to look after the two First Grade Colleges whose Principals being Europeans, like very much to have an European Inspector-General.

During the time of Mr. Cook, Principal, Central College, he refused to be under the orders of Mr. Bhabha, M.A., and the Central College became independent of the Inspector-General and the correspondence was carried on direct with the Government and the procedure was altered when Mr. Weir became Inspector-General.

Mr. Stone, though new to Bangalore, is not new to educational work.

Public Instruction in Mysore.—The report on Public Instruction in Mysore for the official year ending 30th June 1911 states that the number of public institutions increased from 2,416 to 2,460 and their strength from 113,785 to 115,249, while the number of private institutions decreased from 1,876 to 1,807 and their strength from 23,944 to 22,904. The total number of institutions thus decreased by 25, but their strength increased by 424. It is not very satisfactory to note that the percentage of boys under instruction to the total male population of school-going age fell from 28.06 to 27.9, but it is noteworthy that the percentage of female pupils to the female population of school-going age rose from 5.4 to 5.6. Referring to these variations, the Government of Mysore remark that they are small and call for no remarks. The expenditure on public instruction increased from Rs. 18,38,091 to Rs. 18,79,133; of this amount, Rs. 11,81,333 were contributed by the State revenues. The receipts from fees slightly diminished by Rs. 2,009 to Rs. 1,45,375. When compared with the British Provinces, the percentage of fees was comparatively low in Mysore, while it was 7.74 in Mysore for the year 1910-11, it was 29.2 in Madras, 19.4 in Bombay and 37.2 in Bengal. The average cost of education per head of the population increased from annas 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to annas 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ of which the State revenues provided annas 3 $\frac{1}{4}$. The corresponding figures for Madras for 1909-10 were annas 5, and annas 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ respectively. The total number of students given above includes 438 college students, of whom 4 were females, 14,772 boys in the secondary stage of instruction, and 96,974 boys in the primary stage. This last stage shows a decrease of 1,337, and the percentage of boys in the primary stage to the total school-going population was 23.5.

The expenditure on the three colleges amounted to Rs. 1,36,673 as against Rs. 1,21,494 during the previous year. The average cost of educating each pupil shows a remarkable increase, the amount having risen in the case of the Central College from Rs. 272 to Rs. 351 and in the case of the Maharaja's College from Rs. 288 to Rs. 332. The College department of the Maharani's College, which had only one student in the Intermediate Class, cost Rs. 6,707 against Rs. 12,155 in 1909-10. On this subject a plea is made for the representation of the State on the Senate of the Madras University.

It is satisfactory to note that due attention has been given to games and athletics, both in the colleges and the schools. Cricket and Football were played regularly, and drill and gymnastics received

attention. On the subject of moral instruction, the report states that some of the High School masters and Inspecting officers are sanguine about the beneficial results of the religious and moral instruction, and there is little doubt that, in course of time when the system becomes more familiar, and the proper methods have been evolved by longer experience, much good will result from it. Great success has attended the various sloyd classes.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Statement about Mahomedan Schools.—The first meeting of the autumn session of the Imperial Legislative Council was held on the 10th inst., at the Viceregal Lodge. The Viceroy presided. Two statements, one about the promotion of Deputy Superintendents of Police to the post of Superintendents and the other relating to the number of Mahomedan Deputy Inspectors and number of Moslem schools, were laid on the table. The latter statement gives the following interesting particulars:—

Madras.—Four Sub-Assistant Inspectors for Mahomedan schools. The Government maintain 58 schools, and a similar number of schools are maintained by Municipalities and Local Boards.

Bombay.—One Mahomedan Deputy Inspector for Urdu schools. No special schools are maintained by the Government for Mahomedans though there is a normal class for candidates for teachership in Urdu.

Bengal.—Special Mahomedan inspecting officers for Burdwan, Presidency, Bhagalpur, Patna, Orissa and Ubeda Nagpur divisions each. Besides the Calcutta and Hoogly Madresas there is a Moslem Middle English school in Calcutta. There are also 11 Mianji training schools and seven model Maktabas.

The United Provinces.—There are no special Deputy Educational Inspectors of Schools. There are four Government model girls' schools. Out of a district inspecting staff of 57 officers, 21 are Mahomedans, so the addition of a special Mahomedan inspectorate is not considered necessary.

Burma.—There is one Mahomedan Deputy Inspector of Mahomedan Schools. There are no special schools.

The Central Provinces.—There are one Deputy Inspector and one Sub-Deputy Inspector, six special schools and 40 girls' schools.

The N. W. F. Province.—All of the inspecting staff are Mahomedans. There are no special schools.

Eastern Bengal and Assam.—There are 23 and 63 Deputy and Sub-Deputy Inspectors respectively, two senior Madresas at Dacca and Chittagong and one junior at Rajshahi, besides a number of aided Madresas and Maktabas.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

'Comparative Illiteracy'—The following under the heading of 'Comparative Illiteracy' is from a London contemporary:—

Only three persons out of ten thousand in Germany are unable to read or write, while the proportion of illiteracy in Great Britain is 160 per 10,000 as against 770 per 10,000 in the United States. These figures are based on a comparison of illiteracy among some of the leading nations which has just been made and issued by the United States Bureau of Education. The American figures include the entire population over ten years of age, while the German figures cover only the army recruits, and the British statistics are based on data drawn wholly from official marriage registers. Hence the German and British statistics deal only with adults, and generally speaking with physically and mentally normal adults, while the United States census includes without discrimination everyone above the ten-year age limit, even coloured folk.

A Prize of £100 for the best essay.—The Governors of the London School of Economics and Political Science (University of London) are enabled by a donor who prefers to remain anonymous to offer a prize of £100 for the best essay or monograph submitted by July 31, 1913, on one of the following subjects:—

1. An analysis, quantitative and qualitative, of the annual consumption of wealth in the United Kingdom, showing in what the total product of commodities and services actually consists, and how and by whom it is "consumed," and, as far as concerns any parts of it, with what unsatisfactory or positively deleterious results.

2. The actual working and ascertained results of the Old Age Pensions Act, with suggestions for its improvement.

3. A survey of any village or small town in Great Britain accompanied by an estimate of its characteristic advantages and its limitations, with suggestions for improvements (a) from within, (b) from without.

4. A new Factory Bill, which should, without adopting any new principle, by appropriate technical clauses in Parliamentary form, extend and make applicable to every section of employed persons in the United Kingdom all the various protective provisions now applicable only to particular sections in the existing Factory, Workshops, Truck, Shop-Hours, Railway and Mines Regulation, Trade Boards, Merchant Shipping, and similar Acts; with a view to securing by law to every worker such a national minimum of education, sanitation and safety, leisure and rest, and subsistence as is already prescribed by law for some workers.

5. Whether—and, if so, in what manner and to what extent—the best economic use of land in Great

Britain, urban or rural, is prevented by (a) considerations of sport or pleasure, (b) restrictive covenants in leases or other condition of tenancy; (c) life interests, trusts, and other forms of limited ownership; and (d) the system of assessment and rating, and other methods of taxation.

6. Whether—and, if so, under what circumstances and to what extent—the agricultural industry, as it is or as it might be carried on in Great Britain, could afford higher wages to those engaged in it.

If suitable monographs or essays are submitted, five, or possibly more, additional prizes will be given, value £5 each. The competition will be open to all, without restriction of age, sex, nationality, residence, educational qualifications, or connection with any University or other institution. Inquiries addressed to the Secretary of the London School of Economics and Political Science, Clare Market, Kingsway, London, must enclose a stamped and directed envelope.

Hand-book of classes for Teachers.—The London County Council has issued a pamphlet ("Hand-book of Classes for Teachers") setting out the arrangements made for the session 1912-13 in connection with the various lectures and classes established by the Council for the further education of teachers. These lectures, which are free upon payment of a registration fee of one shilling, to all teachers actually engaged in teaching in the county of London, irrespective of the institutions in which they are employed, offer a wide choice of subjects, and are designed to appeal to the many and varied interests of the teaching profession. They must be of great value on the one hand to the teacher who desires to specialize in one particular form of education, and, on the other, to the teacher who wishes to keep abreast of the times and improve his general culture by learning from men of high academic standing and distinction who are recognised experts in their own particular subjects. Apart from purely pedagogical subjects, there are lectures on "The National Picture Collections," by Prof. Selwyn Image, Slade Professor of

Fine Arts in the University of Oxford; "The Application of Art to Industry," by Mr. Beckwith Spencer, of the Royal College of Art; "The Greek Drama," by Prof. Gilbert Murray, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Oxford; "Needlecraft," by Miss Margaret Swanson, of the Glasgow School of Art; "Westminster Abbey," by Mr. Francis Bond; "Historical Buildings in the City of London," by Mr. Charles Welch, lately Librarian of the Guildhall; "Animals at the Zoological Gardens," (under the direction of the Zoological Society). Comprehensive courses of lectures on modern languages, economic and social history have also been arranged. Among these may be mentioned lectures on "The British System of Local Government," by Mr. H. B. Lees-Smith, M.P.; "Laws affecting Children and Young Persons," by Mr. Arthur Page; "The Household Economics of the Hard-working Poor in London," by Mrs. Pember Reeves.

The Educational Advantages of Simplified Spelling.—Essays on the subject of "The Educational Advantages of Simplified Spelling" are invited by the Committee of the Simplified Spelling Society. A prize of fifteen guineas will be awarded to the writer of the best essay in each of the following classes: (1) teachers in schools (men), (2) teachers in Schools (women), (3) non-teachers. On the recommendation of the judges an additional prize of five guineas may be awarded in each class. The competition is open to all British subjects and to foreign members of the Society. There is no entrance fee.

(a) Essays to be written in English, and to be not more than five thousand words in length; spelling optional. (b) It is understood that the subject of the essay may be taken in its widest sense, and that no special scheme of simplification need be advocated. (c) Essays to be posted so as to be delivered to the Secretary of the S.S.S., 44, Great Russell Street, London, W.C., on or before October 1, 1912, the envelopes to be clearly marked "Essay Competition." Competitors residing outside Europe must post their essays so as to reach the Secretary on or before November 1, 1912.

The Educational Review.

There is a strong feeling in the educational world that the representative of the University in the Legislative Council ought to be a schoolmaster. This feeling is not altogether unreasonable. The schoolmaster is now too much in the background in the struggle for distinction and too much despised in spite of all the platitudes indulged in by every president at an educational gathering concerning the nobility and responsibilities of the teaching profession. His spirit is broken partly by his own poverty and partly by the repressive control exercised by the Department itself. It is a well-known fact that ninety-nine per cent. of the young men who betake to the teaching profession are men who are poor and consequently cannot afford to continue their studies beyond the Arts course, but are obliged to find employment immediately they come out of the college. They first try to get into some Government office and when they fail in that, they join the Teachers' College to get trained as teachers or find some temporary occupation in a private school with the view of joining the Teachers' College whenever they can get admission therein. In either case they can immediately earn something to meet their pressing wants either in the shape of a salary or of a stipend. When they pass out of the training colleges they find employment mostly in private schools on salaries which hardly suffice to maintain their growing families. Hence they are obliged to take up private tuition or any other work to supplement their poor salaries. Their grinding poverty, the uncertainty of

their tenure in private schools, the constant vigilance with which they have to look for a better place in some other school or college and their supplementary occupation hardly leave them the time, energy or inclination to think of anything beyond their immediate needs. Even when by force of sheer merit a man here or a man there rises to a position sufficiently high as to be above abject want he may have the ability and energy and inclination to serve the public but he is prevented, if he is a private schoolmaster, by the rules of the Grant-in-Aid Code, and if he is in Government service, by the rules for the conduct of public servants, from speaking at public meetings on public questions of the day and taking part in public movements, social or political, and thus coming to the notice of the public. He is therefore obliged to hide his light under a bushel, and the general public is ignorant of his abilities.

When the Secondary School Leaving Certificate scheme was introduced, it was hoped that the High School teacher would have his status somewhat raised by his being made to play an important part in his own school, because it led him to expect that the determining of his pupils' fitness for admission into the University would be left to a considerable extent into his own hands, and that he would thus have scope for the display of his individuality and for shaping the character of his students. The Director of Public Instruction complacently remarked thus in his latest report (1910-1911) on the results of the introduction of this scheme: "It is too early as yet to estimate fully the educational results of the new scheme; but its beneficial influence is already clearly perceptible in the

more regular attendance it has secured in schools, the greater regard shown to the teachers and the larger attention paid to his teaching by the pupils. Cramming for an all-important extraneous examination has been greatly reduced; habits of intelligent attention, carefulness and neatness of execution have been promoted; greater scope has been given to individual aptitudes and tastes and more attention is paid to physical training and drawing." (The italics are ours). But all this has turned out to be a chimera. In the admission of students into the University colleges, Principals of those colleges attach little value to the estimate formed by the High School teacher of the candidate's ability but are guided chiefly, if not entirely, by the marks obtained by the candidate at the public examination, so much so, that the new Secondary School Leaving Certificate examination has turned out, or would soon turn out, to be only another edition of the old Matriculation examination; and the High School teacher who prepares students for the former is as much bound hand and foot as he was before, and there is a tendency in his pupils to attach no importance to anything not immediately connected with the subjects in which they have a public examination. It seems a mockery, therefore, to din into the ears of the schoolmaster, every now and then that education is not "a system of mere cram under which students are filled with knowledge that is encyclopædic and momentary and the results of which can be tested by percentages and passes" and that "it is a process by which character is formed or at least moulded" and that "the work of the educationist is the noblest of all professions."

The Indian schoolmaster is thus, from the

very beginning of his career, made to feel that he is an inferior being and he has not the opportunities and the advantages which people in other walks of life have of rising to a position of influence and wealth. Even when he has risen to the very top of the service he is still an inferior being because he can never hope to rise to the level of his European colleague in service.

One would think that the Indian schoolmaster should play an important part in the affairs of the University at least. But alas, no! In this connection we would draw the attention of our readers to an article headed "The Educationist in Southern India," by Mr. P. Seshadri, in the April and August (1912) issues of this journal. Speaking of the office of Vice-Chancellor of the University Mr. Seshadri says:—

But it has always been a puzzle to us why the Vice-Chancellor, who is supposed to fulfil the duties of an executive head—presiding over a body controlling educational matters—why he should be selected from the Bench."....."It implies a statement of the principle that the most distinguished educationist of the University cannot aspire to official prestige even within the precincts of academic life.

When a vacancy occurs in the Syndicate the Indian schoolmaster is nowhere in the order of preference for the place. To quote Mr. Seshadri again:—

The few seats held by Indians in the Syndicate have mostly been assigned by such a distinguished elective body as the Senate, to persons who cannot by any stretch of the imagination be looked upon as having any special qualification for the work of educational administration, except that they were at one time or other educated within the four walls of a college affiliated to the University.... It is a reflection on the Indian element in the Senate, and it is idle to obscure it, that it should have generally turned its pitiable appeal for help

to lawyers enjoying a lucrative practice at the Bar, or to Judges on the Bench."

When a Fellow is to be elected by the registered graduates some influential outsider comes in and snatches away the prize by the exercise of an overwhelming influence, both direct and indirect, over the voters who, if left unfettered, and if they realised their responsibility, would have elected the schoolmaster. Again, the first Indian elected by the Senate to the Legislative Council was a lawyer. In pointing out that all these distinctions and offices ought properly to go to the educationists we ought not to be understood as casting any reflections on the present or past holders of those offices. All of them have been gentlemen of high qualifications and have rendered invaluable services. But what we deplore is the neglect of the teacher even in matters where he ought to stand foremost. The schoolmaster therefore rarely stands for election because he feels himself powerless in opposition to men who have achieved success in other professions. The Teachers' Guild which might have been expected to do some work for the raising of the status of the schoolmaster is not now the powerful organisation which it once promised to be. It once had on its rolls a large number of European professors and principals of schools, but is now a poor body not much in evidence. It has failed in accomplishing even the one great object which it had set before itself, namely, that of starting a pension fund for the benefit of the teachers in aided schools.

It is therefore essential for the well-being of the profession that the growing body* of its

* The Report on Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency does not give the number of schoolmasters employed throughout the Presidency.

members should have a representative in the local Legislative Council to voice forth their wants and grievances. This will go a great way towards elevating their status and raising them from the slough of despond into which they have fallen. A non-educational gentleman cannot know the real state and inner working of the schools, the disabilities under which the schoolmaster is labouring or the real wants and grievances of the Department. Sleeping or waking he must make mistakes as he has made in the past. To mention only one of many such mistakes: we do not altogether approve of the strong opposition which was set up in the local Legislative Council against the proposal of the Government to start model schools. There is room enough for all the schools that the Government may open as well as for those which private effort has established or may hereafter establish. A well-conducted Government school here and there would not kill the missionary and other private institutions. But what we would urge for is the necessity on the part of the Government to allot larger sums of money for aided secondary institutions, after the Government model schools have been started, to enable them to cope with model schools. Otherwise, the Government will not be doing justice to the aided schools. On the other hand, it would act as a powerful incentive to the private managements to make their institutions more efficient by pointing out a high standard of excellence. Those who could

But we can fairly put down the number at between forty-five and fifty thousand. The number of scholars in all institutions was 1,215,725 at the end of 1910-11. Giving 25 pupils on an average to each teacher the number of teachers would come to 48,635 exclusive of the inspecting staff.

compare the state of secondary education in Madras before and after the Government High Schools were abolished in 1886-87 will bear us out in this opinion. The high percentages of failures at the University Matriculation date from the time when this change began to have its full effect. Competition always has a stimulating and wholesome effect in every walk of life. There is a strange notion prevailing among the Indian community that a member of the Legislative Council should be one who would always oppose Government in season and out of season. We take a different view of the duties of a member. He is there to enlighten Government and not to oppose them merely for the sake of opposing. He therefore ought to have an intimate knowledge of the interests he represents. There is nothing to prevent a schoolmaster from pointing out where the Government is going wrong. Not being a lawyer he cannot aspire to a judgeship or any other plums to which lawyers alone are eligible. And as for any other office under Government a man eligible by the University would have long past the age at which he could hope to enter Government service. The other interests are sufficiently well-represented in the Council and it would be well to have a member of the teaching profession in it, especially now when important educational questions are sure to arise owing to the inauguration of the new educational policy of Government. The University is the only door through which a member of the teaching profession can ever hope to enter the Council Chamber. Even otherwise, it seems to be in the fitness of things that a member elected by that learned body consisting of a large number of professors and

others more or less interested in education should belong to the teaching profession, and we earnestly hope that that body will recognise the propriety and desirability of such a course.

Several complaints have reached us about English-teaching the number and size of the in the Higher English books prescribed Forms. for detailed and non-detailed study in the VI Forms of schools. Some Headmasters have, besides, protested against the kinds of questions set for the Matriculation and similar examinations which are such that "detailed study" is not tested at all. We daresay that examiners, too, feel that the books set are such that they cannot easily devise questions on the kinds of books prescribed. These complaints, we desire to point out, are all based on a false view-point. Books are prescribed for study by pupils and not for purposes of examination, which latter is, or rather to be, an incident, we would like to say, a negligible incident, in the school course. This false view-point impels teachers to stick to vicious methods of teaching English. The "detailed study" prescribed in the case of some books is a detailed exposition, word by word, phrase by phrase translation from the author's English into the teacher's English, accompanied by a painful search for rare figures of speech, violations of grammatical rules and precedents, and such like minutiae which delight the heart of the petrified pedagogue and the easy-going examiner. During the long dreary monologue that constitutes English teaching of the old type, it is the teacher that studies while he teaches and the pupils do nothing, except perhaps taking a few stray 'notes' in a bad hand and worse spelling. Long, difficult and

complicated sentences raise the ardour of the enthusiastic master to fever-pitch because they lend themselves to elaborate analysis, where the clauses can be picked out and arranged in series like clothes on a line.

This is as it ought not to be. The reason why English books are given to pupils to study is that they might thereby learn to speak and to write English. Translation of the language of the book by the master into his own is surely no help in this direction. It is true that vernacular books prescribed for study in schools contain stores of spiritual wisdom which have got to be delved for by laboured exposition, but English story-books, at least, are meant to be read and enjoyed by pupils and not that the teacher may ferret out the inscrutable wisdom buried in them. The proper method of dealing with these books is to induce pupils to read them, to converse with the pupils on the interesting incidents in them and to make pupils compose in English, taking matter and phraseology from them. An objection may be raised that if such a method were followed, there is no guarantee that the pupil has understood everything in the book; there may remain many passages which he has not grasped. But we reply: if so, where is the harm? Is this not the case with regard to every book and in the case of every man? After all, education is preparation for life; and we have to jog in this world, understanding a very small part of the circumstances that surround us at any moment, but having to respond to them as best we can. The case is slightly different with regard to the poetical selections required to be studied. They represent literature of a higher order. They form the means of introducing the pupils to the elements of literary

form, and of what is called 'criticism.' The analysis of poetic images, the music of verse, the noble sentiments that inspire great poems, these have to be pointed out to pupils by masters; for taste is not inborn but has to be acquired.

The modification of teaching-methods in the lines above indicated will bring school work in a line with the aim of the University in prescribing text-books for study in VI Forms. That aim is that pupils should, by the time they finish their school course, possess a fair command of English idiom, or at least, express themselves in fairly correct English and have developed the power to attack English books and make something out of them. This is an excellent ideal to place before school, but we cannot always congratulate the University on the kind of books they select for study. Ballantyne's *Coral Island*, for instance, which VI Form pupils are struggling with, is a story in the Swiss Robinson style, parts of which cannot appeal to the imagination of our boys. The scenery of coral islands, management of canoes and schooners, the work of the London Mission Society among cannibals can scarcely be appreciated by our pupils, the bulk of whom have never seen the sea and none of whom have ever heard of yarns of sailors. The snippets from *The Cloister and the Hearth* are worse still. Inns of mediæval Germany, cheese that has "passed into the bodies" of "nauseous reptiles," the conversation of the people of the middle ages in semi-Elizabethan English is scarcely fit pabulum of the Indian boy of the average age of fifteen. The said cheese which like "the honey is none the worse for passing through.....bellies" cannot be digested by most teachers of English in our secondary schools.

Professor E. A. Schäfer delivered his inaugural address as President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at Dundee, on the 4th September 1912. It is a beautifully clear statement in a literary method of a high order, not possessed by many scientific men of our day, of the concept of life as of something explicable by science. He opposes vehemently the order of ideas recently propounded by Bergson and McDougall, which hold that life is something inexplicable and its course of evolution incalculable. In opposition to this Schäfer maintains that life is a phenomenon of matter, and was a production of the evolution of matter. In proof of this he focusses in his address all recent research in the physico-chemical explanation of vital process. He cites the identity of muscular motion, however complicated it may be, with the results of the alteration in surface-tension of inorganic substances, of the phenomena of assimilation and dissimilation with those of osmosis, the similarity of growth and reproduction in living and non-living matter and reminds us that "vitalism as a working hypothesis has not had its foundations underlined, but most of its superstructure toppled over." "Setting aside, as devoid of scientific foundation, the idea of supernatural intervention in the first production of life," Schäfer traces the various stages in its evolution; from non-living matter first arose a "simple slimy collard," capable of assimilation, growth and consequently of reproduction by fission; then, the "more highly phosphorised portion of the primitive living matter was segregated, capable of catalytic function; then came the nucleus and the cell, after which the exchange of unclear sub-

stance between cells and the establishment of sexual differences. Then cell-aggregates arose, probably due "to the sub-division of a single individual without the products of its sub-division breaking loose from another." Now a cavity was formed in the interior of these aggregates of cells and differentiation of function started. Certain cells became specially sensitive to external stimuli and when these cells began to throw out fæces, the foundation was laid for the evolution of a nervous system and the long march of evolution which has culminated in man. Prof. Schäfer then explained the mechanical nature of most so-called vital processes, including death. He ended his eloquent address with the hope that, "the sunshine which science irradiates may eventually put to flight the melancholy which hovers, bat-like, over the termination of our lives, and which even the anticipation of a future happier existence has not hitherto succeeded in dispersing."

Lord Rosebery, speaking to the Universities of the Empire, said that the work of the Universities may be roughly divided into three parts—(1) the part of research; (2) the training of the higher intelligences; (3) the training of the great mass of students who are "pass men wanting their degree as a stamp of their education, or else as a means of earning their bread." Let us test the work of the Madras University by Lord Rosebery's canon. The work of research done therein is *nil*. Whatever research there is in India is done only by doctors of medicine and even this work is not done under the ægis of the University. For one thing, as Lord Rosebery says, "Every University will do as much research as it has money to undertake" and

the only unfailing source of income the Madras University can rely on is the fees paid for attempting to matriculate, or rather as it is more familiarly called the Matriculation Examination fees. The Government does give the University grants in aid of research; the endowing of research work does not appeal to the Hindu imagination so much as the rebuilding of temples or the founding of chattrams; nor are the professors of colleges so intent on research that their enthusiasm may infect rich men and induce them to help on the work or may fire young men's minds and make them devote themselves to research work. The second work of a University has just been provided for by the institution of the Honours courses in a few of our colleges. It required more than half a century for our University to discover that one of its functions was to train the higher intelligences. The third part of University work which Lord Rosebery calls 'the important part,' is provided for, but in a rather slovenly manner. This is the training of the 'pass' man, for whom exists the pass degree. But there are some members of the Senate always desperately anxious to save the B.A. degree from the indignity of being called a 'pass' degree, though it ought to be a pass degree and no more. The fact of the matter is that the present B.A. degree is really something more than a pass degree. The courses are too difficult, the rules that hedge it round too stringent to justify its being regarded as a pass degree. A pass degree should not be devised as an ideal to be striven after but must be adjusted to the average University student. The pass man ought not to be one whom the University certifies as possessing a high order of brains or a potful of learning but one in whom it has infused "character and

morals, and energy and patriotism by the tone and atmosphere" of its colleges.

Sixty-six years ago, a number of private schoolmasters met at The College of Brighton to consider how they might advance the cause of education in England and raise the status of teachers. They formed an association called the College of Preceptors. Gradually masters of public schools joined the movement and it became a union of secondary school teachers on a small scale. One of the first things they did was to institute examinations of teachers. Then it organized lectures on the science and art of education and established a library of educational works, relief funds for distressed members and also life annuities. Social meetings, too, are held at the College and by these and other ways, a healthy professional spirit, genuine *esprit de corps* has been developed among the members of the teaching profession.

The College "has a long record of useful work, and it has shown itself capable of interpreting the needs of the profession before those needs were understood by the majority of teachers. Its Royal Charter enables it to undertake any work calculated to advance the interests of the scholastic profession. Its material resources are considerable: it has a building specially designed to serve the purposes of an association of teachers, and it possesses substantial accumulated funds; its constitution is democratic; every member, man or woman, can exercise equal influence through the vote on the policy and work of the College, and is eligible for a seat on the Council. In order that it may be in a position to promote the sectional interests of teachers, the College is now engaged in organizing its

members in sections representing the several branches of the profession from which they are drawn." This ought to serve as an object-lesson to the educationist in Southern India. Judging from the money-value it gives, the world estimates the worth of the teacher at much less than that of the lawyer and the merchant. But foolish indeed would be the educationist if he took his work at this valuation. He should realize that while the work of the lawyer and the merchant is absolutely unproductive labour, it merely helps to distribute, or rather concentrate in a few hands, the wealth of the land, the teacher's work is a productive one. The teacher has developed the brains of the country and increased its real wealth and makes it possible to grow. He has raised the moral tone of life enormously. He has poured the wine of modernism and brought about the ferment which constitutes public life. All this he has done silently, without blare of trumpets. But yet, he has not learnt to estimate his work at its true valuation; he is unenthusiastic, unorganized and hence despised by his fellows. It behoves him to rise, combine and develop a true professional spirit, so that for all the noble work he is doing, he may be respected and given his legitimate position in society.

We, in Madras, are certainly far in advance of England in that the Leaving Certificate in Germany. The School pupils of our schools are not judged only from written answers to questions set by external examiners. The estimate by Headmasters of the work of pupils is entered in the School-leaving Certificates, though the public seems yet to have a sneaking fondness for the "examination marks" and distrusts the Headmaster's marks. This is because the

two sets of marks stand side by side, unrelated to each other as sand and pebble roll together on the seashore. For people yet regard the master as the criminal at the bar of the external examiner who alone can assess his work. In Germany, on the other hand, the Headmaster and his assistants are intimately associated with the grant of the Leaving Certificate. First *the master that teaches a subject sends a list of questions or problems that he has taught his pupils*. This list contains three times as many questions as are given in an examination paper. The Headmaster revises this list in consultation with the master if necessary and sends it on to the Inspector, together with a full report of the pupils' work at school. The Inspector marks one-third of the questions on each paper and sends them back. Two to five hours are given for each paper. The *master values the answers* and reports who has passed and who has failed in his paper giving in detail the grounds for his decision in each case. The masters then meet and decide who have passed the examination. The answers and the second report are then sent to the Inspector, who looks through representative parts of the candidate's work. He then meets the Headmaster and the class masters and these form the Examination Board in which each man has one vote and the Inspector a casting vote besides. The Inspector criticises the question papers and answers, especially with reference to those of other schools, looks into the exercise books of boys and finally takes a vote on each boy. The vote decides whether a pupil has passed or might be allowed to pull himself up in a subject in which he has not done well and attend a *viva voce* to retrieve his failure or has failed. The principle of this scheme is that the

master teaches, the master examines and the master decides whether the pupil has done well. The Headmaster and the Inspector are there to help the master and not to try him. Our masters will come by their rights only if they stand on their legs. Instead of demanding syllabuses from examination boards, they must get their own syllabuses accepted by them. Instead of attaching a superstitious reverence to the marks given to the pupils by an examining board, they must demand that the marks awarded by them should be accepted as the appraisal of the worth of their pupils, moderated, if need be, by the examiners. They must not let the whole scheme be wrecked by helping to revive the old dominance of examination on school work.

Professor Sayce, the renowned Assyriologist, has always maintained that the land of Eden was the plain of Babylonia, as Eden meant a plain in the primitive language of Babylonia. The Garden of Eden was what we should now call a plantation of fruit trees. In the Old Testament the Garden of Eden is said to have been watered not by rain but by a mist which rose from the ground. Milton makes a river run through Eden :

Nor changed his course, but through the shaggy hill
Passed underneath ingulfed; for God had thrown
That mountain as his garden-mould, high raised
Upon the rapid current, which, through veins
Of porous earth with kindly thirst updrawn,
Rose a fresh fountain, and with many a rill
Watered the garden.

The word for 'mist' in the Hebrew, as Professor Sayce has pointed out, was borrowed from Babylonia where it meant inundation of the sea or of the rivers. It was due to the annual inundation of the Euphrates and the Tigris that the first human civilization

was born, for the basis of Babylonian culture was the intensely fertile alluvium brought by the rivers. The Babylonians raised corn and dates, made woollen garments and exchanged them for wine, olive oil, timber and bitumen for building and waterproofing, and, above all, stone. Babylon became "a kind of ancient London, whither the world's produce converged into wholesale hands, and was retailed over vast distances by regular correspondents and branch houses." The beasts of burden were the ass and man, the camel of the Semites of the desert and the horse of the "Aryans" and "Turkis" of the steppe land not yet having been introduced. Sir William Willcocks, the great hydrographical engineer, who has now for some years, been working for the Turkish Government to revive the fertility of Babylonia by vast projects of irrigation, read a paper before the Royal Geographical Society on June 10, 1912, wherein, as a result of many years' local study, he fully supports the conclusions of Professor Sayce. He says: "I have studied on the spot the scriptures of Sumer and Accad, and see that their earliest settlements were made inside the level plain perennially under water, where well-protected dykes kept out the floods which are there never more than three feet above ground-level; and where, free from wild beasts and desert Arabs, they could build their cities and temples and cultivate their lands, which could be irrigated by free flow through openings in the dykes." Here too, "the extraordinary dry heat of the summer, by day and by night, gives a lustre to the stars, a distinctness to the constellations, and a glow to the fields of powdered stars (called here the Milky Way) which cannot be conceived by one who has not spent the whole

summer in the plains of Shinar. The sons of Sumer and Accad were the first astronomers and thinkers of the world." They also evolved writing from picture-signs, outlining on clay with a sharp point outlines of letters and ranging them in vertical columns. This later on became the cuneiform alphabet. Thus has been finally proved that the Garden of Eden, though not the birthplace of man, was yet the birthplace of man's civilization.

A writer, in the *Athenæum*, No. 4425, says,

The "trouble-some amateur" reform is met by resistance in Ireland.

"every project of practical reform is met by resistance from workers under the status quo, and by opposition on the part of troublesome amateurs." It was resolved in Ireland to abolish the "Preliminary Grade," an examination for children of 13, "to whom it had proved a great strain and possibly a damage to their future life" and substitute an enlarged system of inspection through the schools; but Mr. O'Donnell, M.P., wants the House of Commons to interfere and not only re-establish the examination but also to reduce the age from 13 to 12! Nearer home, we have gentlemen in similar position, hankering to revive the horrors of the University Matriculation examination, ever since it was laid low. Education is, unfortunately, the field of operations of the quack reformer. Every man that has gone through a school, straightway becomes an expert in educational matters and deems himself qualified to criticise and interfere with the work of the teacher who has studied child psychology as a science, watched ever so long at the actual workings of the child-mind at school, experimented on innumerable methods of developing child intelligence and feels amply rewarded if he has had the slightest glimpse into the mystery of the child-mind!

Mr. W. W. Rouse Ball gives an excellent history of the foremost mathematical school in the British Empire—the Cambridge School of Mathematics. In the course of this history, he gives an interesting description of the system which Edward John Routh, the famous Cambridge coach, followed in his teaching his pupils. In the thirty-one years from 1858—1888, he had between 600 and 700 pupils, most of whom became wranglers, 27 being senior in the Tripos and 41 Smith's prizemen. Routh gave catechetical lectures three times a week to classes of eight or ten men of approximately equal knowledge and ability. What a contrast to Madras college classes, many times larger and of assorted talents! Between any two lectures, heavy work had to be done, which included the solution of some eight or nine fairly hard examples on the subject of the lectures. Examination papers were also constantly set on Tripos-lines and these papers included book-work and riders; besides which, a weekly paper of problems was set to all pupils alike. The answers were marked in public, brief comments upon them made in class; solutions to the examples were besides circulated in manuscript. Teaching was supplemented by manuscripts in the subjects. Besides all this, the more clever of the students were given memoirs or books for analyses and commentaries, shortly before their Tripos. The course was completely gone through in the first three years and the two earlier long vacations; the last long vacation and the first term of the fourth year were devoted to a thorough revision. Of the objectionable form of cramming answers to 'likely questions' there was no trace, students being made to master even long demonstrations not likely

to be at all required in the Tripos. Nearly all the best known Cambridge mathematicians of the XIX century were trained under this system. One cannot claim it to be an ideal one but the constant, intimate, personal intercourse between master and pupil that it entailed made it an effective system. The importance of such intercourse cannot be overrated and the impossibility of the same in India on account of the irrationally great size of our classes is the reason why Indians of great natural talents pass through our colleges without becoming touched with the holy fire of inspiration. They pass their examinations and take their degrees without their souls having taken the holy sacrament.

We learn that "the United States Bureau of Education is preparing a World-Alphabet. of Education is preparing to make an enquiry with a view to ascertain the opinion of linguists and educators in the United States regarding the desirability and practicability of an international agreement on a universal alphabet to

be used in all dictionaries, language manuals, geographic works, etc., as a uniform system of indicating the pronunciation." There can be no two opinions on the urgent necessity of all civilized people adopting one alphabet. To carry authority the work of selection of letter-symbols must be left to a large international conference of delegates appointed by the various Governments. This committee may also advise about the best means of inducing all civilized countries to adopt the proposed alphabet. There can, of course, be no doubt that the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association will be chosen by such a conference, because the alphabet was chosen by phonetic experts of the leading European States. Meanwhile it is the duty of all people interested in the movement to write public articles, organize public meetings wherein to pass resolutions on the question and bring it to the notice of heads of educational departments in all countries. Those who are further interested in this question may communicate with Mr. Robert Stein, 1335, F. Street, Washington, U. S. A.

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CLEAR SPEECH AND CLEAN SPELLING.

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TO those interested in the movement for securing clear speech and clean spelling the widespread ignorance which tends to check progress on many sides is at once a source of amazement and a spur to further unremitting effort.

Is any civilized nation as ignorant as ours of the sounds employed in living speech? Has any other the same ill-founded reverence for chaotic spelling?

People who are otherwise quite educated find it a matter of the greatest difficulty to utter separately the sounds of which a word is composed; and this does not prevent them from laying down the law about the pronunciation of this or that word with great confidence. Indistinct utterance and unpleasant intonation are far more common than they should be.

Most teachers of English, who try to correct the pronunciation of their pupils, have to rely on imitation. They have not made a study of the speech of their pupils. They have a vague sense that their speech

is right and their pupil's speech wrong; but to give any clear account of the difference between the two is altogether beyond them.

This neglect of the spoken language goes back to the first years of school life, when bad habits are formed which it becomes very difficult to eradicate.

The present spelling is taught with all its redundancies and inconsistencies; occasionally it is pointed out that the presence of a redundant letter gives some suggestion of kindred words. The *b* in *doubt* is connected with *dubious*, or the *gh* in *daughter* with the German *Tochter*. The idea is imparted that wherever the spelling is irregular there is some etymological justification for it.

Now, in the first place this is not true. A great deal of our bad spelling is simply due to faulty attempts that were made to represent sounds with an inadequate alphabet, or to the misguided efforts of the half-learned to make English words more like Latin words. In the second place, there is a confusion here as to the purpose of the written language.

We write in order to communicate our thoughts. We speak for the same purpose; writing is a substitute for speech—and a substitute not altogether adequate. If we hear a poem well read we derive more pleasure from it than when we read it because the spoken language has a wealth of

meaning in the intonation which the written language does not represent. When we read, the signs on the paper suggest the spoken language, and from this point of view they are the more satisfactory the better they represent the spoken language, *i.e.*, the more regularly the signs used correspond to the sounds uttered. The perfect instrument is one that contains no superfluous parts, and that is as simple as is consistent with efficiency.

Language, spoken or written, is an instrument which we use constantly. It also can be made a subject of study. We use a sewing machine; we can also take it to pieces to see "how the wheels go round." We use a horse for riding or for the drawing of carts; we can also study its anatomy, or trace its development from a more primitive type. The use of language as an instrument is quite a different thing from the study of its history. Millions use it as an instrument who have not the time or the inclination or the requisite knowledge of other languages to study its history.

Now as an instrument the written form of the language is very bad. The redundancies are, to the man in the street, more obvious than the inconsistencies; both are trying to the learner, and entail a great expenditure of educationally worthless effort. Instead of simply learning the sounds and the equivalent signs, the child has to memorize the groups of signs that represent whole words; it has to remember *head* beside *bed*, *speak* beside *speech*, *word* beside *heard* and *absurd*, *inflection* beside *detection*, *know* beside *no*, and hundreds upon hundreds of similar difficulties. The result is that there is no clear connection in the child's mind between sounds and signs; the confusion

being rendered still worse by the misleading names of many letters.

The spelling is not more satisfactory for purposes of study. It gives a picture of the pronunciation not of the present day, but of the sixteenth century—if of any period at all.

A century from now teachers will be warning their pupils not to be misled by the spelling of the early twentieth century into believing that, for instance, the people who wrote *k* and *gh* in *knight* actually pronounced those signs. The spelling of early English was relatively good—it enables the student to ascertain the pronunciation of the language. It was not burdened like ours, by useless letters; it did not represent the same vowel sound or diphthong in a dozen different ways, and it did not suggest wrong derivations like our spelling of *sovereign* (unconnected with *reign*) or *rhyme* (not derived from the Greek) or obscure the derivation like our spelling of *sprightly* (connected with *sprite*).

If our spelling is manifestly defective, why are we so attached to it? It is entirely a matter of habit. We see common words in writing and especially in print, more often than any objects of our daily life. In consequence, we have grown very much accustomed to them, so they have become intimately associated with the idea they represent. The rose by any other name would smell as sweet; but to our eye "rose" is more attractive than *roez*. Some words have a pleasing look, and others repel, simply because they are associated with pleasant or unpleasant ideas. To change the look of a word is to break these associations; and therefore a truly simplified spelling which entails numerous changes is not attractive to the present generation. Habits—even bad habits—are dear to us.

But the coming generation would not fee-

as we do. Taught the rational spelling from childhood, their eyes would grow accustomed to the new forms of the words, and these would become closely connected with the ideas they represent, and would be invested with the same value that we give to the words in the present spelling. In this respect there would be no loss; and in other respects there would be great gain.

The teaching of reading would be bound up with the teaching of the spoken language. The training of the ear and the vocal organs would precede the training of the eye and hand. The use of the written language as an instrument would be acquired in a natural way, and far more quickly and surely than at present. The time saved could be devoted to other subjects that call for further attention in the short school of life of the vast majority of those who learn English as their mother-tongue. In our schools this would mean greater efficiency—and we cannot afford to neglect any means of keeping abreast of other nations in the advance towards a higher degree of civilisation.

This is where the gain would be greatest; but the advantages of a simplified spelling would extend beyond our shores. It would render the task of learning English far easier and more attractive to the millions of our fellow-subjects in Canada, in India, in South Africa. A sound knowledge of English is the strongest bond of union in an Empire of such vast extent as ours.

Our gain would be even more far-reaching; nothing but the spelling prevents English from becoming the recognised language of intercourse between nations. As such it would be of great practical value; and it would easily outstrip any artificial language—for

those who had learnt it for practical ends would at the same time find in it the key to a rich literature, to which no artificial language can offer anything even remotely comparable. Our writers would have an appeal to a far greater number of readers; the speaker of English would command an audience in any part of the civilised world.

Clear Speech and Clean Spelling; try to realise what it means; do not be ashamed to reconsider your opinion on the subject of Spelling Reform. Say—if you like—"I am too old to make this change," but do not account this to yourself for virtue. You may be excused for not surrendering a deeply ingrained habit; but you cannot be excused for shirking a problem of such vast importance, or for depriving the coming generations of the opportunity to acquire, in a rational way, an instrument well-fitted for the purpose of communicating thought.

Such an instrument is offered to your consideration by the Simplified Spelling Society in the scheme which it has prepared. It is not put forward as something perfect and final. In some details it can undoubtedly be improved; but this much can be claimed for it: it acquires no new characters or diacritics, it is very simple to learn, and its adoption would mean an enormous advance. You may have full particulars concerning the scheme on application to the Secretary, at 44, Great Russell Street, W.C.

ORIGINAL SOURCES OF INDIAN HISTORY AND THEIR USE IN THE CLASS-ROOM.

THE purpose of this article is twofold—to show that original sources must be used and to show also how they can be used. To effect this, an attempt must be made to consider the benefits arising from a study of history, looking at it purely from the pedagogic standpoint. Perhaps, the most important is the effect, the study of history has, in training and expanding the imagination of the pupil. The best way to do this is to inspire the young minds with zeal and enthusiasm and admiration for the great causes and heroes of history. For, only then, history ceases to be a mere chronicle of events and becomes a living drama unfolding before the students, scene after scene of human endeavour, success, and failure. In a word, the human element in history must be brought prominently forward, for them to make the most of the study of history.

Now, in order to bring the heroes of history before the pupils' minds, there are various ways. One may either make the pupils read about them at second hand; or one may make them hear the heroes or their contemporaries speak for themselves. What I mean is that the attention of the pupils may be drawn to books containing descriptions of these great men by their contemporaries and also to situations in which the heroes themselves speak. Now, the latter method is much the better one for various reasons given below.

For one thing, this first-hand acquaintance with the great men and events of history teaches the students how history is made.

For all historians have to depend only on these materials for writing their histories. Thus, the students will get to know what the sources are, which supply the materials for the construction of the history of a country. The salutary effects of such a first-hand knowledge are too apparent to be commented upon. And possibly one may even say that, at any rate, in the case of a few students, this will develop the historical instinct and make of them writers of history if opportunities arise.

Following from this, more or less directly, there is another advantage, *viz.*, that this study of original sources tends to disillusion the students of the belief—alas, only too often held—that statements which are served up to them as history in any printed book are immutable, even as the laws of gravity. Somehow, students tend to believe that there is only one word to be said about the great events and men of history, because they are only given certain statements about these and not told how those statements were arrived at. If, on the other hand, they are not only told how these statements came to be made, but also the sources from which these conclusions were drawn, they will find that there is room for difference of opinion about these things.

And, naturally when they are given the premises and asked to draw conclusions for themselves, they will develop the powers of thinking and of judging which, perhaps, are the two great qualities which any well-educated man must possess. History, when thus taught, can be used to teach the students the power of weighing evidence dispassionately and coming to correct conclusions thereon.

Perhaps, it may be thought that I am exaggerating the use of such discrimination in the study of history. It may plausibly be

argued that at any rate, in the history of western countries, there is no longer any room for difference of opinion. But one or two examples will be enough to show that even in the histories of those countries, it is still possible to use this power of judgment. If we take, for example, the character of Thomas à Becket, it is perfectly possible to hold two opposite opinions about it. On the one hand, he has been painted as a saint and a martyr who suffered for the cause of the Church and to whose life and acts no blame can attach. On the other hand, there are people who hold that he was an ambitious man, who did not scruple to use what power he had, even against the king to whom he owed his advancement in life, and that he was no better than an adventurer. Let us take again the character of Cromwell. To some, he stands for everything great and noble in Puritanic English character and he has been held up to the admiration of succeeding generations as the man who put an end to tyranny and planted firm the tree of liberty in England. But there are others who hold that while there was some good in him, Cromwell was unfit to be a constitutional ruler and shed more blood than he ought to have done, and who prefer "some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood" to Oliver Cromwell. These examples must be enough to shake the faith in the absolute truth of historical statements.

Coming nearer home, one finds innumerable examples in the history of India of a similar character. Sivaji is by some described as a "mountain rat" who was no more than a freebooter, who succeeded in subjugating a hilly portion of India and made frequent raids on the plains for plunder. But he is described by others—notably by the late

Mr. M. G. Ranade—as a great statesman and administrator, who, if he had had more opportunities and had been followed by men as able as himself, would have founded a powerful and enduring Mahratta Kingdom in Western and Central India. Or if we consider Aurangzeb, we find about him the same bewildering difference of opinion. To some he is a born despot who distrusts everybody around him and who is hopelessly intolerant and who succeeds by his distrust and intolerance in bringing the end of the Moghul Empire appreciably nearer. There are others who hold a totally different opinion about him. There are only examples which tend to show that in all history there is always room for exercising one's power of judgment.

Now, in these cases, is it well that the pupils must be made to swallow the opinion of some text-writer whom they happen to study? Or, is it not well that some attempt should be made to bring the students face to face with the materials from which conclusions are drawn and help them to form their own? No two answers can be given to this question. Therefore one may assume that a fair case has been made out for enabling students to study original sources as far as possible. Now, an attempt will be made in this paper to examine what available sources there are for the study of Indian history, what their respective values as evidence are, and how they can be used in the class-room.

The sources of information for the study of Indian history are various—literary, epigraphical, archæological, numismatic and traditional. A few words may be said about the nature and relative value of these sources and the rest of the paper will be taken up with only the best way of using literary sources in the class-room.

"Rich as have been their bequests to us in other lines, the Hindus have not transmitted to us any historical works which can be accepted as reliable for any early times. And it is almost entirely from a patient examination of the inscriptions, the start in which was made more than a century ago, that our knowledge of the ancient political history of India has been derived. And they regulate everything that we can learn from tradition, literature, coins, art, architecture, or any other source." But, as a rule, it is only incidentally, and as a purely secondary consideration, that they record valuable details of information.

For the outlines of history, some materials must have been available in the genuine early *Vamsavalis*. Besides these, there must have been from early times, a fairly extensive system of official records, dynastic archives, and chronicles. Some of these must have been utilised for writing the historical portions of the Puranas. "In the historical chapters of the Puranas, the treatment of their subject is sketchy and meagre, and the details are discrepant. We may utilise these chapters to a certain extent for general purposes, if we discriminate so as to place synchronously in different territories some of the dynasties which they exhibit as ruling successively over the same dominions. But we cannot apply them more precisely without appreciably more corroboration than has yet been obtained from epigraphic and numismatic sources." Perhaps, the *Rajatarangini* may be also mentioned as an attempt at giving historical information to us. "With these exceptions, the ancient Hindus seem to have never made any real attempt to deal with history on general lines. They have left us to gather what we can from their ordinary

literary works, into which they have occasionally introduced historical matter."

"Not with the express object of preserving history, but in order to intensify the importance of everything connected with religion, and to secure grantees in the possession of properties conveyed to them, there was gradually accumulated almost the whole of the great mass of epigraphic records. It must be added that neither are the epigraphic records at all few in number, nor are they confined to any limited divisions of the country." We are indebted to the inscriptions for the very fair knowledge of the ancient past of India from 58 B.C. to 320 A.D. and a comparatively copious knowledge of it from the latter time onwards. But, though so much has been achieved, a great deal still remains to be done even in the line of political history.

Tradition is one of the sources of Indian history, but it must be applied with extreme care and discrimination. "We may fairly use tradition to help us to interpret obscure expressions in the inscriptions, and in a general way, to explain the meaning and the bearing of those records. We may even use it to fill up gaps in the history deduced from the inscriptions, when nothing incongruous or improbable is suggested by it. But it must be clearly borne in mind that tradition can, in no way, take the place of epigraphic records.

"For more than seventy years the varied coinages of India, which extend over a period of about 2500 years, have been diligently studied by a multitude of collectors and scholars, whose labours have had a great share in the gradual recovery of the long-lost history of ancient India. For some obscure periods, indeed, our knowledge is derived almost exclusively from coins, the

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only contemporary documents now surviving. But, although much has been done, the numismatic field is so vast, and the difficulties of its thorough exploration are so great, that ample scope remains for further researches."

The archæological evidence is very valuable for Indian history. There is not only development from ruder to more refined forms of buildings, tombs and temples, but there is also an amazing variety discoverable in the various styles, which helps us to fix the ages when they must have come into existence. They are also helpful in making us understand the customs and manners of the people. This evidence, by itself, may not be very valuable, but, taken along with other pieces of evidence we have, it helps to make the history of India fuller than it will otherwise be.

Having then dealt very briefly with the other sources of Indian history we go on now to deal in detail with the literary sources of Indian history. For it will be easily conceded that the literary sources are the only ones which can be used in the class-room.

The history of ancient Indian literature naturally falls into the two main periods of the Vedic and the Sanskrit. During the Vedic age, Aryan civilization overspread the whole of Hindustan and during the Sanskrit period, Brahman culture was diffused over the Deccan. The chronology of the Vedic period is purely conjectural resting on internal evidence alone. For the Sanskrit period we have, in addition to internal evidence, a few chronological landmarks furnished by the visits of foreigners.

"The Vedic mythology is specially interesting from the point of view of religious evolution; for it represents an earlier stage of

thought than is to be met with in any other literature. In spite of the very small number of its purely secular poems, the *Rig Veda*, as a whole, contains incidental references enough to furnish material for a tolerably detailed description of the life and surroundings of the earliest Aryans in India." Historically, the *Sama Veda* is unimportant, as almost all its stanzas are derived from the *Rig Veda*. The *Yajur Veda* introduces us not only to a geographical area different from that of the *Rig Veda*, but also to a new epoch of religious and social life. The centre of Vedic civilization now lies farther eastward, in Kurukshetra where the Brahmanical religious and social system grew up and spread to the rest of India and which has an additional historical interest as the scene of the war of the *Mahabharata*. As a source for the history of civilization, the *Atharva Veda* is quite as important and interesting as the *Rig Veda* itself.

The character of post-Vedic literature differs from that of the earlier in matter, spirit, and form. Vedic literature is religious; Sanskrit literature is secular. "The *Ramayana* is, in the main the work of a single poet, homogeneous in plan and execution. The *Mahabharata*, on the other hand, is a congeries of parts, the only connection of which is the unity of the epic cycle with which they deal; its nucleus, moreover, has become so overgrown with didactic matter, that the whole wears the aspect of an encyclopædia of moral teaching."

Closely connected with the *Mahabharata* is a distinct class of epic works, didactic in character and sectarian in purpose, which is designated by the general term *Purana*. "In addition to cosmogony, the Puranas, deal with mythical descriptions of the earth, the doctrine of the cosmic ages, the exploits

of gods, saints, and heroes, accounts of the Avatars of Vishnu, and the genealogies of the solar and the lunar race of kings."

The history of *Kavyas* begins only with King Harsha's reign. In these, form is the chief thing, the matter becoming more and more a mere means for displaying tricks of style. Beside these, the Drama and Lyric Poetry flourished in Ancient India. But "Sanskrit literature does not contain a single work which deserves the name of a history, except, perhaps, the Kashmir chronicle composed by Kalhana." This opinion is, in the main, well-founded; but it does not follow from this that Sanskrit literature is absolutely useless for historical purposes, for, as will be shown later on, they are useful in making us understand the customs and manners of the people and their thoughts and feelings about this world and the one to come. And he must be a bold man who says that the study of these is unimportant even from the historian's standpoint.

One chief source of information for ancient Indian history is the observations of foreign travellers. The Greek Megasthenes who, about 300 B.C., resided for some years at the court of Pataliputra, has left a valuable though fragmentary account of India in his time. Many centuries later several Chinese pilgrims—Fa Hian (399—414 A.D.), Hiuen Tsang (630—645), and I Tsing (671—695),—paid prolonged visits to India. The records of these three travellers are extant and have all been translated into English. "Besides shedding light on the social conditions, the religious thought, and the Buddhist antiquities of India in their day, they supply some general and specific facts about Indian literature. About the close of the Sanskrit period we have the very valuable account of

India, at the time of the Muhammadan invasion by the Arabic author Alberuni, written in 1030 A.D." Besides these, we have the accounts of other foreign visitors to India like Bernier, Ralph Fitch and others.

Another not unimportant source of information is contained in Vernacular literature which is almost as useful, in regard to the periods and the places with which it deals as Sanskrit literature. But it has its limitations.

Now that a very brief survey has been taken of the nature and relative value of the various sources of Indian history and an attempt made to show the necessity of using sources in teaching Indian history to the pupils in school or at college, the rest of the paper will be devoted to the task of showing how the literary sources of Indian history are to be used in the class-room. I do not propose to deal now with the question of how to find time to do all this in the class-room. Something will be said about it towards the close of this paper.

The Vedas are by themselves too big to be utilised to any large extent in the class-room. But stories from them, which are, by the way, often very interesting, may be brought to the notice of the students so that they may learn how their ancestors lived and moved and had their being in the Vedic ages. Again certain important verses from the Vedas may be brought within their reach that they may know something of the social conditions of that age. To give but one example the story of *Nachiketas* can be told to the boys, who will learn from it the high ideal of thirst for knowledge which was held by our ancients and for which they were prepared to sacrifice everything which we consider of value.

Something has already been said about the historical value of the Indian Epics. The question as to whether the stories underlying the Epics are true or not is an entirely futile one since the value of these epics, at least from the historian's standpoint, is only in the help they afford us in understanding the condition of society in the periods with which they deal. It is rather easy to make use of these Epics in the class-room for two reasons. For one thing, we can assume some knowledge of these Epics on the part of Hindu boys at least. And, for another thing, there are good translations of these Epics available, like the late Romesh Chunder Dutt's. And, in fact, an attempt may be made, with every prospect of success, to induce the boys to read some translation of the Epics through.

Enough has been said about the *Parâṇas* already. Not all of them are of the same value for our purpose nor even the whole of any one *Purâṇa*. But there are portions of these *Purâṇas*, containing historical matter, to which the pupils' attention may be drawn with advantage.

Reference has also been made in the earlier part of the paper to the accounts by foreign observers of India. It is not possible to exaggerate the value of these sources of information. And no pains ought to be spared to bring the pupils into contact with at least one of these interesting and informing writers. And an attempt ought to be made, if possible, to get them to compare the different accounts of the different writers and explain the differences. Fortunately, all these accounts are now accessible to us through English translations.

The Sanskrit literary works have been dealt with fairly fully. But an example or

two may be given here to show what historical purpose they are intended to serve in the class-room. The *Cloud-Messenger* or *Meghadhuta* of Kalidasa is valuable as a more or less accurate account of contemporary Indian kingdoms—their customs and manners. Again, Sanskrit Dramas, like *Mudrarakshasa*, also contain valuable historical material.

Only a very brief mention can be made here of the sources of information for the study of the Mussulman period of Indian history. Among the important sources are the works of Alberuni, Ferishta, Baber, Abul Fazal, Bernier, and other Mussulman writers. They are extremely valuable as showing the inner workings and purposes of the Moghul Empire in India but they have not yet been studied with the attention they deserve. Some attempt must therefore be made to enable the pupils to learn what these writers have to say, when they are studying the Mussulman period.

Perhaps on account of the fact that most of the histories usually studied in our schools are written by Englishmen, scant justice is meted out by our students to the endeavours of other people to found an empire or small kingdoms in India. Thus it is rarely that we find in the ordinary school-boy histories justice done to the Portuguese, the French, the Mahrattas or the Sikhs. I am not saying that there are not exceptions among English writers. But men like Sir William Hunter, Malleson and Cunningham do not write for schools. Hence if we want our boys to have a fair estimate of these people, we must make them acquainted at least with these writers, if we cannot take them to the original sources. Coming nearer home, there are no full indigenous histories, so far as I know, of that great nation of the Andhraes

who were great in peace as well as in war, or of the Tamils.

I have reserved till the end the question of time requisite if all this work is to be done in the class-room. One way of getting over the difficulty is to confine the student's attention to one particular period and make him study it thoroughly after a preliminary general course of Indian history. Again, the students must be made to do the large part of this work outside the class-room. The function of the teacher can only be to direct their studies and to help them draw conclusions for themselves. Finally, source-books, such as already exist for the study of English history, must be prepared and published containing extracts from the original sources dealing with each period. Till then, the teacher must prepare them himself. All this, of course, means additional work for the teacher but it is my earnest hope that the teachers will rise equal to the occasion.

S. SATYAMURTI.

THE PLACE OF ELEMENTARY SCIENCE AND INDIAN HISTORY IN THE SCHOOL FINAL CERTIFICATE SCHEME.

IN the last issue of your valuable Review, you justly remark that there is a tendency in the pupils to attach no importance to anything not immediately connected with the subjects in which they have a public examination, and Mr. P. Ranganathan in his subject, in the same issue, "Elementary Mathematics and Its Teaching in Secondary Schools," has also very pertinently pointed out: "Thus a pupil taking up Algebra and Geometry, as his optional neglects altogether Indian History and Geography and a pupil with the

History of England as his optional, treats with utter contempt Elementary Mathematics and Elementary Science," and Mr. Ranganathan proceeds to point out how boys may be made to take a deeper interest in the subjects other than their optionals.

Let us examine to what causes, the student's lack of interest in the B group subjects, is due, and how far the methods suggested by Mr. Ranganathan are practically feasible. The first reason why this group is neglected by students is, as you rightly point out, that the pupils attach no importance to anything not immediately connected with the public examination. Although this is a little hard criticism on our students, yet it is sorrowfully true; for this, in my humble opinion, the students are not to be blamed, but the explanation must be sought for elsewhere. The very object of the School Final scheme has been frustrated, when the Government prescribed a minimum of 40% in English, at the public examination for the School Final men, who wish to appear for Government public examinations. Generally speaking, there are very few students who study merely for the sake of knowledge itself; so, most of the students who are satisfied with a mere School Final Certificate, seek employment in the Government service or elsewhere. Those who have any chance of entering the Government service have to be very careful to see that they get 40% in English at the public examination, and hence they concentrate all their attention on English and English alone, even without paying due regard to their optionals. While the optional subjects themselves are shelved aside, who cares for the B group subjects?

Let us take the case of a pupil who wishes

to take up the collegiate course; again I have to quote you here: "Principals of colleges attach little value to the estimate formed by the high school teachers, of the candidate's ability but are guided chiefly, if not entirely, by the marks obtained by the candidate at the public examination." Hence such a student has to try to get at least marks above the presidency average in English and his optional subjects. If he does not get the presidency average in English and the optionals he has no chance of entering the portals of the University. Consequently the student is more or less compelled to devote his time, attention and energy to these subjects. When we consider the heavy and elastic nature of syllabuses in the C group, especially the Science subjects, framed without due regard to Indian schools and their ability to provide for practical work in these subjects, the whimsical nature of question papers and the correction of student's answer papers, there is hardly any time for the student, and inclination on his part, to study the B group subjects. Mr. Ranganathan complains that students who have taken up Geometry and Algebra neglect the study of Indian History and Geography, and those who have taken up the History of England do not care for Elementary Science and Elementary Mathematics. If Elementary Mathematics, a subject at the public examination, itself, be neglected by students, it is hardly necessary for one to dilate on the neglect of B group subjects—not connected with the public examination—by students. The neglect of B group subjects is not confined to what is pointed out by Mr. Ranganathan. What does it matter to a student who has taken up Geometry and Algebra and Physics,

as his optional subjects, whether he studies Elementary Physiology, Botany or Zoology, or not? His aim is to take up the 1st group in the Intermediate class, which requires none of these subjects. Thus even though a student may take up Geometry and Algebra, he neglects,—he loses nothing by doing so—a part of Elementary Science and we need not speak about his neglect of Indian History and Geography. Further a student who takes up the History of England as his optional subject has not the necessity to care a twopence for Indian History and Geography. His object, if he wishes to prosecute his studies, is to seek admission in the History and Logic or the History and Vernacular section in the Intermediate class, neither of which requires any proficiency in Indian History. If he happens to be a student who discontinues his course with the School Final Certificate, he really does not care to know what the condition of India was at the time of Megasthenes' visit or when the Battle of Plassey was fought. Thus even though a student has chosen the History of England for his optional he too finds no necessity, time or inclination to devote himself to the study of the history of his own country, however interesting the teaching in that subject may be rendered. So much for the reason why this group is neglected.

Now let us examine the means suggested by Mr. Ranganathan by which boys may be made to take a deeper and abiding interest in the subjects of the B group. The first suggestion is a judicious selection of the student's optionals. Let us assume that there has been a judicious selection of optional subjects for two pupils, by Geometry and Algebra and Physics for one, and the History of England

and Vernacular for the other. We have already pointed out the neglect by such students of subjects in the B group allied to their own optionals and it is unnecessary to repeat it again. Mr. Ranganathan's next suggestion is pointing out the relative bearing of the subjects to one another. This, in my opinion however, would go only a part of the way and not the whole. We can point out only the relation between the History of England and the History of India but I think it is not possible to show any real and interesting connection between Elementary Science and the History of England or between the History of India and Elementary Science. The next suggestion is attaching as much importance to B group subjects as is attached to English and the optionals in the matter of awarding promotions. This is a question not left to the discretion of assistant masters in charge of B group subjects, but concerns the Headmasters who are mainly responsible for the award of promotions. Even here Headmasters are influenced by various considerations other than the student's proficiency in English and optionals. They too know that the two subjects tax all the energy of the students and hence cannot make up their minds not to award promotion to their boys, simply because they have not fared well in the B group subjects. Many other considerations such as reduction of strength in the VI Form of his school, his opinion that his assistants are unduly severe with their boys in awarding marks for B group subjects, weigh with the Headmaster in the award of promotions. With regard to the suggestion of Mr. Ranganathan, I believe that it does not improve the matter to such an extent as contemplated by him.

His next suggestion is to extract proper

work from pupils in these subjects. The question is how this can be done. Any amount of threatening on the part of his teacher, such as not awarding promotion and giving low marks in the subjects are of no avail, for the worst of this is the student fully knows that the school marks have no effect and are of no use to him and that his promotion is not generally affected by his getting a low percentage of marks in the B group subjects. How can he be then made to work in these subjects and how can proper work be extracted from him?

The next suggestion is good and attractive teaching. Granting that the teaching is rendered good and attractive, even then I think the situation would not in any way improve, for the teaching, whether it is interesting or not, is only within the four walls of a class-room. The student also has a corresponding obligation. Unless he himself takes pains to supplement the labours of his teacher—really the student has a good deal to do and the teacher can simply direct him—he cannot claim to have studied the subject well. Further how can a teacher interest his pupils who are determined not to show any interest? Students, like other men, are influenced by the circumstances in which they are placed. The conditions in which the student is placed according to the School Final scheme even crush any little interest he may evince towards the B group subjects, for he rightly or wrongly is under the apprehension that he would meet with failure in his English and optional subjects at the public examination, if he allows free play and scope to his interest in the B group subjects.

(To be continued.)

N. S. MANIAN.

THE USE OF COINS IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

THE recent School Leaving Certificate scheme has made the study of Indian History compulsory and has given complete freedom to every school to prepare its own syllabus. The age of cramming is dead and the age of realism has set in. Time was when history was taught by the old Pandit method and the pupils were made to repeat blindly the causes of the decline and fall of the Moghul Empire and the quarrel between Mir Kasim and the Calcutta Council or the provisions of the Regulating Act and Pitt's India Bill; and the memory was unduly exercised at the expense of the other faculties. The teacher had to play a very passive part except on occasions when he had to shout out: "That will do; Next boy, continue." It is no wonder, therefore, that every man, irrespective of his qualifications, was thought capable of handling the subject.

But now Indian history has been given a prominent place in the curriculum of studies, and specialists are employed to teach history in a realistic manner. The ushering in of the new age is the result of the earnest and enthusiastic labours of many educationists all over the civilised world. So far as this Presidency is concerned, among others, great credit should be given to Messrs. Ramanujachariar and K. V. Rangaswami Aiyengar, who, in their vacation lectures to teachers, clearly pointed out the lines on which history teaching should be based.

The result is that in many schools history is taught in a realistic manner with the help of maps, charts and pictures. But there is one other appliance which was highly recommended by the lecturers as an important aid

to the realistic teaching of the subject and which is conspicuous by its absence in many of the schools; and that is a good collection of coins that were in usage in different periods.

HOW TO MAKE A GOOD COLLECTION.

An enthusiastic teacher can find out many ways of collecting them. The pupils may be encouraged to bring such as they come across. Old coins can be had from beggars, mendicants, pilgrims, date-sellers, river-sifters, coin-dealers, and lastly from the ground, where they lie buried, especially in those places which show traces of human habitation in the past. If there are coin-collectors in the locality, the teacher may become acquainted with them and exchange duplicate coins.

These are some of the ways by which I managed to make a collection. The teacher may send for such books as Rapson's *Indian Coins*; V. A. Smith's *Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta*; Elliot's *Coins of Southern India*, if these are not already in the school library. These books contain illustrations of the coins of the different periods. With the help of these, the teacher can decipher a good many of his coins.

He may, with the help of the drawing master, enlarge those which he cannot get and which are unfit for class use.

These enlargements must be of sufficiently large size. They should be clear and distinct. In this way the teacher may prepare a good collection of pictures of the coins of the different periods for class use.

THEIR USE IN TEACHING.

The coins form one of the sources of history and many interesting facts can be taught to the pupils from them. Let us take, for example, the coin of Kaniska. If it is a large

and clear one, it may be passed round the class. Each pupil should be allowed to observe carefully both the obverse and the reverse. If no such coin is available, the picture of it should be hung in a conspicuous place in the class-room. The picture, as already stated, should be of sufficiently large size for class use. It should be clearly and distinctly drawn so that the pupils may not feel any difficulty in reading it.

Then the attention of the pupils should be directed to the following:—

The king is standing facing the left side. He has a beard. His lips are very thick. He wears a helmet, coat and trousers, and a cloak with flames rising from his shoulders. The king stands sacrificing at a fire-altar. The circular legend is in a modified Greek script and the old Persian language; PAO-NANO PAO KANH PKI KOPANO—*Shaonano-Shao, Kanishki Koshano*, (Kaniska, the Kushan king of kings.) The reverse of his later coins has an image of Buddha in the preaching attitude. From this image of Buddha the pupils may be led to infer that Kaniska was a staunch Buddhist. The king sacrificing at a fire-altar and the flames rising from his shoulders indicate that he was a fire-worshipper before he became a Buddhist. The legend 'Shaonano-Shao' or 'king of kings' shows that he was a mighty ruler of an extensive kingdom and that many kings paid him tribute. His thick lips may be the marks of his barbarous descent. The Greek script shows that his coins were modelled after the Greek ones. The pupils can be easily led to discover these facts from the coins of Kaniska. How can a teacher better illustrate that Samudra Gupta himself was a distinguished musician and that he patronised music than by showing him in the

act of playing the lyre? His wonderful campaign in the South and the celebration of his attaining the rank of paramount power by the performance of the *Aswamedha* or horse-sacrifice can be inferred from the medals which he struck to commemorate the occasion. These medals bear the figure of the sacrificial horse. As the sacrifice was against the doctrines of Buddhism, it is clear that the Emperor favoured Hinduism. It may also be incidentally pointed out that these stirring events of his reign produced an outburst of literary activity which reached its highest watermark in the works of Kalidasa, and that Samudra Gupta and his successors, especially Chandra Gupta, Vikramaditya, patronised the Sanskrit literature, for many of the Gupta coins contain Sanskrit legends written in accordance with the grammarians' rules. This is an illustration of the fact that the Gupta period was indeed a golden age of classical Sanskrit literature.

Similarly the pupils may be led to infer that there was brisk maritime intercourse with other countries during the Andhra Period, as many of the Andhra coins bear the figure of a ship with two masts. The Chera, The Chola, The Pandya and the Chalukya coins indicate that their respective device was that of a bow and an arrow, a tiger, a fish and a boar. The fact that Jehangir was a drunkard and was very fond of Nur Jehan can be learnt from his coins which depict him in the act of raising a wine-cup to his lips and which bear the effigy of Nur Jehan. Aurangzeb was an orthodox Mahomedan because his coins have no effigies but contain pious verses taken from the *Koran*. The coins of the English United East India Company has a shield on the obverse with the

number 4 on its top. This shield is divided into four compartments containing the following letters, one in each—V., E., I., C. These show that at the time when the coin was struck, four companies joined together and formed the United East India Company. The reverse has a balance showing they were purely traders. Similarly a coin of the Dutch East India Company has the letters O V C which mean that their company was called the United Ostend Company. Note that the union is closer here than in the English East India Company. The old coins of the French East India Company have on the obverse either the cock or the *Fleur-de-lis* and on the reverse either the word புதுச்சேரி or காரைக்கால். Their coins were minted either at Pondicherry or at Karikal. The Danish Indian coins are of two classes *panams* and *kas*. They bear the first letter of the name of the Danish king in whose time they were struck. Some coins bear the letter

7 with a crown and a cross over it.

[7 = Christian VII.]

These are some of the facts which can be taught to the pupils by the use of coins in the class-room. If the teacher is a 'full man' to use the Baconian language, he can teach many more. No one can deny that the facts so taught will never fail to make a lasting impression on the mind and possibly to kindle a spirit of research in the minds of the pupils.

G. RATNAM.

RELIGION AND THE YOUNG GENERATION.

IT will, I think, be readily admitted by everybody that the young generation, by which I mean especially the boys and girls who are being trained for their future life in schools and colleges at present, deserves our best attention and consideration. The future of the country will depend, to a very great extent, on what sort of men and women we make of these boys and girls. On us therefore lies the responsibility of seeing that the education that they are receiving does what it is intended to do, viz., gives a proper direction to their physical, moral and intellectual faculties and gives them some correct knowledge of the world, so far as such is available. I propose to show in the course of the present paper that religion, or what goes by that name, defeats these objects of education.

Let us take for example the Hindu religion. I have before me a Marathi pamphlet called 'Sanātana Dharma Samwāda.' It is a translation of one in English published under the auspices of the Central Hindu College, Benares, and professes to teach "the principles of Hindu religion and Hindu morality." I take this book in particular, first because it would be very difficult for me independently to say what the Hindu religion consists of, and secondly because it is one of the textbooks prescribed for examinations in religion held annually by some Association (I forget the name) which offers some prizes for successful candidates. Also it being a recent publication, it may be considered to represent the modern view of the Hindu religion.

I find on enquiry that not only are boys and girls, attending schools in Bombay (and

I believe in the mofussil also), allowed to appear for these examinations (which in my opinion would be bad enough), but that in some schools at least, pressure is brought to bear on the pupils to make them appear for them. It is the duty of parents in such cases to see what sort of education their children are getting, but if they see a possible prize, they will hardly ever say a word against it.

This book is written in the form of a catechism. Here are a few rays of the light of learning shed over these pages!

Q. 7. What is described in the Purāṇas?

A. The Purāṇas give an account of the creation of the world as also its subsequent history.

Q. 12. How does God help us to understand Him?

A. He assumes different forms and manifests Himself in varying degrees in each of them.

Q. 13. Cite instances.

A. His three principal forms are Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Shiva, whose functions are respectively to create, to maintain and to destroy.

Q. 14. What more forms has He?

A. Indra, who sends rain; Vāyu, who makes the wind blow; Agni, the god of fire, etc., etc.

Q. 35. What is a Mantra (incantation)?

A. A Mantra is a series of sounds uttered in a certain order, which enables one to obtain help or protection from a god or goddess.

Q. 43. What are the five daily 'Yajñas'?

A. Study, worship, offerings to ancestors,

setting aside some food for *ghosts* and strayed beasts, and helping the poor.

The first question and answer quoted refers to the creation of the world. It would be an insult to the intellect of any sane man in the twentieth century to be told that the Purāṇas are an authority in this matter. But the writers of the pamphlet take advantage of the undeveloped reasoning powers of boys and girls to father it upon them! Shall we then set Science at naught and accept the Purāṇas, or shall we consider them as fairy tales and accept the discoveries of modern Science? Do the writers of the book really believe it themselves? Or do they think that the best way of developing the intellectual faculties is to set before boys and girls a bundle of exploded superstitions as constituting the Hindu religion? When they read astronomy, which will they believe, the scientific account, or the imaginary account? If the former, as every sane man will allow, what respect will they have for the Hindu religion? The whole book is full of such absurdities. Science has assigned natural causes for fire, rain and wind. If religions wish to be respected, or at any rate let alone, they will in future have to confine themselves to things which Science has not yet been able to deal with.

What I have here said of one religion will apply to all known religions. Every religious book is full of statements which Science is proving to be false and which were accepted for truth when Science, as we know it to-day, practically did not exist. To teach religious books, then, is to impart not knowledge, but superstition. Whatever the interest of religion as a stage in the evolution of human ideas, its educational value is clearly *nil*.

There is a prevailing idea that morality is in some way inseparably connected with religion. But leaving tradition aside, religion can really have nothing to do with morality. Morality is nothing but a code of conventions in which the sole consideration is the convenience of society and that must necessarily vary with varying social conditions. All religions (and more especially the Hindu religion which is *sanātana*, constant) on the contrary, profess to be the same for all time. Religion and morality, therefore, are necessarily at variance.

Again, the tendency of most religions is to neglect and maltreat the body. Religion is consequently opposed to physical development.

To sum up, then, most religions oppose physical development. Religion is at variance with the changing moral codes of any society and consequently impedes moral development. It demands unquestioning faith, whereas an inquiring spirit is essential to intellectual development. It makes false assertions and so defeats the second object of education, which is to impart knowledge.

In conclusion, I believe it to be the duty of all teachers, especially those who wield some authority, not only not to teach religious books themselves, but to see, as far as possible, that no outside influences make their pupils read such books. This they owe to their country and to the pupils in their charge.

R. D. KARVE.

WALTER WILLIAM SKEAT.
Filologist and Spelling Reformer.

PROFESSOR Skeat, the famous filologist and the founder and first president of the Simplified Spelling Society, died at Cambridge on the 10th of October in his seventi-seventh year. His death is a signal loss to English scholarship. A fraction of the survivors rendered by him to the critical study of the English language and its literature would amply suffice to establish a reputation such as no scholar might expect. He gave us editions of Chaucer, Langland and Barbour which are likely long to remain the standard editions; he edited besides for learned societies, such as the Urli English and the Scottish Text Society, a number of old and mid English works, and he completed for the University of Cambridge the edition of the Anglo-Saxon Gospels which had been begun by Kemble. The success of Dr. Skeat's etymological dictionary, of which reviewed editions appeared on the other day, is a further proof of his greatness. The larger work belongs to the class of books recognized by the student as indispensable, which the 'concise etymological dictionary of the English language,' whether we regard its accuracy, the wealth of information compressed within a small space, or the clearness with which that information is set forth, is a model of convenient reference. Scarcely less well known are the two volumes on the Principles of English Etymology, eminently serviceable in their time, though now, as was inevitable, in part superseded. Prof. Skeat was founder of the Dialect Society out of which has arisen the great 'English Dialect Dictionary' and the valuable assistance given by him to the editors of the still greater 'Oxford Dictionary' is recorded in the preface of the volume after

volum ov that monyumental wurc. Wun oan oenli menshon with breef referens the nyumerus contribyushonz to English filoloji bi Dr. Skeat publisht in lurned peeriodicalz, English and foren, and the interesting and sientific monografs he haz riten on the plaisnaimz ov vairius English countiz.

Profesor Skeat woz not oenli a grait scolar, a grait contribyutor tu nolej, he woz aulso esenshali a grait edyucaitor. The claimz and needz ov the beginner and the 'jeneral reeder' wer bi him never forgotten. Witnes hiz Primerz ov English and Clasical Etimoloji, hiz scuul and colej edishonz ov Chaucer and uther Midl English rieterz, hiz 'Shakespeare's Plutarch,' hiz lectyurz, paiperz and noets, adrest tu popyular audiensiz or publisht for jeneral raather than speshalist consumshon.

It woz az edyucaitor raather than filolojist that Prof. Skeat waijd hiz long wor in the canz ov speleng-reform, tho hiz grait nolej ov the histori ov the English langwij and its orthografi enaibld him, in the moest teling and convinsing maner, tu demonstrait the reezonablnes ov reform and the falasiz and misaprehenshenz upon which objecshenz tu reform ar wun and aul baist. Scolars, ov cors, needed no such perswaizhon. Aul seerius styuedents ov English filoloji hav long been, at leest at hart, speleng-reformerz, and the plee, stil constantli hurd, that the curenth orthografi must be prezurvd 'in the interest ov etimoloji' iz wun, which the jenyuin etimolojist—if hiz temper be wel under controel-lisenz tu with a wundering and pitiing smiel. But the public, inclunding the scuulmaaster, sadli recwierd tu be edyucaited, and tu the edyucaishon ov public opinia in a mater deepli affecting the interests ov aul English-

speeing peepl, Dr. Skeat, undeturd bi the mas ov popyular ignorans and prejoodis which confrunted him, or bi the cheep ridicyul and vulgar abyues with which he woz not seldom asaild, devoeted an enerji and enthyueziazm which advaansing yeerz cood not abait.

Foer yeerz ago Prof. Skeat founded the Simplified Speling Sosiety and becaim its furst Prezident. He livd just long enuf tu see the muuvment to which he, mor than eni uther man, had given lief, begin a fresh advaans upon cleer and definit lienz, and with such suces that in the cors ov a singl yeer the realiezaishon ov the reform he persistentli advocaited, but which to the majoriti eevn ov thoez hu apruuvd seemd wel nie hopeles, haz been braut aulmoest within vyu. Thair iz stil a long and uphil flet befor the reformer, but if oenli a smaul porshon ov the maasterz spirit be vouchsaift hiz foloerz the sumit wil undoutedli be reecht and the canz be wun.

MARK HUNTER.

THE UNIVERSITY GRANTS—I.

'And the new sun rose bringing the new year'—it is in these words of the poet that one must welcome the improvements now undertaken by the University of Madras, aided by a beneficent grant from Government. Without any attempt at under-rating the invaluable work turned out by our Universities in the past, it may be ventured that the first great step towards making them true Universities is just being taken. And it is a matter for congratulation that the great impetus given to our Universities by these measures is only in satisfaction of a long-felt desire on the part of all those interested in the work of higher education in the country.

The utilisation of the non-recurring grant of four lakhs of rupees and the recurring grant of sixty-five thousand rupees is however a matter of

very serious concern, to be decided with great care and discrimination. It is hardly necessary to point out that much of the progress of the University of Madras in the next few years will depend on the wisdom shown on the present occasion in utilising the means which have been placed at its disposal.

The suggestions of the Syndicate are as follow:

<i>Non-recurring grant.</i>		Rs.
For erection of library building to accommodate the Oriental Manuscripts Library and the University Library, with lecture-rooms, etc., attached (to be supplemental to the grant of Rs. 1,50,000 from the Government of Madras)	2,00,000	
For the institution of a temporary Professorship in Indian Economics	50,000	
For the purchase of books and manuscripts for the libraries (the amount to be temporarily funded)	1,50,000	
Total	4,00,000	

<i>Recurring grants.</i>		Rs.
(1) For three University Professorships in (a) Sanskrit, (b) Tamil, (c) Telugu, each at Rs. 750 per mensem. (This amount to be utilized in part if found desirable, to provide the cost of necessary training before appointment to the Professorships).	27,000	
For six Pandits (two each for Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu at average maximum salary of Rs. 125 per mensem	9,000	
For Librarian (University and Oriental Library)	6,000	
For additional library staff, travelling expenses of Pandits, cost of printing, publication and purchase of manuscripts, incidentals, etc.	4,500	
(2) For courses of lectures of an advanced character by specialists from Europe and in India to be arranged, if possible, in conjunction with other Indian Universities	12,000	
(3) For a University Professorship in Indian History and Archaeology at a salary of Rs. 500-50-1,000—initial expenditure	6,000	
Total	64,500	

The proposals of the Syndicate with regard to the non-recurring grant embody some of the essentials of a teaching University. It is a melancholy reflection indeed that the University should have got on for more than half a century of its existence without a library of its own and the temporary expedient of locating the one recently started, in the Connemara Library could stand only for a short time. With the provision already made on behalf of a building for the library and the additional outlay of Rs. 2,00,000 now contemplated by the scheme, it may be taken that the requirements have been adequately fulfilled. Its usefulness is considerably enhanced by the intended arrangements for residential accommodation for the officers of the library, and the research students whose work will lie mainly within its walls.

The Government has generously agreed to incorporate the Oriental Manuscripts Library with the University library, thus making its facilities for instruction more varied and comprehensive. It must also be of great help for the University to receive from the Government the amount that is being spent annually upon the up-keep of the Oriental Library. There are likely to arise some inconveniences in complying with the condition imposed by the Government with regard to the Oriental Library,—that it should be kept open to the public,—but with proper regulations the evil can probably be minimised to a large extent.

To those familiar with the difficulties of acquiring a site for such purposes in Madras, it will be a matter for keen satisfaction that the *Marine Villa*, next to the University buildings will give room for the contemplated structure. In addition to the advantages of nearness to the Senate House and a central situation it enjoys the great benefit of opening on a fine prospect and standing at the head of a promenade which constitutes one of the most beautiful sights of the city. It combines in itself all the facilities for official and other business with the

seclusion and retirement for a seat of study. The University of Calcutta has just built a magnificent pile of buildings for its library helped by the munificence of the Maharaja of Darbhanga; the University of Bombay has within recent years been able to bring into existence several additions to its Senate House which bear ample testimony to the philanthropy of some of the millionaires of Western India; it is some consolation that Madras is not to be very much behind them in this respect, though we miss here the generous contributions made by private citizens as in the other two Universities.

It is convenient to deal here with some of the other details connected with the re-organisation and expansion of the University library. Such a large sum as Rs. 1,50,000 will be temporarily funded to be utilised for the purchase of books and manuscripts for the libraries. The appointment of a Committee to draw up immediately proposals for spending the amount is probably desirable. An examination of the list of books that have till now been bought for the University will reveal a large number of undesirable gaps and they must be filled up with the least possible delay. In the department of literature for instance, there are not editions of complete works of even all the important writers. It is perhaps desirable that the allotment should also include a provision for spending any small sums that may be necessary for enhancing the usefulness of the manuscripts by getting them printed, in special cases.

This disposal of a large amount from the non-recurring grant for the library necessitates the utilisation of a portion of the recurring grant for its maintenance. The responsibilities of a University librarianship do not probably meet with wide appreciation in a country where libraries on a vast scale are not known. The appointment of a person with very high University attainments, with also a practical experience in dealing with books is a necessity of the highest importance. But it is unfortunate that the Syndicate should have com-

mitted the mistake of combining in the same person the functions of a general librarian of the University with those of the Oriental librarian. In the first place the Oriental librarian has enough of work to do in his own department, for it includes even going about the country in search of rare manuscripts. But there is even a more weighty consideration which ought to show the undesirability of such a combination. The Oriental librarian is expected to come to his task with profound study in one department of knowledge to take up certain duties which are eminently technical. He will generally be found quite unfit for discharging the work of a general librarian who requires wider culture and a less technical outlook on the world of books. It is true the Library Committee will to a large extent decide the books to be purchased for the library, but the general librarian will be expected to be familiar with what is being done in various departments of the publishing world. Any attempt to combine the two offices in the same person will only end in one of two serious consequences: having at the head of the University library a profound Orientalist who will not be equal to the task of managing the practical details connected with the institution and who will not possess the acquaintance with general literature which is quite essential for his office; or having a smart, up-to-date librarian with general culture, who will have very little sympathy with the peculiar requirements of work in a Oriental library and who will not also possess the technical scholarship necessary for his work. The arrangement will be found to work as banefully as that connected with the Connemara Library where biologists with special qualifications for looking after the details of a museum have been entrusted with the management of a public library. If the selection of books displays no wisdom and if its usefulness is not appreciated very widely, there can be no doubt in attributing the blame in a large measure to this unsatisfactory arrangement.

The institution of a temporary Professorship of Indian Economics is another feature of the scheme for the utilisation of the non-recurring grant. It is a matter for congratulation that the University should have opened its eyes to the necessity for such a step at least at this late hour, in the wake of the University of Calcutta which has had its Minto Professorship of Indian Economics for the last some years. It is true there is no national political economy, but the work of assimilating the principles of Economics can be said to begin only when they are studied in relation to the peculiar material circumstances of the country. It is a lamentable fact that the Indian student of Economics should be more familiar with the economic conditions of England, France and America than with those of his own country. He will talk glibly on the trade-guilds of mediæval England, the recent developments of socialism on the Continent of Europe, and the effects of commercial trusts on industries in America, but will display a profound ignorance of the influence of caste on labour and wages in his country, the question of Excise Duties on Indian manufactures, and the problem of the Gold Standard Reserve which agitates the minds of those engaged in the study of Indian finance. Nothing could be more provoking than to see him blissfully ignorant of the currency, land-revenue systems, and incidence of taxation in his own land. In view of the great importance of the subject, it was a source of satisfaction to know in the course of the Senate's debate in Committee that it was intended to make the Professorship eventually permanent.

But there is a note of danger which must suggest itself to those who have read the part of the Minute of the Government of Madras with regard to the Professorship of Economics. There is the fear that an attempt may be made to teach Economics of a particular school, that of the Government official and the Anglo-Indian. There is probably some remote suggestion of it in the Government's reference to "the numerous fallacies

by which industrial and commercial progress is now obstructed in the country." Nothing but disaster will result on the confinement of scientific speculation and research within the limits of official authority and its regulation by its dictates. It must not be incumbent on the Professor of Economics to feel that he has even in any indirect manner to support the economic policy of Government, nor should selection for the office be made only from among those who do not hold any views adverse to the Finance Member of the Government.

The establishment of a Professor of Indian History and Archaeology is another desirable step in progress, but it is unfortunate that a leader of Indian opinion should have expressed himself against it at the Senate meeting. It was argued that the work was being done now and it was not likely that it would be done better by the appointment of a Professor. But can it be maintained for a moment that there is in our colleges anything like a comprehensive study of Indian history of an advanced nature or even a slight examination of the latest researches of the archaeologists of India? The Professorship will serve to supply a long-felt want, in a department in which the Indian race has not exhibited any considerable success in the past.

The other aspects of the scheme will be dealt with in the next article on the subject.

P. SESHADRI.

A NEW STUDY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

THERE is a melancholy interest attaching to *The History of English Literature from Beowulf to Swinburne*,* by Andrew Lang, as the last important work of a man of letters whose death is now being lamented all over the English-speaking world. If any proof

* Longmans Green & Co. 6s.

were needed of the 'large assemblage' of powers necessary for writing a successful manual of literature, one has only to turn to this book. Teachers of the history of literature in colleges will testify to the want of satisfactory manuals on the subject though several brilliant attempts have been made in the past. Mr. Lang has accomplished the remarkable task of compressing within seven hundred pages the story of a literature which is as bewildering in its variety as it is rich in historical associations.

There are some aspects of Mr. Lang's work to which we should like to draw special attention. The manual has perhaps dealt with the work of a larger number of persons than those Saintsbury's work has on its list, but is at the same time eminently readable. The author modestly disclaims any desire on his part to make it serve the purpose of a Literary Encyclopædia, but we are not sure if even the advanced student of literature would not be prepared to regard it in that light. It provides intellectual treat of another kind. The feeling is on you every moment that you are reading the work of one whose mind is rich in literary reminiscences—there cannot be a greater pleasure to the advanced student of literature than this help towards the recollection of passages stored in his mind. Mr. Lang's book thus offers quite a refreshing exercise, the value of which will be appreciated, if not by the beginner, at least by one who has entered upon higher aspects of study. The quotations and smart sayings about men of letters which have long been in our mind are put forth in the book in the most unobtrusive manner—when we are ourselves probably striving to recall the exact words. Mr. Lang has a remarkable talent for phrase-making,

and brilliant specimens may be found on even pages looked into at random. We are told, for instance, that John Stuart Mill sowed 'large handfuls of the seed of the dragon's teeth' and let us note incidentally that it is only a few lines after reminding us of Byron's satirical reference to Milman:

The poet-priest Milman
So ready to kill man.

The remarks on Dickens begin with the well-known line from Shakespeare, 'A star danced and under that was he born,' which affords such a vivid insight into the genius of the novelist. There is the most penetrating criticism presented in a short sentence as in this remark on the works of Disraeli: Everywhere there is brilliance; but substance in the way of human character and of convincing narrative is rare. The author was amusing himself and the world between the innings of a greater game.

We are however sorry to notice that Mr. Lang has occasionally been led into the violation of a proper sense of balance, in the number of pages he has assigned to individual writers. Could there be any excuse for devoting a larger number of pages to Crabbe than to Dr. Johnson? Are Browning and Burns only as important as George Chapman and Gower? And does Ben Jonson deserve greater attention than Tennyson? Such want of discrimination is likely to mislead the student who begins the study of the history of literature in his pages and is no doubt lamentable.

It is curious that Mr. Lang should have written a sentence about Elizabeth Barrett Browning's *Sonnets from the Portuguese* which implies in some measure an ignorance of the circumstances that gave rise to the title. "Her Sonnets, really original, though pub-

lished as 'From the Portuguese,' were not so popular as.....", he writes, though every student of the work of Elizabeth Browning knows the Sonnets are referred to there as emanating from 'the little Portuguese,' which was the pet appellation bestowed on her by Robert Browning in appreciation of her *Caterina to Camoens*. There must however be room for such slips in a large volume and we have no hesitation in thinking that the study under review is decidedly among the very best manuals on the subject.

P. SESHADRI.

SCIENCE AND ITS PLACE IN SCHOOL EDUCATION.*

In the course of the paper which I am going to read to you this evening I shall deal with (1) the definition of the term 'Science,' (2) the claims of Science for a place in school education, and (3) how large a place should be assigned to Science in school education.

I. Definition of the term 'Science.'

Innumerable attempts have been made at defining 'Science' even by some of the greatest scientists like Spencer and Huxley; but there is not a single definition amongst them before whose doors the charge of vagueness cannot be laid. But all the definitions are agreed upon two main ideas, viz., that Science treats of facts, and that they are arranged in a particular order—to use a scientific expression, the facts are organised, or systematised. The whole universe is the province of Science and the broad order of nature is the problem to be solved by Science. Thus the field is seen to be too wide and the problems too innumerable for an easy solution in the lifetime of one man or even

* A paper read by Mr. G. RAMAKRISHNAN, B.A., before the Science Association of the Teachers' College, Saidapet, on the 19th September 1912, with Mr. H. S. DUNCAN, M.A., Principal of the Teachers' College, Saidapet, in the chair.

several generations. So a division of labour has been found convenient by limiting the sphere of action of a Science to special problems and to suitable methods. Thus all the Sciences might be divided into two broad divisions, the abstract Sciences and the concrete Sciences. These again can be further divided into several branches—Logic and Mathematics, Sociology, Psychology, Biology, Physics and Chemistry. From this classification it should not be misunderstood that the abstract and concrete Sciences are quite independent of each other, e.g., Practical Mathematics binds together the abstract and the concrete, and so on. Again, taking the concrete Sciences, they can be divided into the Sciences that deal with organism,—Sociology, Psychology and Biology, and those that deal with inorganic phenomena,—Physics, Chemistry and their allied Sciences.

But in this paper 'Science' is used in the sense of "Nature study" which includes a part of Mathematics taught as an experimental Science, all kinds of practical work as Map-drawing, Wood-work, measurements of all kinds and some knowledge of Botany, Physiology, Physics and Chemistry. And in those places where 'Science' is used in a different sense attention is drawn to the particular sense in which it is used.

II. The place of 'Science' in school education.

The first question that arises to our minds is what are the claims of 'Science' for a place in school education? Or why should 'Science' be taught at all in schools? This question is answered thoroughly when we understand that the legitimate functions of a University are the guiding factors of school education. Here arises the question—what are the legitimate functions of a University? Speaking of University, Lord Curzon says, "A fourfold duty lies upon it:

1. To provide the best teaching over the entire field of knowledge of which its own resources and the progress of Science may admit;
2. To offer this teaching to the widest range of students;

3. To mould and shape the students not merely by the training of the intellect, but by the discipline of the spirit so that, wherever they go, they may be worthy citizens or worthy servants of the State;

4. To extend by original enquiry the frontiers of learning."

Since school education has to perform these functions in a limited sense, as was pointed above, the importance of Science teaching in school education will become apparent, if the study of 'Science' will satisfy these conditions more than any other subject. That 'Science' performs these legitimate functions of a University will be made quite clear by the following few paragraphs:—

The claims of any subject in school education are tested by 1. its educational value, 2. its importance in general culture, 3. its practical utility, and last but not least, the knowledge it imparts to the student.

1. Taking first the educational value, we shall see how far 'Science' lays its claims for a place in school education upon it. This is determined by three things:—

- (a) The kind of motive it appeals to and arouses in the student;
- (b) The kind of power it develops in him; and
- (c) The kind of discipline it teaches him.

Judged by these tests, 'Science' has a very great importance in education. (a) For 'Science' strongly appeals to the learner's instinct of curiosity, to his love of experiment, and to his love of delight in machinery. These offer him the satisfaction of the highest motive, the service of his fellowmen.

(b) Then again, the power over material things and instruments of knowledge developed by 'Science' is one of the wonders of the twentieth century. Herein is displayed the greatness of the human intellect. Even the wild and uncontrollable nature plays into the hands of the man of 'Science.' A whole volume will be filled up, if I were to enumerate instances here.

(c) The discipline offered by 'Science' to its disciples is superior to that offered by the study of any other subject; for it is the study of 'Science' that encourages an alert interest in things seen, that develops patience and exactitude in observing, verifying and recording facts of observation, that helps in the formation of a disposition to brood over new facts before reaching a judgment as to their meaning and classification, that accustoms one to face great trouble in order to get at the truth. In other words, scientific discipline develops three sterling qualities in the student, viz., truthfulness, alertness and moral courage which go to form his "character." As was quoted above from the speech of Lord Curzon on 'University,' this forms one of the chief functions of University education.

2. Again, 'Science' is an important element in general culture. For it stimulates the student's faculty of observation and inference. The study of 'Science' is quite necessary in order to enable the student to discover or reveal his or her natural bent or aptitude which depends very much upon the opportunity for trial and presence of sufficient external stimulus. For the natural aptitude of children does not generally show itself out under all circumstances. Most children have but weak aptitudes which lie buried hidden in the absence of strong external stimuli, and their special interest or ability is undeveloped. Consequently, many a boy drifts into one of the learned professions which he only helps to overcrowd, or into office work, not because he likes to take to the desk but because he has nothing else to do. To remedy this evil, therefore, it is necessary that 'Science' should be taught in schools to all students whether they are to specialise in some branch of Science or whether they choose a walk of life upon which 'Science' has no direct bearing; and it is also quite necessary to see that the course of education in 'Science' is as wide as is compatible with real work and progress so that all the powers and interests in the student may be thoroughly developed.

Again, 'Science' is an important subject in general culture in this twentieth century—a century marked by (i) the wonderful progress of scientific

discovery, (ii) the vigorous development of scientific ideas, (iii) the rapid transformation of man's ideas on most other subjects resulting from the application of scientific methods to all branches of enquiry and (iv) the great part played by scientific theories in contributing to the world's store of intellectual thoughts. The intellectual culture of the time is such that a knowledge of the conceptions with which 'Science' deals, of its methods of enquiry, and of the generalisations to which they lead, is quite indispensable to every one in order that he might not find himself a Rip-Van-Winkle in the midst of the progressive scientific world of the twentieth century. Summing up, the main purposes of school education are not only to develop a sound body and sound character, not only to equip the pupils with materials for doing some work in the world, but also to give them some power of obtaining and dealing with new knowledge. Scientific training and scientific knowledge are as important as some knowledge of history and literature for any one who wants to enter the world of thought and feeling and who is not prepared to be satisfied to be a mere "wage-earning machine" or simply to be an idle pleasure-seeker in his life.

3. Thirdly, 'Science' has its unimpeachable claims from its practical utility in life as knowledge that pays decently. Science is a handmaid to the civilised man of the twentieth century. Modern industry and commerce owe their greatness to scientific discoveries and scientific knowledge which have made them what they are. And there is not the slightest doubt which prevents us from predicting the downfall of the stupendous and wonderful progress which they show if only Science were to withhold her services to them.

4. Fourthly and lastly, like all other subjects, 'Science' imparts useful knowledge to the student. Apart from the great usefulness of scientific training to all, scientific knowledge wields an immense amount of power which, if used for good, would help the progress of humanity in general.

III. How large a place should be assigned to Science in school education?

The claims of 'Science' for a place in school

education being thus established, we have next to answer this question. To do full justice to this, I have to refer you to the three distinct stages in the mental development of the child. They are as follows:—

- (1) From his birth to about the 7th age;
- (2) from the age of 8 to the age of 14; and
- (3) from the age of 15 to the age of 21.

Corresponding to these three stages of brain-growth we should have three different stages of Science teaching. They are:—

- (1) the Nature-study stage in connection with the kindergarten for all children;
- (2) the preparatory Science stage for all pupils;
- (3) the special Science stage when a particular branch of Science is specialised by a section of the students.

N.B.—In this paper I deal with only the beginning of the special Science stage which is continued in the University course for students.

(1) The Nature-study stage embraces within its fold the whole lot of school-going children. It is there that they are taught how to use their five senses or the five 'gates of knowledge,' as they are called. It is here that they are made acquainted with things and their common properties, colour, hardness or softness, heaviness or lightness, sweetness or bitterness, and so on. This stage can be otherwise called the stage of the development of the senses of children. This is a very important stage in the mental development of the child, and great care should be taken to give free scope for all the powers and aptitudes of children. The teacher should not consider the brain of the child to be like clay in the hands of the potter; but he should be a real guide to them, directing their minds in the right channel, opening their eyes to things that should be observed, and so on.

(2) The second stage which is called the "preparatory" Science stage should also be intended for all pupils under instruction from the age of 8 to 14. This stage should be divided into two parts, the first part being the extension of the kindergarten stage of study up to the age of

12, when the pupil is in the III Form, and the second part which is the real preparatory stage.

In the first part we are simply to give the pupils an interest in observational study and to prepare them for much labour and thought to be bestowed upon future experimental details. This stage requires no well-equipped laboratory which involves an expenditure of much money and the pupils are not expected to do any amount of practical work individually or in batches. They are simply to observe all natural phenomena that are taking place around them in their houses, when they are at play, in the wide fields and plains, and in the world in which they walk about. They should not rest satisfied with simply observing natural phenomena. They should use their keen eyes, select the important points from a confused mass of observed facts and note down all that they think would be useful to them in order that they might generalise. And it is here that the teacher's help is indispensable. He should give them a clue as to how to observe things, and how to record the results of observation and he should also help them in drawing the inference. He should clearly tell his pupils what things they are to observe and what to pass by and so on.

Having done with the first part, I shall take up the second part of the preparatory Science stage. As I have already remarked, this is the real preparatory stage that leads the pupils to the next stage of specialisation in any of the branches of Science. At this stage, the pupils should be given practical work involving elementary ideas and principles of Science. They may be given exercises in measurement; they may be asked to draw simple graphs and curves; they may be taught manual work, e.g., carpentry; and practical work of various other kinds may be given them. Really much time is being wasted by the pupils in watching the work of the masters who, like all other human beings, are much more frequently mediocre than first-rate craftsmen. Here we have to face and to overcome the easily refutable argument that the old method of training and teaching has produced great men, and therefore,

there is no necessity for a thorough and revolutionary change in the kind of training. But we have to take into consideration the conditions and requirements of the present day. The oft-quoted lines of Tennyson—

"Old order changeth yielding place to new"—remind us that "humanity is progressive; change, unceasing change, is the law of progress and what fitted the conditions of life several years ago cannot be expected to fit them equally to-day." These remarks apply with full force to the present day education, and it is incumbent upon educationists and educators alike, to rise equal to the occasion and to leave no stone unturned until their educational system is in conformity with the conditions and legitimate needs of the day.

At this stage the teacher should impart to the pupils a knowledge of Elementary Science—Physics, Chemistry and Biology being the chief branches of Science taken up. Here the important point to be always borne in mind is that the *manner* is more than the *matter*, i.e., the method of teaching is more valuable than the knowledge imparted to the pupils. The teaching should be in close conformity with "heuristic" principles, thus placing a high premium on self-help and self-reliance. Here I do not overlook the dangers of the "heuristic" method, but I only emphasise on the great advantages of the method, hoping that the teacher would not go to extremes. It is because the "heuristic" method of teaching is best suitable at this stage that we have recourse to much laboratory work. Laboratory work is in some degree "heuristic," provided it is conducted along right lines. It will satisfy the independent curiosity of the pupils, and secondly it will provide an outlet for original effort. But it is quite necessary that we should not make this practical work a sham. *It is not the name that gives sweetness and fragrance to the rose.* To illustrate by an example, after a few lessons have been given to the pupils on volume, a pipette is to be graduated by them as an exercise,

If the teacher, not being satisfied with giving them a measuring jar and a beaker full of water with the ungraduated pipette, tells them that they are to make a mark on the part of the pipette above the bulb, that they should suck in water up to that mark and that they should empty the water in the graduated cylindrical jar and read the number of c. c. of water in it, no effort on the part of the pupils is necessary. The operation becomes simply mechanical. But this does not mean that supplementing by the teacher is to be eschewed out of class teaching: nor does it argue against the usefulness of textbooks in laboratory work. They are only to supplement the work of the pupil and to guide him, whenever he is not able to proceed without external help. We should bear in mind the truth of the saying, "those who are most keen to work and to discover are also keenest to talk and to read." For them information got at second-hand is not gospel truth; for they put it to test and verify its truth before they accept it. And it is the duty of the teacher to examine the inferences of his pupils and to correct the errors in their notes without any delay whatsoever. Another feature of this part of the preparatory stage is that there is no sword of Damocles hanging over the heads of the pupils in the shape of an examination to frighten them out of their wits. By this I mean that the pupils are not prepared for any public examination which puts a very high premium on the cramming power of the pupils.

(3) Having dealt with the first two stages of Science teaching, I shall now take up the third stage, *viz.*, the stage of specialisation at the end of which the pupils are to sit for examinations both in theoretical and practical course. At this stage the pupils should make a freer use of the laboratory and should turn out more of practical work. It is for this stage that all the pupils are not taken up. Only those who have a special interest in some or all branches of 'Science'

and to whom the knowledge acquired thus will be of immense benefit in their professional career are selected for specialisation in those branches of 'Science.' In the major part of this stage of study the "research" method will have to be abandoned; for in a limited space of time the pupils are to master large portions of their subject. Hence the examinations seal the fate of the "research" method. For the specialisation of some or all of the branches of 'Science' a well-equipped laboratory is indispensable. It should be under the sole management of the Science teacher or teachers who should not be unjustly overworked. By this I mean that the Science teacher has got enough work at hand to have the laboratory ready for work and to have the apparatus ready for experiment which alone would take more than an hour. Hence if work other than that of Science be allotted to the Science teachers, it should not interfere with their preparation time for the next class. And in order to avoid all difficulties the Science teacher should be given only Science work so that he may use his free time in investigations in the laboratory.

Ten years ago when many of us were students the methods and facilities for Science teaching were very poor and the system of Science education was very defective. As a consequence, some of us could not handle instruments and apparatuses with ease; nay, our old training is insufficient to stand us in good stead in the management of a well-equipped laboratory. But with the introduction of the S. S. L. C. scheme there has been a thorough re-organisation not only in the appliances for Science teaching but also in the methods of teaching Science. Although until the nineties of the last century and the first decade of this century there were very few colleges which had anything worth the name of a Science laboratory, at the present day even secondary schools situated in the four distant corners of our Presidency are going in for laboratories where provision is made for each student to

have individual work or at the utmost for a batch of three or four to work together in one table.

Thus we have seen that 'Science' plays a considerable part in school education. This is a good feature of the time which has for its basis the earnest enthusiasm and desire of the educated community who are mainly responsible for the education of the younger generation to keep pace with the great educational movement in Germany, America, France, England and other European countries. Teachers should respond to this earnest demand and should prove themselves equal to the occasion; they should exert their utmost until there is scarcely a secondary school which does not offer the students laboratory work of some sort in 'Science' and which is not in close touch with the progressive scientific world of to-day.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION BILL IN MYSORE.

STATEMENT OF OBJECTS AND REASONS.

The fine is rupees two for the first time and in repeated cases of non-compliance, the fine is ten rupees. The fine in case of employing a child not receiving education is Rs. 20.

The object of the Bill is to enable the Government to introduce into the State as an experimental measure and in select areas a cautious system of compulsory attendance in recognized schools of children between the ages of 7 and 11.

The Bill is entirely of a permissive nature and its provisions cannot be enforced in any area until the Government have declared them to apply to such an area. Satisfactory safeguards have also been provided against what might be regarded as a vexatious enforcement of its provisions. For instance, non-attendance may be excused on proof of reasonable cause for absence, as ill-health, domestic necessity, seasonal needs of agriculture, absence of a school within a distance of one mile from the residence of the boy, and so on.

THE RELIGIOUS DIFFICULTY.

The susceptibilities of parents are also recognized by providing that attendance in religious classes in schools where religious instruction is imparted shall not be enforced if they object. Government may also exempt particular classes or communities from the operation of the Regulation.

THE PENALTIES.

Light penalties (*viz.*, first a warning and then a small fine) are provided for an infraction by a parent of the provisions regarding compulsory attendance in areas to which the Regulation has been notified to apply. Employment in service of children of school-going age who are not receiving instruction in a recognized school is prohibited.

A NECESSARY MEASURE.

The Bill primarily applies to male pupils, but power is proposed to be taken to enable the Government to apply it in any area where the conditions may be suitable in respect of the attendance of girls. Also, the necessity of a measure of this kind has been specially felt in connection with the policy recently adopted by the State of encouraging elementary education by providing special grants for building school-houses and the establishment of new schools. If a school were established in a place but there is not a good attendance, there would obviously be a waste of power and money if there were no means to compel attendance in those cases in which there is no good ground for non-attendance.

The following is the full text of the Bill:—

Whereas it is expedient to make better provision for the extension of elementary education: His Highness the Maharaja is pleased to enact as follows:—

1. (1) This Regulation may be called the "Elementary Education Regulation" and shall come into operation in such areas and from such dates as may be notified by Government.

(2) It extends to the whole of Mysore.

2. In this Regulation, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context—

"Parent" includes the guardian and every person who is liable to maintain any child.

"Department of Public Instruction" means the Government of Mysore in the Education Department or the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore acting under the Government of Mysore in matters connected with public instruction in Mysore.

"Recognized School" means a school recognized by the Department of Public Instruction for the purposes of this Regulation.

"Elementary Education" means the courses in reading, writing and arithmetic and other subjects, if any, prescribed from time to time by the Department of Public Instruction for elementary schools for the purposes of this Regulation.

3. In every area to which this Regulation applies, it shall be the duty of the parent of every boy, not under 7 and not over 11 years of age, residing within such area, to cause such boy to attend a recognized school for elementary education for so many days in the year and for such time on each day of attendance as may be prescribed by the Department of Public Instruction, unless there is a reasonable excuse for the non-attendance of the boy.

4. (1) Any of the following circumstances is a reasonable excuse for non-attendance:—

(a) that there is no recognized school within a distance of one mile measured along the nearest road from the residence of the boy which the boy can attend;

(b) that the child is prevented from attending school by reason of sickness, infirmity, domestic necessity, the seasonal needs of agriculture, or other sufficient cause;

(c) that the child is receiving instruction in some other satisfactory manner; and

(d) that the child has been exempted from such attendance by proper authority.

(2) Where there is a reasonable excuse for non-attendance, a certificate of exemption may be granted by such authority and in such manner as may be prescribed by Government.

5. If, in a recognised school in any area to which this Regulation applies, religious classes are held, no boy shall be compelled to attend such classes against the wishes of his parent.

6. In any place to which a Notification under Section 1 applies, no person shall take into

employment any boy between the ages of 7 and 11 who is not receiving elementary education in a recognized school or has not obtained a certificate of exemption under Section 4.

7. For the purpose of enforcing the provisions of this Regulation and Rules framed thereunder, one or more School Committees may be appointed for each specified area with such powers and in such manner as may be prescribed.

8. A parent who, without lawful excuse, fails to send to a recognized school a child, to whom Section 3 of this Regulation applies, shall be liable on conviction before a Magistrate to a fine of Rs. 2 provided that a warning in writing shall have been served on the parent by an Attendance Committee or by an Inspecting Officer of the Education Department not lower in rank than Assistant Deputy Inspector of Schools.

9. In cases of repeated non-compliance, the parent shall, on conviction, be liable to a fine not exceeding Rs. 10.

10. Any person who knowingly employs any boy in contravention of the provisions of Section 6 shall, on conviction before a Magistrate, be liable to a fine of Rs. 20.

11. The Government may exempt particular classes or communities from the operation of this Regulation.

12. Government may, by Notification in the Gazette, extend the provisions of the Regulation and the Rules prescribed thereunder applicable to boys within any area, to girls also residing in the said area.

13. Government may, by Notification in the Gazette, make rules to provide—

(1) for the exercise of the powers of recognizing schools and courses of instruction for the purposes of this Regulation;

(2) by whom and in what manner and to what extent exemption certificates may be granted under Section 4, Sub-section (2);

(3) for the appointment of School Committees and to define their powers and duties and to regulate in what manner they shall be exercised;

(4) by what authorities and in what manner warning shall be given to parents before the launching of a prosecution before a Magistrate and

(5) generally for more efficiently carrying out the provisions of this Regulation.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Lord Pentland and Scottish Education.

At the sixty-sixth annual general meeting of the Educational Institute of Scotland held in the Synod Hall, Edinburgh, on the 21st ult., Lord Pentland gave an interesting and instructive address on "Scottish Education."

Teachers are set on a hill. The teaching profession is more than a profession. Teachers are called by the country to train lives to noble ends, to show how noble a thing life could be, and to train for them a Scotland which would be worthy of her glorious past. My thoughts have gone to those who have borne so large a part in that work, and I reflect and think how little a part is my own in all of it. I think of the great body of Scottish opinion outside Parliament which supported us in all the work that was done, of the Scottish members on both sides of the House so eager and willing to do their best for the cause of Scottish education and of the devoted and public-spirited Department, with Sir John Struthers and other men at its head who so faithfully served Scotland in the matter of education and of the valuable and constant help which was given in those days by those who represented the Educational Institute of Scotland. I remember the sympathy and the understanding and the public spirit with which they entered into all their conferences, and contributed their views to the common end which they had before them.

Legislators and administrators work by faith, not by sight. It is not given to them to see the results of their work. It is rather their duty to apply fearlessly to the circumstances of the times, principles which they know to be sound—to do right and fear not. While there are times when public opinion does rightly in endeavouring to obtain from Parliament a larger sphere in which education might be administered, there are other times when public opinion might be so to speak, self-reliant, have a rest from Parliamentary work, solve its own problems, and give fresh opportunities for the next advance which might have to be made. The Act which had been passed has been described, I think rightly, as rich in promise and possibilities—possibilities which I think are to a large extent still unexplored, and when the time comes no doubt they would make a still greater advance in the direction of education and its administration in Scotland. I wish to acknowledge their

constant kindness to me and myself in connection with their work in the cause of education. The work of education is not confined to this country. It is a link which binds men all the world over and I rejoice to feel that in the work of promoting education in this great part of the Empire you will have my constant good-will. I wish to assure you that though mountains and seas divide us my heart will always be with you in your efforts for our native land.

Commercial Education, by the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone.

In the course of his speech on the opening of the Calicut Commercial School, the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone spoke as follows:—

I cannot think there can be any doubt in anybody's mind that commercial education has a very great value. It is clear, that the boy who has received a sound commercial training is in a much better position for earning his living than he would otherwise be. And it is also quite clear that without a knowledge of even the more elementary things that are taught in this school such as account-keeping, it is impossible that you should have a very sound industrial work. Consequently those who are interested in the development of Indian industries must be equally interested in the spread of the knowledge of commercial subjects which are taught in this school. It is also well-known that industry and commerce are inseparably connected and that any development of industry is likely to lead to the development of commerce. In fact, you cannot think of one developing apart from the other and for their just progress commercial knowledge must be a *sine qua non*. Another point that occurs to me in this connection relates to the difficulty experienced in inducing Indians to join together in joint stock enterprise. There are doubtless many reasons for this. I suggest that one may be that people not being aware of the possibility of keeping complicated business matters perfectly well regulated by a proper system of accounts, may hesitate to embark money in such enterprises. And, therefore, the spread of knowledge of such comparatively simple matters as account-keeping may very likely be an important item in furthering this development of joint stock enterprise.

Simplified Spelling, by K. V. Subbiah, M.A., L.T.

A lecture on the subject of Spelling Reform was delivered by Mr. K. V. Subbiah, M.A., L.T., Lecturer in English, Presidency College, Madras, under the auspices of the Trichinopoly Assistant Masters' Association.

The English alphabet is illogical and irrational. To be logical is the nature of man; to be rational is the nature of man. The children who from the beginning are taught to study both by the eye and by the ear are punished by their masters for being rational and logical. What an inconsistency! The word *bed* has only one *e*, but when the child spells *head* as *hed*, he is told it is wrong. Therefore it is the student is rational and the language is irrational. The teacher imposes on the student a system which is irrational. The defect is in the language and not in the man. It is our duty to make the language more rational and logical in its spelling. Is it possible to make the spelling more phonetic than it is now? Many objections might be put forward. No doubt, at various times, reforms were attempted. In the French language, there was no connection between the spelling and the pronunciation. Therefore a Phonetic International Association has been started to correct all these mistakes. The rule of one symbol to represent one only sound, and one sound to be represented by only one symbol, ought to gain place in every language.

G in gem has a peculiar sound which requires a new symbol. *Farther* and *father* are pronounced alike but spelt differently. Many famous English scholars first adopted this new alphabet and found that it would create a revolution, for any reform must be slow. Sentiment played a very great part in things of this kind. Roosevelt, the late President of the United States, wanted to revolutionise the language but it is not possible even for Cæsars to impose a new law, or to make any such things; hence Roosevelt failed.

Many of the English long vowels are diphthongal in character. The letters *q*, *c* and *k* are unnecessary in the English language. Notwithstanding all these defects new methods of teaching have been invented called the Direct Method. To change the spelling of the language is not a difficult task for Indians. In the first place it is not their mother-tongue. They have to study two languages, one with a logical and rational alphabet and the other with an irrational and illogical alphabet. The University and the Government will also accept the new spelling as no marks would at any time be deducted even for bad spelling. The objections put forward can all be refuted.

Moral Education.

We take the following from an article in the *Englishman*:—"To teach religion in a Pondicherry school entails instant dismissal. But morality is taught. The first daily lesson in every class is a moral one. Duty towards God, man, parents and country is explained and examinations are passed in moral subjects. Considering the harm that has been done in this country by Government education, which has been void of religious and moral teaching," etc., etc.

We pass by the childish want of intelligence which can assure us in the same breath that no religion is taught in Pondicherry schools, but that duty towards God is taught. What we wish to do is to protest once more against the gross but common misrepresentation about the absence of moral teaching from Government schools. The most careless reference to any set of Government readers in India would show that moral lessons abound in them. But the fiction is too convenient for the lover of ready-made opinion ever to disappear.

The moral lessons are there, undoubtedly. As to how much they achieve, or how much can be achieved by any such lessons, we have always maintained an attitude of reserve. Here is something for the moral instructionist to ponder over. From a little conversation lately with some heads of business firms in Bombay we learn that one of the chief vexations of business men in Bombay is the enormous amount of petty thieving on the part of their assistants. Chemists' establishments, it appears, suffer more than any other, because their goods are portable and valuable, and their doors being open all night, the assistants cannot be effectually controlled. Now one class at least of these assistants,—those in chemists' shops,—are Christians and are under Christian influences, and have heard plenty of moral instruction against stealing. Yet the chemists of Bombay find it impossible to protect themselves against petty thefts which proceed systematically and land them in a loss of several thousand rupees a year.

The Training of Secondary Teachers in India.

The *Times'* special correspondent in India writes:—When we learn that the training institutions for teachers in India number over five hundred and their pupils over twelve thousand, we may be tempted to think that the arrangements made are numerically sufficient. As a matter of fact, they are inadequate. The number of trained teachers annually produced does not supply the needs of the country; and this is one of the chief stumbling blocks in the way of the spread of efficient education. In the last five years however, the number of students under training has increased by nearly three thousand; and each year attention is being bestowed upon this important branch of organization. The annual cost of the institutions is over £1,13,000, having been increased in the last few years by nearly £35,000.

Subject to the variations entailed by the different prevailing systems, a typical training college may generally be described as follows: It is maintained by Government and has a staff of (probably) two Europeans, aided by Indian professors—all specially selected for experience in training. The students are divided into two classes—graduates and non-graduates. The course is generally (but not always) of one year's duration. The course is theoretical including psychology, educational history, and method; but also practical—practising school being attached which, while it possesses its own staff, permits the students under training to hear demonstration lessons, occasionally take classes themselves, and observe the general principles of school management. The students live in hostels and have the advantage of organized games.

Training is not particularly popular, since in a country where the student is often already burdened with a family the entry into a profes-

sion at an early age is an important consideration, and since teaching, here as elsewhere, however noble a vocation, is apt to prove a sorry trade when compared with executive and judicial employ or with a successful career at the Bar. Hence the student requires the attraction of a fairly liberal stipend—an item which adds considerably to the expense of training. But the result is satisfactory. The difference between the trained and the untrained teacher is marked. And this result is due to two causes. First, special advantages are held out to the graduate; and there is all the difference between the material offered in the shape of a B.A. and that presented by the non-graduate even if he has passed the intermediate stage. Second, the comparatively small numbers allow of close personal supervision.

The faults of the system are that it is expensive and the existing institutions are barely able to supply the demand; that there is not sufficient distinction as to course and length of course for the graduate and for the under-graduate, and that the opportunities for specialization are small. The first fault is one that will be lessened as the way is made up and as a better tradition of teaching comes to be established. The second is not universal; and, as the outturn of the Universities increases, the time may be anticipated when it will be possible to demand a degree as a preliminary condition to entrance to a training college as indeed it is already demanded for admission to the higher classes. The third is discounted by the fact that the student has already to some extent specialized in one or more subjects during his University career, whether that has been of two or of four years; moreover, the system of specializing school teachers and "sets" presents some obvious disadvantages.

Technical Education and Indians: Extracts from the Report of the Committee of Enquiry on Technical Education.

In the course of their report, the Committee of Enquiry on Technical Education, writes as follows:—

The reasons that technically trained Indians have so far partially failed to meet the demands of employers seem to be—

(a) Certain races in India are more fitted by nature for this class of work than others. The prevalent opinion seems to be that certain races are not, on the average, naturally fitted for technical work. Their caste prejudices and necessity for religious observances are all against the possibility of successfully carrying out the necessarily rigid rules of workshop life. Though willing to work with their hands in technical institutions, they are mostly unwilling to do so when they enter the stern reality of the workshop and consider they need only supervise.

Employers state that men of certain races if they have passed any University Examination are unfitted for practical work, and consider themselves above it.

The Parsees, however, in this respect are very different, and Parsee graduates are willing to take up the humblest work to gain their practical experience in the same way the European has to do, and the Parsee graduate often turns out a first-class man.

(b) Most technical institutions up-to-date have, by force of circumstances, endeavoured to get posts for their students on leaving the institution and in most cases have thereby damned technical education in the eyes of employers.

It is the universal opinion of employers of labour in India, European and Indian, and a fact well known to the practical world at large, that a man, however carefully prepared in a technical institution, college, or University, is utterly useless to an employer of labour till he has had practical experience. He must in all cases begin at the lowest stage and work up gradually in time. The extent and diversity of this practical work depend on the grade or specialized industry aimed at.

An Objective Standard in Education, by Prof. John Adams.

Professor John Adams, of the University of London, the President of the Educational Science Section of the British Association, considered in his address the possibility of establishing an objective standard of evaluating educational results, such a standard being necessary to make good the claim of education to rank as a science.

He made no claim that education had yet justified her demand to be recognized as a fully developed science; but it might be fairly maintained that she had at least entered upon the stage of scientific method; she was seeking to free herself from mere empiricism. In such a struggle there were at least two possible lines of action. The first required some ingenuity, but was natural and pleasant. It consisted in super-imposing principles upon the facts of the case. The other method was by dealing with observed results so as to reach the underlying principles. Obviously that at once introduced the experimental method, since no satisfactory progress could be made by mere passive observation. This was the stage now reached in educational theory. They were passing from an appeal to experience to an appeal to experiment. The first step in raising a study to the scientific level was the establishment of a standard in the evaluating of results. In the study of education in the past—and it must be admitted that the same was true to a large extent at the present—the standard adopted was in most cases a subjective one. There was a tendency to have everything determined by individual opinion. They had need of some standard that was independent of private opinion.

The hope of the evolution of education as a science lay in the proper manipulation of the method of experiment. At the present stage of advancement there was quite a respectable collection of recognized facts in connection with teaching and education, and these were in process of organization. They would soon have such a volume of well-arranged knowledge as would meet the first requirement for recognition as a science. But, while organization was imperatively needed and must go on, there was an equally urgent need for new knowledge. There could be no more useful subject of inquiry suggested than an investigation into the questions that were most urgently demanding answers at this time among the practical educators of the country. To discover and classify these, and then to correlate them with the various investi-

gations that were being made throughout the world, would be to render a very practical service to the study of education. Education ranked with a group of studies that dealt with humanity in its various aspects. Psychology naturally was the science that underlay them all, since it was the abstract study of human nature which was their raw material. But politics, economics, sociology and eugenics all claimed to be sciences, and if they probed into their standards they found that they were largely statistical. It was quite possible by careful investigation among the subject-matter of these sciences to organize a system of general principles based upon averages obtained from a very wide field of investigation. These principles were of very general application, though they might not enable them to prophesy in individual cases. This, indeed, was at the root of a great deal of the criticism levelled at the claims of education to rank as a science. A parent or an education authority presented a boy to an educator and called for a prophecy. The educator must decline, since he could not honestly prophesy in an individual case, though he might be prepared to venture on a reasoned statement of what was likely to occur in the boy's educational career. They must distinguish in practice between the average and the type. To consider a class as made up of types tended to break up the class feeling and make the master think of his pupils as a mere group of separate individuals. The older psychologists treated their subject as limited to the study of the mature human individual. The introduction of the idea of development led to the founding of genetic psychology, with its consideration of the individual at his various states. A further advance was marked by the appearance of collective psychology which carried the study of the individual into his relations with other individuals. Naturally both changes were of the greatest advantage to education. This collective psychology was at present in its infancy. But while they owed much to the French psychologists, with their dazzling exposition, they were glad to turn to the more solid McDougall for the best scientific basis available for a sound collective psychology. The material he had supplied was waiting to be worked up from the educational side. His statement of the relation between the instincts and the emotions and his manipulation of Mr. Shand's theory of the sentiments provided tempting material for the establishment of an objective standard in connection with the training of the individual character and the inter-action of individual characters in groups.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

University Lectures.

It is notified, with reference to the University lectures under Regulation 394 sanctioned by the Senate for the academic year 1912-13, that the course of 20 lectures on "The History of English Sounds from the end of the Middle-English period to the present day" to be delivered by Mr. Mark Hunter, M.A., and the course of 30 lectures (with 20 hours' practical) on "Introduction to Animal Embryology" to be delivered by Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, M.A., will be delivered at the Presidency College during the second term of the year. The days and hours for the delivery of each lecture of the former course will be Tuesdays, 3 to 4 P.M., and Thursdays 2 to 3 P.M. and those of the latter course will be Tuesdays 11 A.M. to 1 P.M. and 2 to 3 P.M. and Fridays 2 to 4 P.M. The lectures will be open to any student who is taking an Honours Course in any college affiliated to the University, on the recommendation of his college authorities. No fee will be charged for attending the course of lectures, but a student shall not attend the course till he has paid the usual fee to his college for the term. The lectures will also be open to graduates of the University who wish to engage in post-graduate study and research on payment to the University of Rs. 50 per course per term and with the sanction of the lecturer appointed. Post-graduate students who are members of a college will not be required to pay this fee.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

Attendance of College Lectures.

At a meeting of the Senate of the Bombay University held recently, Mr. Justice Heaton, Vice-Chancellor, presiding, it was decided to do away with the attendance of College lectures or post-graduate course for candidates going up for the degree of Doctor of Medicine in Sanitary Science provided they had an experience as Health Officer in a town containing population of one lakh. After two hours' debate the Senate accepted the recommendations of the Syndicate with regard to the Government of India grants. All the amendments except one were either withdrawn or rejected, the exception being one moved by the Director of Public Instruction which had for its object disassociation with the Syndicate recommendation regarding the suggested grant to the Royal Science Institute. The Syndicate could not see their way to recommend the grant of half a lakh which Government suggested the

University might make and Mr. Prior's amendment which was accepted has the effect of leaving the matter over for further consideration.

The Bombay University Syndicate: The disposal of recurring grant.

An interesting report has been prepared by a Committee of the Bombay University Syndicate regarding the disposal of the recurring grant of Rs. 50,000 given by Government. The Committee discussed the prospect of future work of the University, referring for instance, to the approaching desirability to establish lectureships on subjects connected with commerce and architecture and branches of oriental study, such as Sanskrit, Zend, Pahlavi and Indian archaeology. They remark that it is necessary also to create a research fund from which the University might give help to those who are engaged in research work but cannot carry it on without assistance. The most important part of the scheme is the re-organisation of the University library which is declared now to be practically useless as an aid to higher studies now under consideration. It requires enlargement with an increased annual allotment for purchase and a trained librarian is needed for which purpose the Committee recommend sending a young man to Europe or America for special training. The Committee summarise other recommendations regarding the recurring grant as follows:—The cost of bringing out annually a lecturer or lecturers on some of the post graduate courses with or without co-operation with other Indian Universities, to organise intercollegiate lectures and to engage an expert adviser for one year at a cost of Rs. 20,000. The Committee recommend the allotment of half a lakh of rupees as the initial cost of refitting the library.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Mr. T. Palit's Gift.

Mr. T. Palit, the well-known Calcutta Barrister, who made a gift last June of seven lakhs of rupees to the Calcutta University for the founding of a College of Science, executed another deed of gift of a similar amount for the same purpose on the 8th inst. Details of the plans for the College have not yet been decided upon.

Post-graduate Studies.

At a recent meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University, the Vice-Chancellor, Sir Ashutosh Mukherji, gave some interesting figures relating to the progress of post graduate studies in that University. In Pure Mathematics, they had in the fifth year class more than 90 students, in

History nearly 80, in English more than 60, and in each of the two subjects, Economics and Mental and Moral Philosophy, more than 50. The total number of students registered for the fifth year classes was 350, while in the sixth year classes they had an aggregate of nearly 200. The number of students thus directly receiving instruction in post-graduate studies in the Arts Faculty is, thus, 550. They had in addition more than twice as many in the University Law College. Thus, between the two faculties the University was responsible directly for the instruction of more than 1,700 students. "I venture to express the hope," concluded the Vice-Chancellor, "that the University may now rightly be called a teaching University."

University Lectures.

The Senate of the Calcutta University has resolved to apply for sanction to appoint the Rev. S. Yamakami as University Reader to deliver a course of lectures on "Ancient India, as depicted in the writings of Chinese Pilgrims."

University Grants.

The University of Calcutta is the recipient of three different grants this year from the Government of India, first of Rs. one lakh and sixty thousand which is temporary recurring grant for five years, this being the last year so far as the existing sanction is concerned. It is likely that this grant will be continued for a further term, but as the matter is still under consideration, it would be premature to make any announcements definitely now. The amount for the current year to be spent is as follows:—One lakh is set apart for grants to non-Government Colleges in Western Bengal, Behar and Orissa. There being a separate grant for Eastern Bengal and Assam, non-Government Colleges in those parts will not be entitled to participate in the present scheme. Rupees 10,000 will be given to messes for students of non-Government Colleges in Calcutta, Rs. 25,000 for inspection of Colleges, Rs. 5,000 for travelling expenses of Fellows. Rs. 20,000 for the University Law College. The second is the capital grant of Rs. four lakhs non-recurrent, the University scheme for the expenditure of which is detailed under:—Three lakhs are set apart for University building to serve as (1) Hostel for students of University Law College, (2) Halls for University examinations and lectures. The land on which the building is to be erected was acquired by the University last year for one lakh-and-a-half out of its own surplus funds. Construction of the building has already been taken in hand and half of it has been

erected. The remaining one lakh will be spent for purchase of books for University Library and for furniture and appliances in connection therewith. The third is the recurring grant of Rs. sixty-five thousand yearly. This sum for the present year will be spent as follows: (1) King George Professorship of Philosophy—Rs. 12,000; (2) Hardinge Professorship of Mathematics—Rs. 12,000; (3) Maintenance of University Law College—Rs. 10,000; (4) Maintenance of Tarak Nath Palit (T. Palit) Laboratory for Physics and Chemistry—Rs. 12,000; (5) Salary of University lecturers for M. A. teaching—Rs. 15,000, and (6) and (7) Two University Readers on subjects to be selected by the University, Rs. 2,000 each—Rs. 4,000. Besides, the Government of India has sanctioned a chair of Ancient Indian History by the University, the salary of the Professor being met by the University out of its own funds.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

University Lectures.

Mahamahopadhyaya Ganga Nath Jha, M.A., Professor of Sanskrit, Muir Central College, Allahabad, who had been selected by the Syndicate of the Allahabad University for the 'Sadho Lal Readership' delivered his remaining series of lectures on the 'Nyaya System of Philosophy' in the Sanskrit lecture room of the Muir Central College, Allahabad, on the following dates:—Wednesday, October 2nd, 3.30 P.M., Thursday, October 3rd, 3.30 P.M. Friday, October 4th, 3.30 P.M.

University Building Fund.

The Allahabad University Building Fund now amounts to Rs. 8,66,205-13-10. Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Charan Das has contributed Rs. 5000. The contribution to the University from the Government of India grant and the interest on the invested fund amount to Rs. 2,70,929-13-10.

Reviews and Notices.

BOOKS ON GEOGRAPHY:

1. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY FOR SCHOOLS, BY BERNARD SMITH, M.A., F.G.S. (A. & C. BLACK.) 3s. 6d.
2. A CLASS BOOK OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, BY SIMMONS AND STENHOUSE. (MACMILLAN & CO.) 4s. 6d.
3. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY (TELUGU), BY M. SITHARAMA ROW, B.A., L.T. Re. 1-8-0.

Mr. Bernard Smith's book is a very valuable contribution to the science of Physical Geography.

It is divided into six parts dealing respectively with (1) The Earth and its Parts (2) The Atmosphere, (3) The Land, (4) The Sculpture of the Land, (5) The Waters, (6) The Building of Britain. Thus the whole scope of the subject has been dealt with satisfactorily within a short compass. We note with satisfaction that subjects which belong more to the realm of Astronomy and Geology have been considerably curtailed, thus allowing more space for the description of the more striking physical processes observable on the face of the earth. The chapter on the Destruction of the Land is particularly interesting. The author has in simple and popular language explained in this chapter the influences of *weathering* or breaking up piece-meal of the general surface of the land, of *transportation*, the carrying away of the weathered material, and of *corrosion*, the filing away of rocks, river and glacier beds during transportation of rock waste. In the chapter on Physical History, the connection between rock-structure and the historical development of physical features of Britain are pointed out. There is a separate chapter devoted to the question of environment—the inter-action between man and Nature. In this connection it is explained why it is that that Anglo-Indian who has inured himself to the heat of India finds the changeable climate of England a sore trial. The book is profusely illustrated and contains a very large number of maps and diagrams. We feel that every teacher of Geography will find a thorough study of the book highly profitable.

Both Messrs. Simmons and Stenhouse are experts in General Science and they have written the Class-Book of Physical Geography with thoroughness and method. A proper study of the book will furnish an excellent training in scientific method and will fit the younger minds to look at new facts relating to new areas with intelligence and profit. The most striking feature of their treatment is that it is more those aspects of the earth which determine or influence the life of man that are fully explained. If the contributory sciences of Astronomy, Geology, Meteorology and Physics are introduced it is only to that extent as is necessary to make clear some of the more obvious ways in which human life is affected by natural phenomena. Each section of the book begins with a set of practical exercises and these exercises are so framed as to lead each student to become—within the limits of the course of study—an independent observer able to reason intelligently on the facts he encounters. Following the exercises is the descriptive text which provides a means of checking the results obtained and the conclusions

arrived at by the student. The chief educational value of the book is in the practical work for which there is provided abundant scope. The book has a large number of maps which evidently were specially prepared to elucidate general principles rather than geographical details. The illustrations are many and we find a large number of them are new. We have great pleasure to bring to the notice of the schoolmasters in India, this perfect treasury of useful information.

Mr. Sitharama Row's book is the second maiden attempt to present the elements of Physical Geography to the Telugu reading public and we are pleased that it adequately supplies a long-felt want. It is no easy task to write a popular book on scientific subjects in vernacular languages. At almost every stage the author encounters with difficulties which oftentimes dishearten him and Mr. Sitharama Row deserves to be congratulated on the success of his maiden attempt. We must not fail to mention that the book is capable of great improvement. The paras on Monsoons are particularly disappointing. No attempt has been made to create a "human interest" in the subject by a reference to influences on man and other living creatures of geographical phenomena. The illustrations in the book are, though accurate, badly executed and we trust these defects will be removed in the subsequent editions.

1. REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY—THE WORLD, BY J. B. REYNOLDS. (A. & C. BLACK.) 3s. 6d.

2. FIRST BOOK OF SCIENCE—GENERAL GEOGRAPHY, BY B. C. WALLIS, B. SC., F.R.G.S. (MACMILLAN & CO.) 1s. 6d.

3. PICTURE GEOGRAPHY (పాపిక్ల భౌగోళము) BY M. SITHARAMA ROW, B.A., L.T. 4 As.

Reynolds' books are well-known and this particular volume before us is a specially attractive one in several respects. The subject is treated in an interesting fashion and with due regard to humanistic element. Throughout there is an attempt to get back to principles and to teach reasons rather than facts. The method adopted in the treatment of each continent is regional and at the end of each continent there are chapters in which the distribution of geographical phenomena over the whole area are summarized and generalizations are formulated. The most redeeming feature of the book is that throughout 'the book stress has been laid on the main differences in structure, relief and climate which determine the regional divisions and on the influences of those physical facts on the scenery of countries and the life of the inhabitants. There are appended

a number of statistical tables for purposes of reference and they form the basis of many interesting geographical questions. The diagrams, maps and illustrations in the book are still too rare in ordinary school text-books. We commend this valuable book to the attention of our High School teachers and we have no hesitation that it will be soon popular as a text-book on Geography in the higher forms of our Secondary schools.

The General Geography, by Mr. Wallis, is an admirable introduction to the methods and principles of Geography, provocative of ideas and suggestive of outlook. The book is intended for junior pupils and with some amount of repetition which will serve a useful purpose as revision, the world is reviewed twice from different points of view. The first three chapters are devoted to the explanation of the terms, pictures and maps, to the different kinds of maps and to maps and relief. Chapters IV to X are devoted to a description of the world divided according to natural regions and Chapters XI to XVII to the description of the geographical features of the different continents. Each chapter begins with simple hints and suggestions for practical work and ends with a set of exercises which are graded and some of these are amusing as well as instructive. More names are put in the body of the text than is desirable in a book for children but the author evidently seems to have done so with the view to connect the text and the maps. The book is full of maps and illustrations. It has several special features and will do exceedingly well as a text-book in the III or IV Forms of our Secondary Schools.

Mr. Sitharama Row's Picture Geography in Telugu is intended for Elementary schools. It contains a number of illustrations and the author has successfully attempted to explain them to children in simple language. The suggestions in Archer's *Teaching of Geography in Elementary Schools* seem to have suggested the plan of the book to the author and the book would have been exceedingly valuable if the suggestions in Chapter VI of this book which treats of the work of the first standards, were followed with such variations as are needed by Indian conditions. We are however glad that the human aspect of the subject—the only thing which will interest children—has been borne in mind throughout.

AN INTRODUCTION TO GEOMETRY, BY E. O. TAYLOR (CLARENDON PRESS). 1s. 6d.

Of the very many books that have recently appeared on Experimental Geometry as an intro-

duction to Formal Geometry, none is in our opinion more satisfactory than this. It closely follows the instructions issued by the Board of Education (England) in its Circular No. 711. It provides exercises in the construction of simple solids with cardboard and in sketching these solids in simple positions and also other exercises are of a practical kind so as to make the subject interesting and to enable the students to gain familiarity with and to have a clear conception of the fundamental geometrical ideas. The book can be very well recommended to be used as a text-book on Experimental Geometry for the lower forms of our Secondary Schools. The get-up is neat and the diagrams are attractive.

GEOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS, BY BORCHARDT AND PERROTT. (BELL & SONS). VOLS. I--IV. 3s. 6d.

The market is now flooded with books on Geometry for use in schools and we are sorry that we cannot find a justification for the advent of this book in the field. There is nothing new or striking in it. The first volume, though it pretends to contain the substance of Stages I & II suggested by Circular No. 711 of the Board of Education is too short and provides too few exercises for the purpose. The other volumes are more or less on Euclidean lines with some elasticity of course. There is very little of correlation with Algebra except in the section on areas. One good feature of the book is the inclusion of some field-book exercises on areas.

ROMANCE OF THE WORLD—II AUSTRALIA'S STORY: IN SEARCH OF THE SOUTHLAND; ACROSS THE ISLAND CONTINENT. (FROWDE AND HODDER AND STOUGHTON.) 1s.

We feel we ought to have noticed somewhat earlier, the two attractive little volumes, entitled Australia's Story in the 'Romance of the World' Series edited by Herbert Strang. These volumes are a marvel of cheapness considering the beautiful get-up and the coloured illustrations they contain. What is more important than all these is the superior quality of the contents, which are judicious extracts from standard works on the subject.

"The History of the Discovery and Exploration of Australia," "The History of Maritime and Inland Discovery," "Australia" by Pridden, and "South Australia" by Forster are chief among

the books laid under contribution in the preparation of the volume entitled, "In Search of the Southland." The volume, entitled "Across the Island Continent," contains several chapters of thrilling interest and romantic incidents. Most of the reliable accounts of early voyages and travels are fairly well represented here in this excellent little volume. The two books form a precious addition to our geographical literature, while they are not also without their historical interest. The pictures of savages, their appearance, customs, habits and modes of life, the description of the different rivers, mountains, etc., the topography of the inland countries, all these are so realistic that "they seem to be like sketches done in pen and ink, sharp, clear and distinct, but by no means flattering or rose-coloured." We heartily commend these two volumes to all earnest students of modern History and Geography.

DIACONUS EXERCISES IN THE MEANING OF ENGLISH, BY GEORGE G. LOANE, M.A. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 3s. 6d.

The book consists of a series of exercises in paraphrase and composition of very great value. Numerous extracts of poetry have been included in the volume and under each are found questions which are as striking in their variety as in their usefulness. From the examination of the significance of individual words, to the perception of artistic qualities in the passages as a whole or the tracing of the mythological and literary associations, there is hardly an aspect which has not appealed to the editor. The student is not only asked to comment on words in particular uses, but also explain why poets for instance speak of 'the thread of life,' and in what ancient anecdote the idea of 'cutting the knot' plays an important part. We have no doubt that these exercises imply a wider range of educational experience than those in the usual books we have for the purpose. The author says that the eighteenth century supplies the bulk of the pieces and some of the so-called metaphysical poets of the seventeenth century have been drawn upon. We do not however see any special virtue in this preference for a class of poetry which is certainly not distinguished by any great merit. It must be of greater use to adhere more to passages of real worth.

PROGRESSIVE ENGLISH COMPOSITION, BY P. WREN, M.A. (K. & J. COOPER, BOMBAY.) Rs. 1-2-0.

Mr. Wren has been able to bring together an amount of very valuable material for the teaching of composition to elementary classes. Proceeding from the simple operations of engaging oneself in ordinary conversation, or the narration of a brief story, the author takes the student to written composition of the higher type. The book is of special value to Indian students as it is written mainly for those who desire to learn English as a foreign language.

THE LOTUS-BOOK OF ENGLISH VERSE, BY P. WREN, M.A. (K. & J. COOPER.) 12 As.

The selection of pieces of English poetry for the use of Indian boys has always been felt a source of great difficulty by teachers of English in this country. Pieces which possess the double virtue of simplicity and the capacity to appeal to children of a foreign nation are not many in any language and it requires no small labour to make a collection which could give satisfaction at least to the extent to which Mr. Wren's book gives. The oriental flavour of some of the poems is a special qualification for the purpose.

THE INDIAN TREASURY OF ENGLISH VERSE, BY S. G. DUNN. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS.) 1 Re.

This is a small collection of English poems intended for the beginner in literature, with Introduction and Notes. A successful attempt has been made to present poems which have the least difficulty for the student, in matter as well as manner, and the book must therefore prove an admirable text-book for the elementary classes. But the title is a misnomer, as there is absolutely nothing Indian about the selected poems. The only justification is probably some remarks of the editor in the Preface about the characteristics of the Indian mind, and the necessity for the correction of some of them with the impulses proceeding from English literature.

DISTRICT TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, KUMBAKONAM.

Proceedings of the fifth meeting held at Tiruvalur, on Saturday, the 26th October 1912.

Thither came members from Tirukattupalli, Pattukotta, Mayavaram and Kumbakonam, and including the staff of the Local Board High School, there were in all nearly 60 present. After coffee and refreshments, business commenced exactly at 3 P. M.

Mr. K. Seshu Aiyer was voted to the chair. Mr. S. Sundara Bharathi read his paper on *Tamil and Its Position in the School Final Course*. It was an earnest and inspiring paper. He dwelt upon the high antiquity of its literature, its adaptability and flexibility to postical needs, the greatest Tamil poets and scholars of old who live now and shall live for all time in their immortal works. But it lacked good prose works, and he hoped the future, proud of its noble heritage, would make up the sad deficiency. He believed that vernaculars had not met with sufficient recognition by the organisers of the S. S. L. C. scheme, it seemed to be there more by tolerance than anything else; that it was really anomalous, that, without any good text-books being prescribed, boys were yet expected to write good Tamil composition; that grammar, purity, and classicism were far from being encouraged; that, having fallen on evil times, it was rapidly drifting into coarseness and vulgarity, being suffered to be remorselessly invaded by foreign words, slang, colloquialisms, and ungrammatical jargon.

Discussion followed, and the following took leading part in it;—Messrs K. S. Narayansami Aiyar, G. Srinivasa Aiyar, M. Aravamudha Iyengar, R. Swaminatha Aiyar and several others. There was indeed much to do for the improvement of the vernaculars; that the time and attention given to them were scanty; that the text-books prescribed for lower secondary forms and primary classes were ill-chosen, and ill-calculated to develop love of good prose; that the making or editing of good text-books should demand the serious attention of the lovers of Tamil literature; that admission of Tamil in the (A) group was not wholly to be wished for, that, as it was, Translation and Composition necessitated wide reading of Tamil books; that the object of the S. S. L. C. scheme being simplicity and directness of expression, means were not wanting to encompass this; that Tamil in (C) group afforded facilities for specialisation.

The Chairman (Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar) drew the attention to the fact that Tamil was a living language, that it would be fatal to shut its doors against the infusion of new ideas and new words and expressions to match them; that too strong an insistence upon old grammar only retarded the growth of the literature, and grammar-teaching, as at present done, was more scaring than inviting; that modern literature must take upon itself the sacred mission of uplifting and educating the

masses, that it ought to serve as a key to unlock the past, and the means and methods adopted in our schools must be such as mainly to secure these ends.

Mr. G. Srinivasa Aiyar moved the following proposition, which was put to the vote, and which passed without dissent:—

"That in the opinion of this Association, if Vernacular Composition in all the South Indian vernaculars is encouraged by the study of modern prose, and by permitting the free admission of foreign words, the simplification of grammar, the prohibition of archaic forms (as recommended by the Committee appointed by the Syndicate for considering the subject of Tamil Composition for the Intermediate Examination) the position of the South Indian Vernaculars in the School Final Course is quite satisfactory and quite enough for the needs of the country."

Mr. K. Vaidyanathaswami Aiyar and his staff are to be thanked for their exceeding kindness and hospitality to the outside members.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The Teachers' Association, Mahajana High School, Erode—This Association was started in the year 1908 and ever since that time it has been working well. The object of the Association is chiefly—among other things—to improve the methods of teaching the various subjects on up-to-date lines, which is done (1) by criticism-lessons given by masters, (2) by discussing the methods of teaching the several subjects, and (3) by subscribing for journals such as *The Practical Teacher*, *The School*, *The School World*, *The Educational Review* and *The Trained Teacher*.

At present the Association holds fortnightly meetings. As usual they had the second meeting on Saturday, the 28th September 1912—for the Association has its annual meeting only in the month of September—when the Science master of the school gave a lesson in Elementary Science to the students of the Fifth Form. After the lesson was over, the members present offered their criticisms and suggestions. It is this aspect of the Association that is highly appreciated by the members as it not only makes the teachers up-to-date in their methods but also maintains that *esprit de corps* among the members which is essential for the well-being of an institution.

Delegation of Powers.—The Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to delegate to Principals of Government Arts and Teachers' Colleges and of the Training School, Rajahmundry, his power under Rule 101 of the

Madras Educational Rules to remit in special cases equitable portions of the term fees paid by pupils when leaving those institutions.

Madras Students' Advisory Committee.—As the tenure of office of the members of the Madras Students' Advisory Committee appointed in G. O. No. 542, Educational, dated 29th September 1909, expires on the 1st October 1912, the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint the gentlemen named below to be President and Members of the Committee from the same date and to hold office for a period of two years:—

President.

The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Madras (*ex-officio*).

Vice-President.

The Director of Public Instruction, Madras (*ex-officio*).

Members.

The Honourable the Resident at Hyderabad (*ex-officio*).

The Honourable the Resident in Mysore (*ex-officio*).
The Hon'ble Raja Vasudeva Raja, Valia Nambidi of Kollengode.

Muhammad Qadir Nawaz Khan Sahib Bahadur, Khan Bahadur.

M.R.Ry. Vengal Kunhi Raman Nayanar Avargal, Cannanore.

M.R.Ry. Diwan Bahadur K. Narayana Rao Avargal, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Madras.

The Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A., Acting Principal, Madras Christian College.

Mr. A. W. Bishop, P.D., Director of Public Instruction, Travancore.

Mr. F. S. Davies, B.A., Director of Education, Cochin.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A.

M.R.Ry. K. Ramunni Menon Avargal, B.A., Professor of Biology, Presidency College.

M.R.Ry. S. E. Ranganatham, Junior Professor of English, Presidency College.

Secretary.

Mr. A. Davies, Deputy Registrar, High Court, Madras.

Manual training in schools.—In the case of elementary schools the Government, while endorsing the Director of Public Instruction's remarks as to the expedience of examining Mr. Chatterton's valuable suggestions when a suitable opportunity occurs, accept his conclusion that the only action immediately practicable is to encourage the creation and use of school gardens. A non-recurring grant of Rs. 10,000 will be sanctioned on this account for distribution among local bodies from the lump provision of 1.50 lakhs under "22. EDUCATION" originally intended for the establishment of model high schools, and the Director will be requested at an early date to submit detailed proposals for the allot-

ment of this subsidy. The Government trust that every effort will be made through the agency of inspecting officers to promote this form of manual training.

In the case of secondary schools the first step is the engagement of expert instructors. The Director's proposals to this end are well considered and meet with the approval of Government. The Government of India will accordingly be addressed to recruit two experts from England on a salary of Rs. 400—20—500 with travelling allowance at first-class rates and with the benefits of European service leave rules for an initial period of five years. One of these officers will be attached to the Teachers' College where his principal function will be to instruct teachers for secondary schools and colleges and train persons willing to specialize as manual instructors. The other will work under the Inspector of European and Training Schools for the main purpose of organizing and instructing classes in European Schools at Madras and in mofassil centres. Each officer will be allowed an establishment consisting of two workshop assistants on Rs. 25 and Rs. 20 respectively *per mensem* and one carpenter on a monthly pay of Rs. 20. The instructor attached to the Inspector of European and Training Schools will also be assisted by three demonstrators on Rs. 25 *per mensem* each, and similar help will be given to the instructor at the Teachers' College through the agency of three selected students who will each receive an additional monthly stipend of Rs. 5.

The sanctions given in this order will take effect from the date of actual engagement of the officers and staff appointed.

Separate orders will issue in the Financial Department regarding the allotment of the funds required.

A Government Grant.—The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure or Rs. 5,043 towards the cost of purchasing four houses to be used as hostels attached to the St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, subject to the following conditions:—

(1) that the sale-deed is examined by the Government Solicitor and the title to the property is found to be good and in order; and

(2) that all the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code have been duly complied with.

2. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

Sub-Assistant Inspectors of Schools.—The proposals submitted by the Director of Public Instruction for the appointment of additional Sub-Assistant Inspectors of Schools represent only an instalment of the actual requirements as at present calculated and do not take sufficiently into account the new institutions for which funds have already been provided in the current year. They also indicate that a further addition to the inspecting staff will

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be inevitable in the near future. As the introduction of a reform of this nature *by instalments* is contrary to well-known financial principles, the Government must ask the Director to elaborate a complete scheme meeting not only all existing needs but also providing for the developments anticipated in the next few years. They will then be in a position to apply for the requisite sanction. The proposals should include the necessary complement of supervisors and other subordinate staff, and consideration should be devoted to the question whether some addition will not be required to the superior inspecting agency.

2. In the meantime, to meet immediate necessities, the Government sanction as a temporary measure the appointment of an additional staff of 48 Sub-Assistants together with the appropriate subsidiary establishments for a period of one year from the 1st November 1912. Two of these officers are intended to relieve senior officers employed as Assistant Inspectors of the new Chittoor and Ramnad Districts and two more (including the appointment sanctioned in paragraph 4 of G. O. No. 404, Educational, dated 10th May 1912) for the inspection of Muhammadan Schools, while the remaining 44 are for general duty. All the additional appointments will be placed in the probationary grade of the inspection branch of the Subordinate Educational Service and will thus carry a salary of Rs. 75. The following establishment will be sanctioned for each of the two officers acting as District Assistant Inspectors:—

	Pay per mensem.
	RS.
One clerk	20
One clerk	15
One attender	10
One peon	7
One peon	6

The Sub-Assistants for Muhammadan Schools will each be allowed a clerk on Rs. 15 and a peon on Rs. 7 and those employed on general duty a clerk on Rs. 15, an attender on Rs. 10 and a peon on Rs. 6.

3. Orders will issue in the Financial Department providing funds to meet the cost of the temporary Sub-Assistants and their establishment during the current year.

Stipends to European Mistresses.—Under Article 121 of the Code of Regulations for European Schools, the Government are pleased to fix the following rates of stipends to European mistresses undergoing training in training schools managed under the European Code—

	RS.
Primary grade	15 a month.
Middle "	20 "
High "	30 "

Special Grants to Schools.—The Government of Madras have sanctioned the payment to the institutions mentioned below of special grants not exceeding

the amounts specified in each case or one-half of the actual cost of the articles, whichever may be less :— (1) Madras Christian College Rs. 12,581, (2) St. Aloysius College, Mangalore Rs. 7,068, (3) St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly Rs. 1,025, (4) Pachaiyappa's College, Madras Rs. 9,130, (5) Maharaja's College, Vizianagram Rs. 4,250, (6) Mrs. A. V. N. College, Vizagapatam Rs. 5,151, (7) Kalikota College, Berhampore Rs. 2,012, (8) C. M. S. College, Tinnevely Rs. 953, (9) S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly Rs. 1,417.

Government College, Mangalore.—The premises of the Government College, Mangalore, presented a gay appearance on Saturday the 21st ultimo, owing to the College Day celebration. After a slight refreshment in the morning the guests engaged in pleasant pastimes such as Badminton and chess. In the afternoon athletic sports followed a sumptuous meal. Towards nightfall a large crowd of people among whom were a few Hindu educated ladies assembled for the prize-giving in the College Hall which was very tastefully decorated and illuminated. Mr. H. O. Hardinge, I.C.S., District and Sessions Judge, Salem, took the chair.

The Principal, after expressing regret at the constant changes of staff in Government institutions and at the loss by transfer of two members of the College staff during the year, mentioned that the strength of the College classes had increased by 14. The school-average in the School Leaving Examination has been below the Presidency average in nothing and had exceeded that average by percentages varying from nine to twenty-one in English, Mathematics, History and Physics. In the Intermediate Examination, 11 had passed out of 22 sent up, 4 in the first class. A much-needed laboratory had been completed and gas laid on. Electricity would be supplied before the end of the year. He then proceeded to urge on parents the advisability of making use of the commercial classes. They were, he said, at present so small that it was doubtful whether it was worth while to continue them. The two boys who had attended last year had both got employment already. B.A.'s were now as plentiful as blackberries on an English hedge, but boys with good Leaving Certificates in commercial subjects were rare.

The President, after giving away the prizes to the various prize-winners, addressed the audience in an interesting speech.

This was followed by a recitation, music, and the performance of a farce, all of which were very well appreciated by the audience. With a vote of thanks to the Chair, the singing of the National Anthem, the proceedings were brought to a close at 8 P.M.

Prize-distribution at the Zamorin's College.—The distribution of prizes to the students of the Zamorin's College took place recently at the College premises, Mr. C. G. Mackay, M.A., I.C.S., presiding over the function. Mr. F. Norton Fagge presented a report of real progress during

the last College year. It is gratifying to note that under the new Principal the College grows fast in strength as well as efficiency and tries to keep abreast of the times. The announcement that the Science department is equipped with up-to-date accessories and that the College department is to be provided with better accommodation will be received with satisfaction. The report showed that Mr. Fagge has the College interests always at heart and we are certain that the College is bound to prosper under the guidance of such an enthusiastic Principal. Mr. Mackay delivered a very instructive address. Mrs. Ferguson gave away the prizes to the winners. The Chairman and Mrs. Ferguson were then garlanded and Mr. Cheriattan Rajah, a member of the Board of Management thanked those present. The M. V. R. Band played occasionally and added to the enjoyment. The guests were served with light refreshments.

Technical Education.—We understand that the Government of Madras have generally accepted the recommendations made by the Committee appointed to consider the question of improving industrial and technical education in the north of Madras, and have asked the Superintendent of Industrial Education to formulate and submit definite proposals for the establishment of State apprenticeships and the opening of a technical school on the lines advised by the Committee.

Compulsory Primary Education.—A meeting was held at Conjeevaram under the presidency of Mr. Arunachella Mudaliar. About 300 men represented the community and five gentlemen spoke. One of them, Mr. C. Nagalingam Mudaliar, a Fellow of the Madura Tamil Sangam, said that there was every likelihood of the Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale's Education Bill being introduced afresh and passed into law, though not in the immediate future at least some years hence, and that it would be to the credit of the Sengundar community if they brought such education into force before they are compelled to do so by law. Four other speakers followed. Messrs. Ramanadha Sarma, Ashtavadhanam P. Kalyanasundaram Mudaliar and K. Namasivaya Mudaliar are expected to deliver lectures to the general mass of the community on the benefits of education. A Committee will be formed to arrange for a Conference being held, probably next month, when the Sengundars of other places will also be brought together, so that the necessity for compulsory primary education may be explained to them.

Calicut School of Commerce.—The new building of the Calicut School of Commerce was formally opened by Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., F.R.H.S. The assembly was very large and included the enlightened members of all religions and professions. Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Iyer read the report of the school with his characteristic clearness and lucidity, and it was followed by a lengthy disquisition on Commercial

Education in South India. The Headmaster then thanked the Director, the Government, the P. W. officers and the contractor for constructing the new building at heavy cost and labour, in good style and at an early time. He also expressed satisfaction at the harmonious and enthusiastic co-operation of the staff of the school with him in the daily work. The guests and the President received the thanks of the teachers and students for attending the function.

The President declared the building formally opened for use of the school. The Headmaster garlanded the prominent guests and flowers were distributed. The meeting then dispersed.

BOMBAY.

Training of Urdu Teachers.—The Bombay Government has decided to open a class for training Urdu teachers as an experimental measure for two years, and the Ahmedabad Training College has been selected to try the experiment. A Mohammedan graduate familiar with the work of a training college is being engaged for the purpose. The Government has decided to issue at the Vernacular Final Examination a set of papers entirely in Urdu, for candidates wishing to take them.

Prize-distribution at J. J. School of Arts.—His Excellency the Governor recently distributed prizes to the successful students at Sir J. J. School of Arts. After Mr. Burns, Principal of the School, read his report, His Excellency delivered an interesting speech.

Regarding ancient crafts of India, His Excellency said :—"They were intimately connected with ancient religion and closely interwoven with the life of the people. The wonderful social stability of India has preserved them with little change up to this day. Contact with the West in recent times has not been beneficial to the ancient art of India.

His Excellency then referred to the progress of the school and said that the endowment of one or two post-graduate scholarships would not only be a great advantage to these schools but would be a means of helping onwards the progress of art in this Presidency.

CALCUTTA.

English Teachership Examination.—The examination will be partly written and partly oral and practical. The written examination will be held at the Training School at Calcutta on the 2nd December 1912 and the two following days. Three papers will be set, as shown below :—(1) Art of teaching, 2nd December, 10 A.M. to 2 P.M. (2) Discipline, 3rd December, 10 A.M. to 2 P.M. (3) Organisation, 4th December, 10 A.M. to 2 P.M. The oral and practical examination will be in actual class teaching and in notes of lessons. The necessary arrangements for holding this examination will be made by Inspectors of Schools. One hundred marks will be assigned to this examination.

National Council of Education Scholars in America.—Mr. James H. Woods, Professor of Sanskrit Literature, Harvard University, writes in a letter, dated the 18th August 1912, to a professor of the Bengal National College, Calcutta :—".....I may send a word of hearty approval with regard to the four students, Mr. Sen Gupta, Mr. Ray, Mr. Seth, and Mr. Sarkar, who have been sent to the Harvard University.....Their record in scholarship is even better than last year and their ideals and conduct are irreproachable.

A Prize-distribution ceremony.—The annual ceremony of prize distribution to the meritorious students of the Abhayeswari High School was celebrated with great 'ecalt' at the school premises under the presidency of Babu Jnanendra Mohan Das, B.L., Superintendent of the Bijui Raj. The Raj officials, the local gentry and the common people were present. A long programme of Sanskrit, English and Bengali recitations, the play of some scenes selected from Shakespeare and other standard authors were successfully gone through. The Headmaster and some officers of the Estate then addressed the students, which was followed by a nice little speech from the Chair, impressing upon the students the dignity of labour and the formation of character.

Prize-distribution.—The annual prize-giving ceremony of the High School at Narayanganj took place on the morning of Sunday, the 6th inst., the Mahomedan boys winning most of the first prizes. Abdul Mannan, a student of the 10th class, won four first prizes. Lakhi Kanta Maitra was presented gold and silver medals for securing the highest marks in English and Bengalee at the last Matriculation examination from the school. The students entertained the public with dramatic performances of selected portions from "Chandra Gupta." The income after disbursement for the last year amounted to rupees four hundred and odd. The average monthly income during the last six months was rupees four hundred and odd. This fall in the income has not been accounted for. It is believed to be due to the unpopularity of the late Headmaster. The want of a play-ground is very keenly felt.

ALLAHABAD.

High School Scholarship Examination.—This examination will be held on Monday, the 17th March, 1913, and the following days at the following centres :—Lucknow (Jubilee High School), Fyzabad (Government High School), Gorakhpur (Jubilee High School), Benares (Queen's College), Allahabad (Government High School), Jhansi (MacDonnell High School), Agra (Government High School), Bareilly (Government High School), Meerut (Government High School), Almora (Government High School), Srinagar (Government High School),

Debra Dun (Mission School), and Jaipur (Maharaja's Collegiate School). No application for admission will be received after the 15th January 1913.

Retirement of Two Professors.—Two farewell addresses were given to the two well-known retiring Professors of Queen's College, Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Keshava Shastri, Professor of Sanskrit, and Babu Abhaya Charan Sanyal, Professor of Physical Science, in the said College. There was a large gathering. Officials and Professors and old students attended the meeting, besides the College students. After making a short but interesting reply to the address by the Sanskrit Professor, Dr. Venis, the Principal, eulogised the services of both the Professors and expressed his deep sorrow for their retirement. Soon after this the other Professor rose and replied to the address. In the course of his speech the Professor expressed the hope that the number of Science students in any College would not fall off. In conclusion he said he would be glad to see Queen's College students successful everywhere. After this the meeting dispersed and the retiring Professors and other guests were sumptuously feasted. The College students were also feasted. A large number of students were seen loitering near the College gate to catch the last glimpse of the retiring Professors when the latter drove out of the College.

PUNJAB.

Girassiya College Sports Day.—The annual sports of the Girassiya College, Gondal State, were held in the spacious College grounds on the 30th September 1912; the grounds presented a gay appearance. The spectators numbered about a thousand.

His Highness Shri Bhagvatsinhjee, G.C.I.E., and Kumaris Shri Bakuverba and Leilaba graced the occasion by their presence from the beginning to the end. The prizes, seventy-six in number, were given away by Princess Bakuverba. The State band was in attendance.

After the distribution of prizes at 6.45 P.M., the successful occasion was brought to a close with three hearty cheers for His Highness and family.

The Girassiya College, Gondal, is the only institution of its kind, which is run on the lines of Eton. The institution is very well-equipped. The building which cost about 4 lakhs is a spacious one built of black and white stones and contains the school and the boarding. It costs a student Rs. 300 per annum only which is very little as compared to the care, comfort and tuition which are provided by the College. Gondal State contributes about Rs. 10,000 per annum to make up the deficit.

It speaks well for the reputation of the College that parents have been sending boys to this institution not only from all parts of India, but also from Africa and even Europe.

Distinguished visitors like H. H. the Gaekwar of

Baroda, H. H. the Maharaja of Bhavnagar and H. H. the Thakur Sahib of Limbdi have given scholarships and Lord Northbrook has endowed a sum, out of which a gold medal is given yearly for efficiency in Experimental Science; and all the Governors of Bombay from Lord Sandhurst to Sir George Clarke have spoken in high and appreciative terms about the working and management of this institution.

TRAVANCORE.

The College day.—The celebration of the 15th College Day took place in the College grounds. The College premises were tastefully decorated with flags, festoons and evergreens. The proceedings began early in the morning with a Tennis Match. Various items of amusements were then gone through. At about 10 o'clock the guests were treated to a sumptuous feast. In the afternoon, the meeting of the past and present students of the College took place in the Hall presided over by Mr. Justice Veeraraghava Iyengar. After an introductory speech from the Chair, Mr. V. A. Ramakrishna Iyer, B.A., B.L., a former student of the College, delivered an instructive address to the assembled students. This was followed by another address from one of the present students. Then came the Chairman's concluding remarks. He touched upon the defects in the present system of education and suggested some effective remedies. In the sports part of the programme both present and past students took an enthusiastic part. Tea and light refreshments were served to the guests in the evening. This was followed by a dramatic entertainment by the College students. The function terminated with three cheers for H. H. the Maharajah.

COCHIN.

Education in Cochin.—The high position occupied by the Cochin State in point of literacy will be made clear by a comparison with other States. In every thousand of the population, 151 are literate in Cochin, but only 149 in Travancore, 112 in Tanjore District, 111 in Malabar District, 75 in the Madras Presidency as a whole, 101 in Baroda State, and 63 in Mysore State. Though Cochin has gone ahead of Travancore in the literacy of general population, the latter State has gone ahead of Cochin in the literacy among males. In every thousand of the male population of Travancore 248 are literate whereas the number of literate males per thousand is only 243 in Cochin, 218 in Tanjore, 190 in Malabar, 175 in Baroda, 139 in the Madras Presidency and 112 in Mysore. It is in female literacy that Cochin takes the first place. In every thousand of the female population, 61 are literate in Cochin, 50 in Travancore, 35 in Malabar, 20 in Baroda, 15 in Tanjore, 13 in the Madras Presidency, and only 12 in Mysore. Baroda lags behind several other States at present, but the system of compulsory education

now introduced in Baroda will carry that State ahead of the sister States in another decade. Female literacy in Cochin is most prominent among the Christian community. Eleven per cent. of Christian females are literate, whereas only 6.7 per cent. of Hindu females and 7 per cent. of Muhammadan females are literate. In male literacy also the Christian community stands first. But in point of higher education—secondary and collegiate—the Christians stand behind the Hindus.

In point of English literacy also, Cochin stands foremost among all the Districts and Provinces we have taken for comparison. In every thousand males in Cochin 20 are literate in English; the corresponding number in Tanjore is 19, in Mysore 18, in Travancore 13, in Baroda 9 and in Malabar 12, which is also the number for the entire Madras Presidency. In female literacy in English the Cochin State has gone far in advance of other States and Districts. In every ten thousand females in Cochin, 31 are literate in English, whereas the number is only 20 in Travancore, 17 in Malabar, 13 in Tanjore District (which is also the average for the Presidency) 11 in Mysore, and 5 in Baroda. The progress of English education is most marked among the Tamil Brahmins, Malayali Kshatriyas, Nayers and Indian Christians. The Nambudris who stand very high in general literacy, are in the lowest rung of the ladder in English literacy, only 7 in a thousand of them being able to read and write English, as against 124 among Tamil Brahmins in the State. It is more curious that the Native Christians who form the most literate class in Cochin, are very backward in English education, only 18.6 in a thousand males and 4.5 in a thousand females being able to read and write English.

BARODA.

The Baroda Library Scheme.—Mr. Borden, Director of State Libraries in Baroda, has issued a report on the general movement towards library efficiency in the State. The policy is apparently modelled on American suggestions.

The Baroda Government offered to bear one-third or more of the expenses of founding and maintaining all libraries in the State provided such libraries were open and free to all classes and it withdrew all support from libraries which refused to open to such free use. Since then libraries and reading rooms have increased from 241 to 373 of which only about 20 expect to continue without State help. It is hoped to make the Central Library a reference library of two hundred thousand volumes in every part of the State, and a free circulating library of 2,000 to 5,000 volumes in every taluq town and other village extensions in time.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Education of "Anglo-Indians."—Meeting in London.—At a meeting of the National Council for Education Fund of the domiciled community in

India, Doctor Francis read a report of the recent Conference at Simla which he said had done much to stimulate official interest in the community and secure public approval of increased grants.

The Archbishop of Canterbury, who presided, said, that the report showed that the Council would be more than justified in maintaining an appeal in the United Kingdom for a longer term than was originally contemplated. Allowing for the new position created by the Conference, the Archbishop fully explained the fund and said it had his very warmest sympathy.

The Sunday School Union.—A Commission for India.—Our readers will be interested in learning that this now venerable Union, for it was established in 1803, has decided to accept the suggestion of the World's Sunday School Committee, and send out a Commission for India. The personnel of this Commission has now been arranged. It includes, first, Miss Emily Huntley, who is well known as Primary Demonstrator and Extension Lecturer in connection with the Union; and secondly, the Rev. D. Reid, B.D., Minister of St. John's U. F. Church, Leith. Mr. Reid was Minister for some years of Wellesley Square, U. F. Church, Calcutta, and has a great reputation as a leader and preacher. Third, Mr. N. Micklem, B.A., (Oxon) will also render assistance. Miss Huntley and the Rev. D. Reid propose to arrive at Colombo about December 25, and work from there to Upper India. The General Secretary for India is the Rev. Richard Burges, who should be addressed at the Central Office, Jubbulpore. He will be glad to hear from any friends of Sunday School effort who may desire to co-operate with the Commission shortly to arrive in India, and to arrange the particular way in which they may render assistance.

Successful Indian Students.—We believe some eighteen Indians at Cambridge in all competed this year. Of the 73 successful candidates, 23 are, we understand, assignable to Cambridge and 31 to Oxford. The first on the list, Mr. W. B. Brett, is a scholar of Hertford College, Oxford; the second, Mr. F. H. Nixon, is a scholar of Pembroke College, Cambridge. Neither need be regarded as likely to come to India. Last year the first ten on the list preferred Home appointments. Fifty-three Indian appointments out of a total of 95 were announced last year; this year there are 46 Indian vacancies to be filled.

It remains to be added that, as last year, three of the successful candidates are University men who obtained their early education at London County Council Elementary schools and have been enabled to continue their studies at Oxford or Cambridge by means of the senior scholarships awarded by the Council. We hope this fact will not be lost sight of by those who are still imagining all sort of evils in Mr. Gokhale's very moderate Bill for the introduction of a system of compulsory education in India.

The Educational Review.

In our last issue, we urged that it would be well to have a member of the teaching profession to represent the University in the Legislative Council. In view of the fact that the registered graduates of our University will shortly be called upon to elect two Fellows to the Senate, there is a strong feeling in the educational world that none but educationists ought now to be returned. This, we feel, is a legitimate aspiration on the part of the schoolmaster. It seems to be in the fitness of things that the Fellows elected by the body of registered graduates consisting largely of professors, schoolmasters and others connected with education, should belong to the teaching profession. Owing to the inauguration of the new educational policy of Government, attempts are now being made to gradually transform our examining body into a teaching centre. Large sums of money have been placed at the disposal of the University to carry out these reforms. The institution of University Extension Lectures, the founding of University Chairs for Indian Economics and Indian History, the establishment of University Professorships to encourage a critical study of Indian languages on western lines and the extension of the University Library—these and similar topics would engross the Senate in the near future. We desire to affirm that it is the educationist, who, by virtue of his professional experience, is eminently fitted to help the Senate in such deliberations, and that it becomes a very legitimate grievance indeed if his position is not recognized even in the field of education. We know to what extent the

non-educationist members of the Senate have been successful in the discharge of their duties. In this connection we are tempted to remark that what Prof. Seshadri says of the non-educationist members of the Syndicate in his article of the April number of the *Review*, applies equally well to the non-educationist members of the Senate. He says:—

“We have heard it said on very good authority that the dignity of that Chamber was often marred by the humiliation of members having to submit themselves to light ridicule if there was not a sufficiently cautious recognition of the limits of amateurist criticism or even suggestion.”

An analysis of the results of elections of Fellows by registered graduates ever since the new enactment reveals the appalling fact that, whereas no less than ten seats have been contested for, only four educationists have been returned. We are constrained to remark that two of these four, though they are graduates of over 25 years' standing and though they are men of good repute and position in the educational world, were not deemed fit to be returned on the first occasion they sought election. On the other hand, six non-educationists have been returned, two of whom at least are graduates of very little standing—barely ten or twelve years at the time of their election. Implicit faith seems to have been placed on the virtues of a vigorous canvasser or on similar unworthy grounds.

It is interesting to recall to our minds the circumstances which have led up to this state of affairs. Out of a total of about 580 registered graduates about 210 are educationists or schoolmasters. It is a thousand pities that, though there are

many more schoolmasters qualified to be registered, their grinding poverty, the uncertainty of their tenure in private schools, as we remarked in our previous issue, and the yearly increasing University registration fees, hardly leave them the inclination to do so. The attitude of quietism and indifference on the part of the schoolmaster, and his lack of enthusiasm for anything beyond the routine of his class-work have also contributed materially to this end. His unparalleled meekness and docility, his dread of publicity and a mistaken sense of modesty drive him at times to the necessity of believing that a budding orator or a pushful printer can face the Director or the Department more boldly on the Senate than a veteran educationist or a venerable schoolmaster. Speaking of the lawyer in his article entitled ‘The Educationists in Southern India,’ Prof. Seshadri says:—

“It is also generally known that leadership in law has always meant in this country supremacy in public life and at least a reputation for knowledge and experience in numberless departments of activity. The person stands out as the most astounding example of the versatility of human genius. From the directorship of a bank or a factory to the offering of expert opinion on all subjects under the sun, he is fit for any capacity. The elucidation of legal subtleties is only an insignificant part of his accomplishment and work though it is mainly responsible for his magnificent income.”

We ought not, however, to be understood as casting reflections on the vast body of lawyers or other gentlemen of our country. On the other hand, it is in terms of the highest praise that we should like to refer to the work of our eminent country-men in

their legitimate sphere of activity. But what we complain of is the neglect into which the schoolmaster has fallen. The discretion of teachers employed in institutions under private management is very often fettered by the Manager or the Secretary; being subordinate to members of other professions, they are denied the privilege of fighting for a recognition of the claims of men of their own profession. Probably it is the fear of the loss of this kind of dependence that has actuated some of the non-educationist Fellows of the Senate to condemn the proposed model schools. The element of jealousy for a fellow-worker seems to have played by no means an insignificant part in such elections. United action on the part of the educationists and a resolution to fight out the undeniable rights of the profession when they are assailed from other quarters without succumbing to overwhelming external influences would alone elevate them from the low depths of degradation into which they have sunk. We exhort them to put forth sustained efforts by organizing *The Teachers' Guild* and *The South Indian Teachers' Union* on the line of *The National Union of Teachers* in England and face the present situation.

For the two Fellowships which have fallen vacant and which are shortly to be filled up by election among registered graduates, there are no less than five candidates. Two of them are educationists of sufficient experience, acknowledged ability, fearless independence and high character. Of the other three candidates, two are lawyers and the third a man of business; these three candidates have apparently no special qualifications for the work of educational administration. Judged by the vigorous canvassing

that is now going on, we are led to remark that these non-educationists are trying their level best to bring all kinds of influence to bear on the less ambitious and dependent schoolmaster to sacrifice his principle. Promises have been extracted long before seats fell vacant or candidatures were announced. It is needless to say that promises made under such circumstances have no moral binding. We have shown how, in the past, non-educationist graduates of very little standing and ordinary attainments triumphed over educationists with vast experience and marked ability. We earnestly hope that the learned body of registered graduates will not be led away by titles and distinctions, and will not vote for a vigorous canvasser or a pushful man, but will give their votes to those who have done solid educational work.

Every method of teaching loses its vitality on the day it undergoes the heuristics method of teaching Science. *nāmakaraṇam*; it thenceforth becomes an idol, a fetish, a wooden image in more senses than one; a special shrine is erected for it in Training Colleges and a special priest enlarges on the virtues of the latest addition to the world's stock of idols. The 'heuristic' method is one such. Lecturers on Pedagogy begin by reminding their audience that 'heuristic' is from Greek *heuriskō*, to find, and say that pupils must be told nothing but required to find everything for themselves. Thus has a new pedagogic orthodoxy been started, which will run its career of mischief till it is overtaken by a new orthodoxy and the new magic charms away the old one. Let us meanwhile consider what is the real idea behind the name. The work in the Science class-room must be

similar to that in the laboratory of the investigator, because, in both cases, a learner is questioning nature and trying to coax her to answer his question. He attempts to frame an image of what occurs in natural processes; and as "imagination is necessarily limited by what is previously in experience," it follows that experience should be acquired before images are framed based on that experience. The old method of Science teaching has proved futile, because it consisted in talk by the teacher varied by an exhibition of fire-works. Mere talk, talk about things not experienced, talk about grammes and metres and litres which the pupil's muscles have not been trained to translate into muscular sensations, is not experience. Hence it is that pupils must make their own experiments if they are to get any good from the learning of science. After experiment comes the making of images of what has probably taken place in nature to correspond to the experience, or as it is called in scientific slang, the construction of hypotheses. Experience by itself is of no value if it is not to lead beyond itself. It is in this part of scientific work that the ethical value of Science teaching lies. The sense of truth is trained by right thinking and hence the strictest honesty should be encouraged in making inferences from the results of the very imperfect experiments that alone are possible in the class room.

Prof. Senier, President of Section B of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, deals in his address, among other questions, with "The present indiscriminate elementary teaching and neglect of research" and as

there has been recently so much talk in this country about the spread of popular education and there has never been any talk about the promotion of research, Prof. Senier's views are worth reference here. He says: "Large sums of money are expended in this country on the diffusion of some knowledge of Chemistry among all classes of scholars and students; in fact, scarcely anyone escapes from a smattering, largely undigested if not indigestible, either forced on them by regulations or by allurements of bribes in the form of prizes, scholarships, or academic laurels. Our professors work 'whole time' at this 'Stall-feeding' process." This process, it has been found in Germany, exhausts the initiative of the teacher and turns him away from original work. At present Universities are engaged in the futile work of helping "those who have no special bent for learned pursuits to acquire with heavy labour and much assistance, just so much as may enable them to pass muster." We called this work futile; it is worse; it is positively harmful to the best interests of the nation. "For the advancement of civilization, for the increased welfare of the race by the technical applications of our Science, it is not the indiscriminate teaching of the masses and the multiplication of examinations that is wanted, but the training of the few, of capable investigators." Even considered as a means of education, research work is immensely superior to a mere preparation for examinations. In the words of Prof. Sir J. J. Thomson, "Research develops qualities that are apt to atrophy when the student is preparing for examinations, and, quite apart from the addition of new knowledge to our store, is of the greatest importance as a means of education." There is besides the

immense development of national self-respect that would be produced if our Universities should train every year a few men that will successfully take part in the hunt for knowledge which alone can entitle a country to call it civilized. But our Universities, so far, have been organized neither for the benefit of the mediocre nor of the brilliant but have invented a Procrustean bed which ruins both classes of young men, unfitting the former for the battle of life and stunting the faculties of the latter and cheating them of their birth-right.

Far and away the most interesting presidential address at the British Association this year was Prof. G. Elliot Smith's opening address, in the section of Anthropology. In tracing the pedigree of man he took as his guide the neopallium, the part of the brain into which pathways lead from all sense-organs, which is according to Professor Macdougall, "the unitary organ, the physical processes of which might be regarded as corresponding to the unity of consciousness;" for the evolution of man has been directed so much by his ability to learn by experience and this organ plays an important part in the inter-play of sensation and behaviour. The tree-shrews, small squirrel-like animals, living in trees and also on the ground, were the earliest mammals in the line that leads to man. Their arboreal life led them to use all the sense-organs, whereas their predecessors who lived on the ground used chiefly the sense of smell; for, away from the ground the sense of smell loses much of its usefulness. The use of all the sense-organs reacted on the neopallium and led to its great development. The next step led to the evolution of

the first primate, in which vision took the premier place among the means of contacting the world. The greater use of the eyes would develop curiosity and lead to a greater use of the hand and this in turn reacted on the neopallium, and not only developed its motor area but gave rise to an organ of attention without which the activities of the animal now increasing in complexity could not be co-ordinated. This was the germ of the prefrontal area. Some of the primates were satisfied with their surroundings and have remained as they were, the lemurs, the monkeys, the anthropoids. Long ages ago, the ancestors of man were impelled to issue forth from their homes in the African forests in search of food and new surroundings. Nature presented them with the environment that led to the evolution of the intelligence indicated in large prefrontal region that characterises man. He then learnt to work skilfully with one hand (in most, the right), the other hand acting as auxiliary; he learnt also to talk and speech has made man what he is now.

We desire to bring to the notice of our readers, of the members of the *Tamil Sangam* of Madura, the *Telugu Academy* of Madras and of other *Sāhitya Parishads* in India, and above all, of all those genuinely interested in the growth on healthy lines of vernacular literatures in this country, the excellent lecture on 'Literary Criticism,' delivered by Mr. J. E. Spingarn, Professor of Comparative Literature, to the members of the Columbia University in 1909-10 and published as a part of the *Lectures on Literature* in the Columbia University Lectures Series. "Criticism" in the West, covered wholly by

Alaṅkāra and partly by *Vyākaraṇam* in the East, up to the eighteenth century arrogated to itself the duty of prescribing rules to, and assessing, the orthodoxy of artists. The height of inaptitude in old fashioned criticism was reached when Jeffrey of the *Edinburgh Review* reviewed Wordsworth's *Excursion* in three words, "This won't do." In contra-distinction to this, modern criticism tries to find out: "What has the poet tried to do and how has he fulfilled his intention?" and not, "has he worked in accordance with the rules that have been prescribed?" This theory of criticism now so generally adopted in the West, requires that we should be rid of the dead lumber and weeds sticking to us from the past ages. "In the very first place, we have done with all the old rules. The very conception of 'rules' harks back to the age of magic, and reminds the modern of those mysterious words which the heroes of the fairy tales are without reason forbidden to utter; the rules are a survival of the savage taboo." How will this do in a land where the number of syllables in a stanza of every kind of allowable form of poetry is fixed, where bewildering rules of alliteration and pseudo-alliteration, rhyme and pseudo-rhyme are *de rigueur*, where originality is taboo even in matters of poetic imagery? Next, "we have done with *genre*, or literary kinds." No more talk of lyric, comedy, tragedy, epic, etc., but of Shakespeare, Milton. "Poets do not write epics, pastorals, lyrics; they express themselves and this expression is their only form..... What becomes of Shakespeare, the creative artist, when [*Lear*, *Venus* and *Adonis* and the Sonnets] are separated from one another by the historian of poetry; when they lose their connection with his single creative soul, and are classified

with other works with which they have only a loose and vague relation?" Next "we have done with the comic, the tragic, the sublime, and an army of vague abstractions of their kind." Not that the word 'tragic' is not used but finding laws of tragedy and testing creative artists by those laws is condemned. Then "we have done with the theory of style, with metaphor, simile, and all the paraphernalia of Grecio-Roman rhetoric." They have been formulated under the mediæval notion that style was separate from expression, a straight-laced jacket to be put on it. If the poet, "says of spring-time that 'Tis now the blood runs gold,' he has not employed a substitute for something else, such as 'the blood tingles in our veins'; he has expressed his thought in its completeness, and there is no equivalent for his expression except itself. Such expressions as metaphor, simile, and all the old terms of classical rhetoric are signs of the Zodiac, magical incantations, astrological formulæ, interesting only to antiquarian curiosity." We fear that the average University examiner will find his occupation gone; so also most professors! Again, "we have done with all moral judgment in literature," for beauty is a sufficiently good end in view. Worse and worse; "we have done with dramatic criticism;" down with the unities. "We have done with technique as separate from art," no more iambic pentameter hypermetrical, a formula guaranteed to charm away the sting of a scorpion. "We have done with the history and criticism of poetic themes," for the Prometheus of Æschylus was a Greek Titan and Shelly's Prometheus was a label for a modern social reformer. "We have done with the race, the time, the environment of a poet's work as an element

of poetic criticism;" farewell, genial, old Taine. "We have done with the evolution of literature;" has not anthropology taught us that the cave-dwellers of the stone age were perfect artists? "Finally we have done with the old rupture between genius and taste," for taste is bred by what it feeds on. At the end of all this we feel just what an Assistant Inspector of Schools felt, when we urged on him the necessity of vernacular readers being so easy that boys could understand them readily: he patiently heard us and then put this poser, "If books are to be in a simple style, what is there left for the teacher to teach?" It will be worth while one of our readers testing the coming year's University question papers in English with this touchstone, and estimating how much percentage of it deals with the outworn inventions of the mediæval, monachal brain.

On the 6th of November, the Board, which has managed the S. S. L. C. scheme for the past three years, will cease to exist

and a new Board will be constituted. We do not propose, on this occasion, to review how the Board has done its labours, but wish merely to point out to the authorities the paramount necessity of getting the various interests represented on the Board. The present Board was conspicuous on account of the absence therein of any representative of High Schools. It cannot be contended that there is no single Headmaster of a High School in this Presidency that is worthy to sit on the Board. We could, off-hand, name a dozen gentlemen, but this is scarcely necessary. One other thing we would urge—that membership of the Board should be open to non-Brahmins and Muhammadans and

some attempt should be made to represent South Indian vernaculars, other than Tamil. Of course, it will not be possible to appoint a member to represent each language, but any three languages can be represented at any time. We hope Government will give fair consideration to these points before appointing the new Board.

In March last, the Government of India offered to the Madras University through the Local Government a grant of Rs. Four lakhs and a further yearly recurring grant of Rs. 65,000 to be utilised for the development of University work. Their object in doing so was to enable the University to take a definite step forward towards the realisation of the idea of a teaching University and to undertake higher work and improve the inspection of Colleges. The Local Government forthwith communicated the offer and called for proposals for the utilisation of the grants. The Syndicate appointed a Special Committee, and in due course the following proposals were put forward:—*Recurring grant*:—For three University Professorships in Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu, each at a salary of Rs. 750 per mensem; for six Pundits, two each for Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu at Rs. 125 per mensem; for Librarian to be in charge of the University Library and the Oriental Manuscripts Library to be taken over from Government, the salary to be supplemental to the salary now paid to the Librarian of the latter Library, at Rs. 3,500 a year; for additional library staff, printing, publishing, etc., at Rs. 4,500 a year; for courses of lectures of an advanced character by specialists from Europe and India at Rs. 15,000 a year; and for a University Professorship in Indian History and Archaeology

at Rs. 6,000 a year. As regards the *Non-recurring grant* of Rs. Four lakhs, it was observed that the Syndicate found itself unable to submit its proposals. Before doing so, the Syndicate desired to be informed as to the extent to which the Government of Madras would be prepared to make grants towards the cost of erection of the proposed new University Buildings and towards the maintenance and up-keep of the combined University and Oriental Library. Some of these proposals did not meet with the approval of the Local Government. As regards the Language Professorships, the Government preferred research studentships in Dravidian languages to Professorships which could not be filled by suitable experts. They laid particular stress on research studentships and observed that there was no measure which was better calculated to supply the great desideratum of a body of scholars with leisure and the means to devote themselves to research and the furtherance of knowledge. Pointed attention was also invited to the need for a University Professorship in a sphere of study where, it was observed, advanced instruction was particularly needed, namely, Indian Economics. The following pregnant observation of theirs deserves to be reproduced:—"It is unnecessary to expatiate upon the relationship between the material development of the country and the dissemination of accurate and rational ideas regarding the economic problems which present themselves in India or to emphasize the importance of exposing the numerous fallacies by which industrial and commercial progress is now obstructed." The appointment of Pundits, the making over of the Oriental Manuscripts Library and the arrangement of University lectures of an

advanced character, as well as the Professorships in Indian History and Archaeology commended themselves to Government, more or less. As regards the proposal of the Syndicate to capitalise a considerable portion of the Four lakhs as a means of providing future revenues, the Government suggested the construction of a spacious building for the University Library, chambers for research students and residential quarters for University staff. The Syndicate was requested to lay these views of the Government, in view of the great importance of the questions in issue, before the Senate and in due course to submit a detailed scheme. The revised proposals of the Syndicate came up for consideration before the Senate at its meeting held on the 25th instant. At this meeting the Vice-Chancellor moved that the following proposals for the appropriation of the grants be adopted by the Senate:—

NON-RECURRING GRANT.

	Rs.
For erection of library building to accommodate the Oriental Manuscripts Library, and the University Library, with lecture-rooms, etc., attached (to be supplemental to the grant of Rs. 1,50,000 from the Government of Madras)	... 2,00,000
For the institution of a temporary Professorship in Indian Economics	... 50,000
For the purchase of books and manuscripts for the libraries (the amount to be temporarily funded)	... 1,50,000
Total Rs.	... 4,00,000

RECURRING GRANTS.

(1) For three University Professorships in (a) Sanskrit, (b) Tamil, (c) Telugu, each at Rs. 750 per mensem	... 27,000
(This amount to be utilised in part, if found desirable, to provide the cost of necessary training before appointment to the Professorships).	

For six Pundits (two each for Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu) at average maximum salary of Rs. 125 per mensem.	... 9,000
For Librarian (University and Oriental Library).	... 6,000
For additional Library staff, travelling expenses of Pundits, cost of printing, publication and purchase of manuscripts, incidentals, etc.	... 4,500
(2) For courses of lectures of an advanced character by specialists from Europe and in India to be arranged, if possible, in conjunction with other Indian Universities	... 12,000
(3) For a University Professorship in Indian History and Archaeology at a salary of Rs. 500—50—1,000—initial expenditure	... 6,000
Total Rs.	... 64,500

That the proposals be subject to the reservation that the sums specified under each heading be considered approximate only, and that the whole scheme be carried into effect gradually as circumstances may permit.

In the course of a very able and lucid speech in which the Vice-Chancellor moved the adoption of these proposals, he explained the *raison d'être* of the Syndicate's several proposals. Particularly he endeavoured to remove the misapprehension in certain quarters that these proposals ignored the importance and value of science and scientific research. There could be no prejudice against the cause of Science, as the Madras University had always been among the foremost in India in promoting the teaching of Science and that its chief work, since the passing of the Universities Act, had been devoted to improving the teaching equipment of Science in the affiliated Colleges. Besides, the Government was incurring a very large expenditure in the provision of proper laboratories and equipment for scientific work, as well as increasing the scientific staff of Colleges. There was also the advantage

of being very near the Tata Institute of Research; and lastly, the proposed new Engineering College gave us the prospect of complete electrical equipment and facility to deal with certain practical branches of scientific work. Having thus cleared the ground, he put in a strong plea for Languages and the proposed Professorships. In spite of the arguments and considerations which he advanced, the Senate had to devote over six hours to a discussion of the merits of this part of the Syndicate's proposals. The most noteworthy contentions were from the Mahomedan Fellows of the Senate—Mr. Justice Abdur Rahim, in particular—for the inclusion of Persian, Arabic and Urdu in the group. The Senate had to go into Committee to take up the numerous amendments that had been proposed. The Senate in Committee then passed the Syndicate's proposals for the utilisation of the *non-recurring* grant of Rs. Four lakhs. Out of the proposals for the utilisation of the *recurring* grant, the provision of Rs. 12,000 for courses of lectures of an advanced character by specialists was also adopted. But no agreement as regards the language proposals could be easily come to, and after numerous amendments and counter

amendments, the following resolution was carried in Committee:—

"For the development of study upon modern lines of Indian languages and especially the languages of South India—Rs. 36,000. That the Senate remit to the Committee of the Senate appointed on the 2nd March 1912 'to consider and report upon the position occupied by languages other than English in the various courses of study' the consideration of the best methods of utilising the sum of Rs. 86,000 which it is proposed to devote to the development upon modern lines of the languages of India and especially of South India."

This Committee will have to submit its report, and the Senate at another meeting will have to consider the same. If the Senate then comes to a final decision, and if the resolutions passed by the Senate in Committee at its meetings held on the 25th and 26th are also confirmed at that meeting, then the question of the appropriation of the Imperial grants may be considered to have been settled, so far as the Senate is concerned. It remains to be seen what the Local Government will then have to say. It may be very easy for Government to give away large grants, but it is certainly not easy to take them and spend them properly. We do not know what the Government of India may think of this wrangle over the bone they have thrown.

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THE SIMPLIFIED SPELING SOSIETI.

BI MARK HUNTER, M.A.,

Onorari Secretari ov the South Indian Branch.

LAST munth 'biter constraint and sad ocaizhon deer' compeld me tu omit the promist pasij ov clasical English. This tiem I giv a stanza from Matthew Arnoldz *Thyrsis* which, tu Oxford men at leest, iz clasical. In this pasij, az it hapenz, the chainjez re-cwierd bi the nyu speling du not reali amount tu much: thai ar for the moest part aulteraishonz tu which thoez acustomed tu the oeld speling miet eezili and rapidli—if thai cood oenli get rid ov prejoodis—becum reconsield. Yet theez chainjez—not in truuth departyurz from the tradishonz ov English orthografi—sufies tu maic the printed simbolz a consistent, and for aul practical purpoces, adecwit reprezentaishon ov the spoecen soundz. What iz tru ov this stanza iz tru on the hoel ov simplified speling in jeneral. Let the imparshal incwierer oenli taic the trubl tu giv the sistem in his oen practis a breef trial, and I hav litl dout that az the result ov his ecsperiment he wil fiend himself a convinst advocait.

Runz it not heer, the trac bi Childsworth Farm,
Paast the hie wood, tu whair the elm-tree crounz
The hil behiend huuz rij the sunset flaimz?
The signal-elm, that loocs on Ilsley Dounz,
The Vail, the three loen weertz, the yuethful Thames?—
This winter-eev iz worm,
Hyumid the air! leefles, yet soft az spring,
The tender purpl sprai on cops and brierz!
And that sweet siti with her dreeming spierz,
She needz not Juun for byutiz hietening—

Thair iz no objecshon tu speling reform which the reformer iz re-cwierd so freecuentli tu fais and comfyt az the 'etimological argyument.' Tu meni it remainz the solitari XVIII

plee caipabl ov being urjd in defens ov what iz utherviez plainli indefensabl. The curent speling, theez admit, iz manifestli inconsistent and inconveenient, a seerius hardship and stumbling-bloc tu the lurner. Nevertheles, thai contend the interests ov etimoloji re-cwier that it shood not be tamperd with. Tu thoez hu wood retain the curent speling in the supoezd interest ov etimoloji it miet seen suffshent tu replie that the argyument thai advaans iz wun which, without eni cwolificaishon whotsoever, iz repyudaited bi aul jenyuin etimolojists. Seerius styudents ov the English langwij, from Sur James Murray and the lait Prof. Skeat dounwardz, hav declaird, and continyu tu declair, with wun vois, that English etimoloji derievz no sort ov benefit from soe-cauld etimological spelings. Speling iz ov survis tu lingwistic siens oenli when, and in proporshon az, it acyuratli indicait a contemporari and not a paast pronunsiaishon. Oeld spelings ar ov cors indispensabl tu the filolojist; but oenli becauz oeld speling, in English and in uthur langwijez, iz in the main fonetic, and the styudent ov langwij can thairfor yuez it az evidens ov the soundz it reprezents. But had the oeld spelerz recogniezd eni standerd ov 'corectnes' uthur than the faithful reprezentaishon ov the spoecen wurd, thai wood not hav provieded the modern scolar with the evidens he re-cwierz, and the siens ov langwij cood not posibli hav ataind the rezults which the good sens ov the oeld scribez haz plaist within its reech. 'Etimological spelings,' moroever, az woz long ago insisted, can teech nuthing ov the orijin ov wurdz tu thoez hu hav not aulredi acwierd this particyular nolej bi uthur meenz, whielst, tu the comparativli 68

turned, theez spelings not infreecwentli sujest a fauls etimoloji ov wurdz, and aulmoest aulwaiz obscyr thair actyual histori.

The truuth iz that the etimological argyument iz advaanst niether bi pursonz convursent with etimoloji nor in the interest ov lingwistic siens. Tu begin with, the argyument, az yuzyueli staited, apliez, not tu the English langwij as a hoel, but oenli tu that porshon ov it ov which the Greek or Latin orijin iz veri plainli witnest in the speling. The mor important part ov the langwij, the naitiv element—tu which mai be aded the bulc ov the oelder French loen-wurdz—iz left out ov account, for the veri sufisient reezon that the syudo-etimologist, whiel he noez sumthing ov Latin and Greek iz, in jeneral, painfui ignorant ov English. He clingz tu the *b* in 'debt' and the furst *c* in 'science,' becauz, tho the *b* and *c* were never pronounst in English, and ar absent in the oeldest English spelings, thai ar found in the Latin formz from which the wurdz ultimaitli deriev. The saim etimologist wil no dout insist with eecwal emfasis on the retenshon ov the *k* in 'knee,' the *g* in 'gnaw' and the *gh* in 'light' and 'enough'—which actyuali du represent oeld English pronunsiaishonz—but the defens he sets up wil in aul probabiliti be baist not on filological but on eesthetic groundz.

Acyuratli staited the etimological argyument for irashonal speling amounts tu this. Surten pursonz edyucaited in the clasics, fiend, or profes tu fiend, a mield plezher in being remiended, az thai reed English boocs, ov the Latin or Greek sorsez tu which meni English wurdz trais thair orijin, and thai rezent chainjez which, thai imajin, wood depriev them ov this intelektual luesyuri.

I confes miself a sceptic in this mater. I am inclind tu suspect that cultyurd peepl, when reeding for profit or deliet, veri, veriraili so much as thinc ov the derivaishon ov wurdz. But if we alou the fulest wait tu the

argyument; if we graant that the plezher in recogniezing Latin and Greek orijinz in English wurdz whenever and whairever met, iz jenyuinli eespeerienst bi cultyurd pursonz, we mai haisen tu ashuur them that simplified speling leevz this particyular sors ov enjoinment for the moest part undisturbd, for in the grait majoriti ov caisez Latin and Greek loen-wurdz wil be az redili recogniezabl in the simplified az in the curent form. But wer it utherviez; wer it nesesari tu aase edyucaited peepl tu sacrifices this smaul luesyuri tu the jeneral good, wood the recwest be wun which a sensibl and hyumain purson shood for an instant hesitait tu graant? Wil eniwun seerinsli maintain that the sacrifices ov a triefling plezher which, it it be jenyuinli felt at aul, can be enjoid oenli bi a smaul minoriti, iz a consideraishon sufisient tu justifie us forgo'ing, or eevn delaiing, a reform maicing directli and indirectli for increest efishensi and the good ov aul fyutyur jeneraishonz ov English speeing peepl?

Thair iz no doubt that a veri larj number ov Indian teecheرز fuli recogniez the positiv eevil that iz being dun bi the inconsistensiz ov English speling, and thuroli apruv the steps nou taicen for reform. We hav evidens ov this in our Braanch roel ov memberz; but tho this evidens iz gratifying, we hav reezon tu beleev that the number ov teecheرز hu apruv and wish suces tu our aimz, iz not bi eni meenz represented in the list. Meni hav riten and oepenli eesprest the fulest apruval, hu hav notwithstanding faild tu join the Sosiety; and thair must be meni mor ov hum we noe nothing. I shood liec tu maic a veri urjent apeel tu thoez hu ar with us in hart not tu delai tu bair witnes tu us in the oenli efectyual wai—bi becoming incorporaited in our Sosiety. If this muvmment iz tu advaans tu suces we must hav behiend us a multityud ov supporterz hu hav not oenli maid profeshon ov thair faith, but hav

maid the smaul sacrifices which we aase and which iz absolyutli esenshal if the cauz iz tu goe forward. The sacrifices iz so smaul az scairli tu be wurthi ov being cauld a sacrifices at aul. Fiev shilingz a yeer from thoez hu ar fairli wel of in this worldz goodz, wun shiling a yeer from thoez hu ar les prosperus—it iz shuurli not much tu demaand from eni individyual; and yet if a multityud ov individyualz respond, it wil meen veri much tu a cauz which iz for the good ov edyucaishon, for the good ov India, for the good ov aul English-speeing peeplz. I thairfor beg the Indian teecher not tu delai. Du not wait eeven for a form ov aplicaishon. Maic yuer oen form: eni sort ov form wil du: this for ecjzaampl. "I wish tu becum a ful (or asoesiait) member ov the S. I. Braanch ov the S. S. S. and send heerwith Rs. 3-12 (or Anaz 12) az mi first anyuel subscripshon." Ad yuer naim, ocyupaishon and adres, and post tu the On. Trezherer, E. W. Middlemast, Esq., "Bishop's Gardens," Adyar, Madras.

THE VERNACULAR AND THE CLASSICAL STYLE IN ENGLISH PROSE.*

1. RISE OF PROSE AS A LITERARY TYPE.

As poetry seems to have developed out of song, prose as a literary type seems to have developed out of conversation. Oratory must have served as the intermediate stage. Set speeches must have partaken of the graces of early poetry and something of the conventions of later prose. In conversation there is the lack of formality, the venturing to exhibit in undress one's thoughts, less exactness of grammar and greater brevity in the words and phraseology used and the sentences are simpler and shorter and more varied in construction than in written composition. Again the transitions of ideas by casual suggestions are

* A lecture delivered at the Presidency College by Mr. K. B. Ramanathan, M.A., B.L., L.T., F.M.U., at a meeting of the South Indian Branch of the English Association held on the 14th inst.

more rapid and there is less of what may be called logical sequaciousness of ideas. The style of conversation varies according to the occasion and the culture of the men engaged in it. The colloquial language of the educated is the underlying norm of the prose of literature. But it is not prose and any attempt to identify one with the other must be regarded more as a protest against prose departing far from the norm than as true to the foot of the letter.

Historically poetry had the start of prose and hence in the early development of prose it will be noticed that prose tricks itself with beauties proper to poetry and a manly, severe, workmanlike prose equal to all the exigencies of the modern need for expression is a comparatively late product.

2. TWO STYLES.

In English literature prose has a long pedigree and enthusiasts may go up to the laws of Ise in the 7th century for the first beginnings of prose.† I do not propose to recount the history of prose now. I want to call your attention to the fact that the prose of English literature has exhibited two distinct manners, one elaborate and ornate and another simple and plain. This is observable much earlier than the time of Bishop Sprat who refers to the simple style as the particular aim of the Royal Society to cultivate among its members. He is suspicious of eloquence, tropes and flowers of rhetoric, of "this vicious abundance of phrase, this trick of metaphors, this volubility of tongue, which makes so great a noise in the world." The aim of the Royal Society was, he says, "to reject all the amplifications, digressions and swellings of style; to return back to the primitive purity, and shortness, when men delivered so many things, almost in an equal number of words. They have exacted from all their members a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses; a native easiness: bringing all things as near the

† (Earle's A.S. Lit. 151 and Earle's Prose 370).

mathematical plainness as they can; and preferring the language of artizans, countrymen and merchants, before that of wits and scholars." Here we notice a protest in favour of a simple style by a contemporary of Jeremy Taylor and Milton; one similar to the protest of Wordsworth against the degenerate classicism of the later 18th century.

These two styles I would call the vernacular and the classical though meticulous criticism might advance objections.

3. THEIR CHARACTERISTICS.

The characteristic points of difference of the two styles will be found in diction and in grammar. The simple style prefers generally words of native origin and if romance words are employed they are words of Anglo-French origin. To illustrate the distinction here are two quotations: The first is from Bunyan: 'Now I beheld in my dream, that they had not journeyed far, but the river and the way for a time parted. At which they were not a little sorry, yet they durst not go out of the way. Now the way from the river was rough, and their feet tender by reason of their travels; so the souls of the pilgrims were much discouraged, because of the way. Wherefore still as they went on they wished for a better way. Now a little before them, there was on the left hand of the road, a meadow and a stile to go over into it and that meadow is called By-path meadow. Then said Christian to his fellow, if this meadow lieth along by our way side, let us go over into it. Then they went to the stile to see, and behold a path lay along by the way on the other side of the fence. It is according to my wish said Christian, here is the easiest going; come good Hopeful, and let us go over.*'

The paragraph has 175 words and the words of romamace origin are: Journey, river, part, tender, reason, travel, pilgrim, discourage, because, Christian, fence, according: 14 words, i.e. 8 p.c.

* Pilgrim's Progress: Hutchison, p. 121.

Take a passage of nearly equal length from Sir Thomas Browne's *Religio Medici*:† These opinions I never maintained with pertinacity or endeavoured to enveigh any man's belief unto mine, nor so much as ever revealed or disputed them with my dearest friends; by which means I neither propagated them in others nor confirmed them in myself; but suffering them to flame upon their substance, without addition of new fuel, they went out insensibly of themselves. Therefore their opinions, though condemned by law councils, were not heresies in me, but bare errors, and single lapses of my understanding, without a joint depravity of my will. Those have not only depraved understandings, but diseased affections, which cannot enjoy a singularity without an heresie or be the author of an opinion without they be of a sect also. This was the villainy of the first schism of Lucifer, who was not content to err alone, but drew into his faction many legions of spirits; and upon this experience he tempted only Eve, as well understanding the communicable nature of sin, and that to deceive but one, was tacitly and after consequence to delude them both.

Here out of 180 words employed 49 words are of romance origin.

In Skeat's *Principles of Etymology*, 2nd Series, pp. 19 and 20, there are two quotations from Schele de Vere, one a specimen of pure English in which no foreign words occur and another crowded with words of French origin. They are descriptive and illustrative of the two kinds of vocabulary we have in English. They are too long to quote and I must be content with this reference to them. The unborrowed words are "the names of the elements and their changes of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily actions and posture, the commonest animals, the words used in earliest childhood, the ordinary terms of

† (p. 16 G. T. Edn.,)

traffic, the constituent words in proverbs, the designation of kindred, the simpler emotions of the mind, terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective and anger." For purposes of philosophic and scientific thinking the romance elements of the language are necessary. Lord Brougham advised that students ought to cultivate the Saxon part of the language rather than the Latin. Any exclusiveness of the kind would not be advisable. De Quincey poohpoohs it as nonsense. Both kinds of diction are necessary for the purpose of expressing our thoughts and to look askance at these words that have got naturalised in English and to avoid their use would be as wise as resolving to hop on one foot instead of walking in a normal way or to use only the right hand and not the left. Such Teutonising purism is now of the past.

Let us examine how the two strands of English speech are utilised for purposes of Description, Narration, Exposition and Persuasion.

In Description what gives vividness to it, helps the reader to visualise the scene or help him to form a coherent picture of the whole, is concrete imagery. The language of concrete imagery is generally Anglo-Saxon. The broad outline, the bird's-eye view is best given with the help of romance words. Take Gibbon's Description of Arabia.* The opening sentence gives the outline: "In the vacant space between Persia, Syria, Egypt and Ethiopia, the Arabic peninsula may be conceived as a spacious and irregular triangle." The rest of the description is generic. There are few individualising touches. "From the northern point of Beles on the Euphrates, a line of fifteen hundred miles is terminated by the Straits of Babelmandeb and the land of *frank-incense*, and so on: Arabia is destitute of navigable rivers which fertilise the soil and convey its produce to the adjacent regions—the torrents that fall from the hills are imbibed by the thirsty Earth: the rare and hardy

* Adam's Bain's Rhetoric, p. 817.

plants, the *tamarind* or the *acacia* that strike their roots into the depths of the rocks are nourished by the dews of the night, &c." The concrete pictures suggested are of outlandish things—frank incense, tamarind and acacia—hence the names are foreign.

Compare it with—Caryle's Description of Schlesien:

"Schlesien, what we call Silesia, lies in *elliptic* shape, spread on the top of Europe, partly girt with mountains, like the *crown* or *crest* to that part of the earth;—highest *tableland* of Germany, or of the Cis Alpine mountains; and *sending rivers into all the seas*....It is a fine, fertile, useful and beautiful country. It leans sloping to the east and to the north; a long curved buttress of mountains holding it up on the South and West sides. This giant mountain range—shapes itself like a *bill-hook* (or *elliptically* as was said) *hand and hook* together some two hundred miles in length." I would call your attention to the difference of effect between *elliptical* and *like a bill-hook*. Later on is the following: "Multiplex industry besung by rushing torrents and the swift young rivers, *nestles* itself high up and from *wheat-husbandry, madder and maize-husbandry, to damask weaving, metallurgy, charcoal burning, tar-distillery, Schlesien has many trades*." This accumulation of particulars helps the vivid realisation of the scene described. Carlyle delights as a Romantic in concrete pictures and Gibbon as a classic in broad and comprehensive views. The besetting sin of the Romantics is—says Prof. Raleigh—the employment of excessive or irrelevant or grotesque detail, the besetting sin of the classics is so complete an omission of realistic detail that the description becomes inflated, windy and empty. The first is the sin of those who use the vernacular style the second of those who use the classic style.†

The type of literature in which Narration

† Raleigh's Milton, 226.

plays the most important part—history. De Quincey divides,* into narrative, scenical and philosophical. The last two would come under the heads of exposition and description. We shall now confine ourselves to the narrative division. Macaulay and Carlyle who excel in vivid narration give concrete details and though neither consciously aim at a vernacular style as a matter of principle they become racy and vernacular as often as they begin to warm up. In illustration I would refer to 'The Siege of Londonderry' of Macaulay's and 'The Third Voting,' † in Carlyle's French Revolution. The dramatic presentment and vivacious vigour of these historians would not be consistent with the colder temperament and staid gait of the classical historian. Motley the historian, of the Dutch Republic, Froude in the epic narration of the defeat of the Armada may also be compared with Lecky and Seeley. There is a great deal in the particular views of history favoured by the writers and in the treatment adopted. Making allowance for these differences the vivid parts of the narration in the best writers show a decided vernacularity of diction.

Exposition is not favourable for the vernacular side of the language. Even here there are occasions where the simple Anglo-Saxon words have a chance. These are where concrete instances have to be brought in by way of illustration. Much will depend on the nature of the subject itself. The skilful expositor will have the best chance of impressing the truths on the reader if he can bring in homely imagery, accumulate concrete particulars in elucidating general notions and comprehensive propositions. Hume wishing to prove that men instinctively revolt from inflicting gratuitous pain asks: Would any man, in walking along, tread as willingly on the *gouty* toes of another man that he has no quarrel with, as on the hard flint and

pavement? Whately advising an orator not to make a refutation stronger than is sufficient states that in driving wedges into a block of wood to split it, too hard a blow will throw out the wedge.

In the department of Persuasion—pre-eminently the department of rhetoric according to the Greeks—feelings have to be appealed to. They can be best appealed to in vernacular speech. In persuasion by simple communication, there is either Description, Narrative or Exposition to be used. In persuasion by argument the arts of exposition come in again. There is nothing new to be said with regard to these matters. So there remains persuasion through the feelings where the vernacular side of the language has its chance. On this aspect of the vernacular diction De Quincey has something pertinent to say: "Pathos, in situations which are homely, or at all connected with domestic affections, naturally feels by Saxon words. Lyrical emotion of every kind, which (to merit the name of Lyrical) must be in a state of flux and reflux, or generally, of agitation, also requires the Saxon element of our language. And why? Because the Saxon is the aboriginal element; the basis and not the superstructure; consequently it comprehends all the ideas which are natural to the heart of man, and to the elementary situations of life. And, although the Latin often furnishes us with duplicates of these ideas, yet the Saxon or the monosyllabic part has the advantage of precedency in our use and knowledge; for it is the language of the nursery whether for rich or poor, in which great philological academy no toleration is given to words in 'o'sity' and 'ation.'"

So far for diction. Coming to another and a more important point of difference between the Vernacular and the Classical Styles, there are certain points of grammar characteristic of each.

In the matter of accident vernacular verbs belong mainly to the so-called 'irregular' conjugation. The tendency however is to make all

verbs conform to the regular way of forming past tenses and past participles. Familiarity with literature and unbroken literary tradition and the schoolmaster stand in the way of Cobbett-like advocates regularising more largely than ever these verbs.

It is in syntax however that some important features of difference have to be noticed. Dr. Murray* notices that in Earliest English the order of words in a sentence was almost Germanic. French influence has brought about the modern order of words. Those familiar with French and German know that in translating from those languages there need be the least departure from the order of words in French but in German the sentences have to be almost reconstituted, the shifting of the verb disturbing the centre of gravity of the sentence. Except for a few unimportant inversions there is no difference with regard to the order of words in the two styles before us.

The sentence length in those using the vernacular style is generally less than in those using the classical style. The latter familiar with classical syntax have long sentences where various clauses are in subordination to the main clause. Parataxis, co-ordinate structure as sow well, reap well, is more in favour with vernacular habits of speech than hypotaxis or complex structure where the clauses are duly subordinated to the main sentence. The number of short sentences that appear in the middle of Macaulay's paragraphs may be regarded as a kind of atavistic reversion to the earlier syntax. The long sentence is generally a favourite with those classically trained and faithful to classical traditions. See the illustrations in Earle's English Prose from Sir Arthur Helps, Lowell and Ruskin. Shorter sentences are generally the rule in those who use the vernacular style.

The use of words with reference to their derivation like Milton's 'Capital secret' is com-

mon enough in the classical stylist. Turns of phrase reminiscent of Latin idioms—as in Clarendon's 'Ill success was heavily borne' (*graviter ferre*) are also common. More pertinent to our purpose are such Latinisms: the use of *him* or *his* with a demonstrative force as: Every man there considered only what application would be most like to raise his own fortune or to do him harm with whom he was angry '*ei nocere cui irascetur*'; II. 130; "He made so great a show of civility and modesty and humility and always of mistrusting his own judgment, and of esteeming his with whom he conferred for the present." The use of *who* for *and he* as in Scott's Guy Mannering: "A large glass of claret was offered to Mannering who drank it to the health of the reigning prince"—is due to the influence of Latin.

The absolute participle *was* favoured by the authors who were swayed by the classical tradition; and was but sparingly used by authors whose style was essentially English.†

There is the Anglicism that Dryden improved out of his Essay on Dramatic Poesy—"the age I live in" and the colloquial barbarism Dr. Johnson condemns—the omission of the relative pronouns; and the use of *that* in preference to *who* or *which* all characteristic of those faithful to the vernacular tradition.

I have indicated enough to differentiate the two styles.

4. REPRESENTATIVES OF THE TWO STYLES.

The blending of the two elements has been so thorough and the influence of the classical grammar has so thoroughly permeated the language that it needs some effort to discriminate between the English and the classical manner. And long usage naturalises alien habits of speech—in the way of diction or grammar. And it is perhaps difficult to say of any writer that his style is altogether home-brewed and

* Vol. XII, Charlemagne.

† Craik's Prose, Vol. V. p. 385.

* Art; English Language, Encyc. Brit., XI Edn.

† Ross quoted by Jespersen, p. 129. Growth and Structure of the E. Language.

has nothing of the bouquet of the Latin vintage or that he is altogether classical and not occasionally vernacular. In many cases the style is an intertissued robe of the vernacular and the classical. Still we can safely say that writers like Hugh Latimer, John Bunyan, Daniel Defoe or William Cobbett represent the vernacular style in English literature and that Hooker, Milton, Johnson and DeQuincey represent the classical manner.

Let us examine this passage from Latimer: most of you must be familiar with it. I choose it because of some of the difficulties it presents and because it does not readily fit in with what I said before with regard to diction.*

And now I would ask a strange question; who is the most diligentest bishop and prelate in all England, that passeth all the rest in doing his office? I can tell, for I know who it is; I know him well. But now I think I see you listening and hearkening that I should name him. There is one that passeth all the other, and is the most diligent prelate and preacher in all England. And will you know who it is? I will tell you; it is the devil. He is the most diligent preacher of all others; he is never out of his diocese; he is never from his cure; ye shall never find him unoccupied; he is ever in his parish; he keepeth residence at all times; ye shall never find him out of the way, call for him when you will, he is ever at home; the diligentest preacher in all the realm; he is ever at his plough; no lording or loitering can hinder him; he is ever applying his business, ye shall never find him idle I warrant you. And his office is to hinder religion, to maintain superstition, to set up idolatry, to teach all kind of popery. He is ready as can be wished for to set forth his plough; to devise as many ways as can be to deface and obscure God's glory. When the

devil is resident and hath his plough going, then away with books and up with candles; away with bibles and up with beads; away with the light of the gospel, and up with the light of candles, yea, at noon-days. When the devil is resident, that he may prevail, up with all superstition and idolatry; censuring, painting of images, candles, palms, ashes, holy water, and new service of man's inventing; as though man could invent a better way to honour God with, than God himself hath appointed. Down with Christ's cross, up with purgatory pick purse, up with him, the popish purgatory, I mean. Away with clothing the naked, the poor and impotent, up with decking of images, and gay garnishing of stocks and stones: up with man's traditions and his laws, down with God's traditions and his most holy word. Down with the old honour due to God, and up with the new God's honour. Let all things be done in Latin; there must be nothing but Latin, not so much as *memento homo quod cinis es, et in cinerem reverteris*, (ashes) which be the words that the minister speaketh unto the ignorant people, when he giveth them ashes upon Ash-Wednesday but it must be spoken in Latin. God's word may in no wise be translated into English.

There are two facts to notice here. It is a sermon with none of the conventional formality and heaviness we associate with the word. It is a straight talk to the men assembled to hear the preacher. There is the easy manner, short sentences succeeding one another with staccato effect, the homely colloquial manner of every day speech. Irony and sarcasm form the savour of the rather plain dish. Because of the subject matter there were many words of Latin origin relating to church and religion.

Macaulay states with his characteristic vigour that Bunyan's homely dialect—the dialect of plain working men was sufficient for magnificence, for pathos, for vehement exhortation, for subtle disquisition, for every purpose of the

poet, the orator, and the divine. Minto points out that it is erroneous to call Bunyan's vocabulary the vocabulary of the common people: it is not the every day language of hinds and tinkers; it is the language of the church, of the Bible, of Foxe's Book of Martyrs.

I don't propose to quote from Defoe. Minto gives an adequate analysis of his style. As all plain writers he used pungent irony to give relish to his style. And this irony brought him into trouble. His supremacy in narrative must be obvious to all readers of his stories.

William Cobbett is not as well known as he deserves to be. As Mr. Justice Stephen says he had a genius for plain vigorous writing. In his grammar which he wrote in the form of letters to his son James, he thus shows his predilection for vernacular words. After referring to the etymology of orthography, he proceeds: "The use of foreign words in this manner was introduced at the time when the English language was in a very barbarous state; and, though this use has been continued; it ought to be a rule with you, always, when you either write or speak, to avoid the use of any foreign or uncommon word, if you can express your meaning as fully and clearly by an English word in common use." This precept he followed it himself. His grammar is most entertaining, which cannot be said of grammar generally. By way of application of the rules of grammar he has interesting notes on the King's Speech in his letter XXII: Errors and Nonsense in a King's speech, in letter XXIV on the speaker of the House of Commons' speech, etc. I would bespeak your indulgence for a quotation or two from another work which deserves to be widely known, his Rural Rides: The opening of the beach leaves is the signal for the pheasant to crow, for the black-bird to whistle, and the thrush to sing, and just when the oak buds begin to look reddish, and not a day before, the whole tribe of finches burst forth in songs from every bough, while the lark, imitating

them all, carries the joyous sounds to the sky. Another descriptive bit (Nov. 30, Dorking) is the following: This pretty valley of Chilworth has a run of water which comes out of the high hills, and which, occasionally, spreads into a pond; so that is in fact a series of ponds connected by this run of water. This valley, which seems to have been created by a bountiful Providence, as one of the choicest retreats of man, which seems formed for a scene of innocence and happiness, has been, by ungrateful man, so perverted as to make it instrumental in effecting two of the most damnable of purposes; in carrying into execution two of the most damnable inventions that ever sprang from the minds of man under the influence of the devil, namely, the making of *gun powder* and of *bank notes*! Here is this tranquil spot, where the nightingales are to be heard earlier and later in the year than in any other part of England, when the first bursting of the buds is seen in spring, where no vigour of seasons can ever be felt; where everything seems formed for precluding the very thought of wickedness: here has the devil fixed on as one of the seats of his grand manufactory; and perverse and ungrateful man not only lends him his aid, but lends it cheerfully." There are delightful anecdotes as of the famous shooter Wm. Ewing of Philadelphia and other things which will reward the reader.

Now for illustrations of the stately, classical manner. First comes judicious Hooker. There is an 'elaborate collocation' of the period in the following: Though for no other cause, yet for this, that posterity may know we have not loosely, through silence, permitted things to pass away as in a dream, there shall be for men's information, extant this much concerning the present state of the church of God established among us, and their careful endeavours which would have upheld the same.

Latin influence is pretty clear in the following: And beyond seas, of them which fled in the days of Queen Mary, some contenting themselves

* Latimer's Sermons, Life, Vol. I, p. 66, ed. John Watkins.

abroad with the use of their own service book at home authorised before their departure out of the realm, others liking better the common prayer book of the Church of Geneva translated, those smaller contentions before begun were by this means somewhat increased.

As a favourable specimen of the long periods of Hooker may be taken the following: "Now if nature should intermit her course, and leave altogether though it were but for a while the observation of her own laws; if those principal and mother elements of the world, where of all things in this lower world are made, should lose the qualities they now have; if the frame of that heavenly arch erected over our heads should loosen and dissolve itself, if celestial spheres should forget their wonted motions, and by irregular volubility turn themselves any way as it might happen, if the prince of the lights of heaven which now as a giant doth run his unwearied course should as it were through a languishing faintness begin to stand and to rest himself; if the moon should wander from her beaten way, the times and seasons of the year blend themselves by disordered and confused mixture, the winds breathe out their last gasp, the clouds yield no rain, the earth be defeated of heavenly influence, the fruits of the earth pine away as children at the withered breasts of their mother no longer able to yield them relief: what would become of man himself, whom all these things now do all serve? See we not plainly that obedience of creatures unto the law of nature is the stay of the whole world?" Fuller's description will be felt to be apt: "His style was long and pithy, drawing on a whole flock of clauses before he came to the close of a sentence."

Prof. Saintsbury refers to the unduly laboured vocabulary, the unduly Latinised syntax and to the enormously long sentences of Milton's Prose. I give a paragraph from the less

known Eikonoklastes—in illustration, not from Areopagitica or the Tractate on Education—which I expect all to have read: "The people, exorbitant and excessive in all their motions are prone oft times not to a religious only, but to a civil kind of idolatry, in idolizing their kings: though never more mistaken in the object of their worship; heretofore being wont to repute for saints those faithful and courageous barons who lost their lives in the field, making glorious war against tyrants for the common liberty; Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, against Henry III; Thomas Plantaganet, Earl of Lancaster against Edward II. But now, with a besotted and degenerate baseness of spirit, except some few who yet retain in them the old English fortitude and love of freedom and have testified it by their matchless deeds, the rest imbarstardized from the ancient nobleness of their ancestors, are ready to fall flat, and give adoration to the image and memory of this man, who hath offered at more cunning fetches to undermine our liberties, and put tyranny into an art, than any British king before him. Which low dejection and debasement of mind in the people, I must confess, I cannot willingly ascribe to the natural disposition of an English man, but rather to two other causes; first to the prelates and their fellow teachers, though of another name and sect, whose pulpit-stuff, both first and last hath been the doctrine and perpetual infusion of servility and wretchedness to all their bearers, and whose lives the type of worldliness and hypocrisy, without the least true pattern of virtue, righteousness or self-denial in their whole practice. I attribute it, next to the factious inclination of most men divided from the public by several ends and humours of their own."

Mark Pattison doubts if it were wise for Milton to throw himself into the pamphleteering war and give up to prose what time he should have reserved for poetry. As to the larger ques-

tion whether Milton did well in entering on the political conflict and whether it was not better to have stood by the wall till the storm passed by, this is not the occasion to consider it. As to the service the exercise in prose did to Milton there can be no question. Just as the wit combats at the Mermaid formed the exercising ground for Shakespeare's genius, as the tavern chair did a similar service to Samuel Johnson, so the pamphleteering war gave Milton full command of the resources of the English tongue. He did not despise the vernacular side of the language. Says Prof. Raleigh: "A full-bodied and picturesque dictionary might be made of the words that occur only in the prose. Most of these words would be found to derive from the Saxon stock which yields him almost all his store of invective and vituperation. The resources of his Latin vocabulary enable him to rise by successive gyrations to a point of vantage above his prey, and then the downward rush that strikes the quarry is a Saxon monosyllable."*

Reference may be made to Johnson and De Quincey—knowledge with their writings may be presumed. The Latinised diction, the long sentence and its periodic structure are easily observable. Minto gives an extreme example of 'Johnsonese' and gives a simpler rendering of it. As the passage is not long I will quote it.

"The proverbial oracles of our parsimonious ancestors have informed us that the fatal waste of fortune is by small expenses, by profusion of sums too little singly to alarm our caution, and which we never suffer ourselves to consider together. Of the same kind is the prodigality of life; he that hopes to look back hereafter with satisfaction upon past years, must learn to know the present value of single minutes and endeavour to let no particle of time fall useless to the ground." "Take care of the pennies," says the thrifty old proverb, "and the pounds will take care of themselves." In like manner

* Milton, p. 77.

we might say, take care of the minutes, and the years will take care of themselves. Johnson's later style forms an interesting contrast to his earlier one. How good his 'Lives' are the readers know. Boswell has unwittingly obscured his idol.

I do not propose to quote from De Quincey and with regard to his style. I must be content with referring to the analysis of it given in Minto's Prose Literature.

5. A HISTORIC SURVEY.

In his poetry Chaucer exemplifies his mastery of the racy conversational idiom of the cultured society of the day. His prose shows that it is an inept medium of his thought. He exhibits an imperfect mastery of the art of prose composition. His *Astrolabe* is interesting as an early example of science receiving literary treatment. As a poet writing in an uncogent medium, he is unable to free himself from poetic trappings of rhythm and metre, long-drawn similes and other flowers of speech. The vernacular style shows its competency for purposes of invective in Wyclif's writings and in those of his itinerant preachers. Mandeville uses the style for purposes of narrative. Pecoock uses it for downright argument. He tentorises in a way that would evoke the admiration of Freeman or Barnes. Capgrave may be described as a less poetic Mandeville. He has short, simply linked sentences. Latimer is the latest writer of the vernacular mode in the pre-Elizabethan period.

Malory is the first great classic and representative of the ornate style. Lord Berners comes next as the translator of Froissart's *Chronicles* and of *Huon of Bordeaux*. Fisher, the classical scholar, pays attention to the rhetorical arrangement and the logical construction of the paragraph. He utilises the Saxon and the Romance elements of the language by coupling them together in happy collocations. Chaucer had exemplified it earlier: "In troth and honour, freedom and curteisye." The melodious arrangement of words characteristic of Cranmer and Coverdale exhibits itself

* Vol. I, Chapter I, iii, 2 p. 155: Clarendon Press.

in the Prayer Book and in the English version of the Bible. Ascham is a studious seeker of a plain style of a classical type. In his prose, the clause, the sentence and the paragraph are framed on classical models. His sedulous avoidance of ink-horn terms, and the parallelism and antithesis he affected made his style tame, common and insipid.

Lyly's euphuism may be regarded as a revolt against such tendencies of classicism. His style is ornate and fantastic, full of classical savour with a strong dash of vernacularity. Elizabethan prose may fitly close with Hooker who may be regarded as the finest flower of classicism.

Raleigh and Bacon live far into the next reign and exhibit the same classical learnings.

Burton with his long sentences and loose syntax, Jeremy Taylor with his magnificent rhetoric and hopeless grammar, Milton and Sir Thomas Browne, Clarendon with his sentences of many parentheses and no punctuation and resulting awkwardness of syntax are the writers of the classical manner in the 17th century. On the other side may be mentioned Ben Jonson who anticipates Dryden in many ways, Hobbes, Baxter, Walton, Cowley, Halifax and Bunyan. They approximate to the modern manner and Dryden is the greatest writer of prose in the period. There are classical scholars among them, but scholarship in their case does not vitiate their style.

If Sprat protested against the rank luxuriance of the classical style, the vernacular style showed it had its sloughs of despond in the vulgar familiarities and coarse billingsgate of L'Estrange, Tom Brown and Dunton. Swift and Addison protested each in his way, against this degeneracy.

Among writers of plain style in the 18th century must be mentioned Daniel Defoe, Bernard Mandeville and Swift, and Bentley whose classical scholarship did not stand in the way of his using a homely and familiar style. A writer of the plain style of the Latin and French type is

Congers Middleton. Addison stands midway between the two kinds of stylists. Then comes Goldsmith. Dr. Johnson, Gibbon, Hume and Burke are the exponents of the classical manner.

The difficulty of demarcating the styles and making out whether a particular writer belongs to the one or the other class is felt more and more with the progress of time and of culture. Still I would venture to bring this cursory view to a close by mentioning that among the racy, vernacular stylists must be included writers like Jane Austen, Lamb, Leigh Hunt, Hazlitt, Cobbett and Huxley. The writers of the exotic, classical manner are represented by Landor, Macaulay, M. Arnold, Newman, Ruskin, and Pater Southey in an earlier generation adjusted happily the vernacular and the scholarly as Thackeray seems to do it most charmingly for a later generation. And in Froude we have the greatest master of a plain style, almost mannerless and equal to all the needs of narration, description and exposition.

6.

Let me turn to a practical application of the question. There was a reference earlier to Lord Brougham's advice to the students of Glasgow University and to the futility of such advice being followed. A good part of the Romance words introduced early into the language came to be thoroughly incorporated into the language and it is abundantly clear that the words of foreign origin found in Chaucer had already established themselves and were familiar to the people as household words. Chaucer, the popular poet that he was, had no doubt his share in still further popularising them and making them an integral part of the language. As regards the use of these words the greatest stickler for the purity of English diction or the raciness of its idiom cannot raise any objection. Even as regards the latest intruders, once they elbow their way into conversation and literature and their Brahmanhood is recognised by the Vasitha-like author:

ity of the cultured ranks there is no denouncing their use any further.

Indian students of English literature from the inevitable conditions of life here are more conversant with literature that appeals to them through the printed word than with the speech as spoken by cultivated English men and English women. Hence the occasional non-naturalness of their use of the English tongue, hence their ignorance of the nuances of the meanings of words, hence the portentous pedantry of Indian Fluellens that furnish themes of merriment to the critics. The Indian must be new and then guilty of committing the fault that the child Macaulay did, when, being asked if his finger was better, he said "the agony had abated." The infant prodigy had read more than his contemporaries and he was not enough conversant with the vernacular speech.

It may be useful to indicate how any one may become acquainted with racy idiomatic vernacular English. Poets use more of the Anglo-Saxon element of the English vocabulary than prose writers. It is not a bad thing to cultivate familiarity with poets. The snare of archaisms and poetical turns of phrase must be avoided. The prose drama like those of Goldsmith and Sheridan and Bernard Shaw present delightful specimens of vernacular English at its wittiest and best. Letters like those of Mrs. Montagu, Gray, Walpole, Cowper, Edward Fitzgerald and Stevenson must not be neglected. The delightful child literature of Kipling, Lewis Carroll and Mrs. Ewing may be mentioned and the Indian grown-ups may derive pleasure and profit from the study of such literature.

Then there are the novels—the only form of literature that the majority of those who step out of schools and colleges keep in touch with. The dialogues and conversational parts in the better kind of novels are closer to the vernacular speech than the rest of the novel. And there are novelists like Thackeray whose style recalls

the conversational turn every now and then as there are writers like Macaulay whose style has an oratorical basis. A careful study of such literature may go a great way to remove the disabilities under which Indian students of the English tongue labour.

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS OF THE GREEKS.*

This subject may seem to be one of no direct or practical interest to a great many of my readers. We stand in no direct relation to the ancient Greeks. It may have a passing interest to the VI Form students who are reading the *Retreat* of the famous *Ten Thousand*. And no doubt it is a part of a wise scheme of education that makes the youth in our secondary schools familiar with the Myths of Hellas, the Adventures of Ulysses, the Wars of Troy, and again with the Spanish conquest of the old and powerful tribe of the Aztecs of Mexico. Thus we get our sympathies broadened and we learn from peoples of bygone ages and of distant climes many lessons of moral and political virtue.

The ancient Greeks about whom we are to think this evening were a significant and peculiar race, small in numbers but with a distinct history, stretching through long centuries of time: a nation that when conquered by the rising power of Rome succeeded in infusing much of its own spirit and life and thought and civilisation into the institutions of the conquering nations, so that it was said: "*Captive Greece took captive her rude conqueror.*" And not only upon Rome but upon all the subsequent history of Europe has Greece had a marked influence, and this not only because of her own greatness and glory, but because of her power of expression of these qualities. Babylon was great, the Phenicians were great, Egypt was great, but these failed to

* The substance of a lecture delivered by Principal Henry Huizinga, M.A., Ph.D., under the auspices of the Coles Memorial Literary Association.

influence the world for any length of time largely because they lacked the power of expression possessed by the Greeks.

The ideal of the old Greek education during the earliest periods of the history of the people was two-fold, and was expressed by the terms: the man of *action* and the man of *wisdom*. The former was typified by Achilles, the latter by Ulysses. Of the former it was said that he was "Like a reaper under the strokes of whose scythe the ripe ears of corn fell helplessly to the earth; for wherever he pressed in among the ranks of the Trojans there the bodies of the fallen enemies were soon lying on the ground in heaps." But Ulysses was the man of many devices. He was the one to measure out the ground for the fight between Paris and Menelaus; he was chosen as a spy to learn the secrets of the enemy; he was awarded the arms of Achilles because of his great wisdom; he suggested the building of the wooden horse, by which stratagem, after ten years of fighting, the city of Troy was taken. Yet while these ideals were developed most highly in these separate types, the ideals themselves were not separable, but were both to be attained by each free Greek.

In old Greek education we must distinguish between *Spartan* and *Athenian* education. We have all heard of the Spartan boy, who had stolen a fox and who, when brought to trial, denied the charge though all the while the fox was hiding in his bosom and was digging its claws and its teeth through his skin and gnawing away his very vitals. The boy showed no mark of pain or distress on his face, but bore it all with fortitude, till he dropped down dead. The story, whether true or not, is typical of the aim and nature of Spartan education. The aim of this education was to give each individual such physical perfection, courage, and habits of complete obedience to the laws, that he should make the ideal soldier, unsurpassed in bravery, and become one in whom the individual is sunk in

the citizen. It was owing to this that the Spartan State possessed a *stability* and a record of military achievement unequalled by any other Greek State; the Spartan man possessed a bravery, power, endurance, and self-control, that was often wanting in other Greeks; and the Spartan youth possessed a reverential and obedient demeanour, a reserve in conduct, a stoicism under pain, more than other Greek boys.

Spartan education was conducted under the *complete control* and entirely at the *expense of the State*. Not only this but the State controlled absolutely every phase of the life of its citizens. The first seven years of his life every child was under the direct care of his mother, but after that he was taken from his home and put under the care of older boys, tutors, guardians, and governors. The boys slept in *public barracks*, they ate at common tables, they assisted in supplying the necessary food, they hunted wild animals under the direction of their elders, they took part in religious ceremonies, and the remainder of their time was spent in gymnastic exercises which constituted the chief instrument of their education.

From the age of 20 to that of 30 every man was compelled to undergo a long course of training in military discipline. Think of a *conscription* that took *ten years* out of the best period of every man's life. If there happened to be war, they joined the military camp, but in time of peace, *horribile dictu*, they were often engaged in hunting and killing the slaves of their country. At the age of 30 the youth became a man, but he still remained in complete subjection to the State. Though he became a full citizen and the head of a family, yet he continued to live in the public barracks, to eat at the common table, to serve as a teacher of the youth and a soldier in the field, faring the same as the humblest or the noblest in all the necessities and the comforts of life.

But we ask, what was the substance, the content of their education? There was very little

of what we should call education. It consisted mostly of *leaping, running, throwing the discus and the javelin, boxing, wrestling, military drill, swimming, and choral or united dancing*. They were trained in one other peculiar feature, that of speech: not oratory, as it was afterwards developed by the Greeks, nor yet discussion, or recitation, but brief repartee and ready answers. Whatever merit a youth's words did or did not possess, they must be brief and to the point. In this they were drilled by constant practice: and this characteristic has become proverbial, so much so that we have the expression, *Laconic* reply; meaning the briefest possible speech or answer. For example, when before the battle of Thermopylae, Xerxes sent to Leonidas to give up his arms, the Laconic reply was: "Come and take them." Here the brief reply contained really more than appeared on the surface; it was a challenge to fight. The following *description taken from Plutarch* will give an idea of much of the training of the Spartan youth. "The Iren (or older boy), reposing himself after supper, used to order some of the boys to sing a song; to another he put some question which required a judicious answer, for example, 'Who was the best man in the city?' or, 'What he thought of such an action?' This accustomed them from their childhood to judge of the virtues, to enter into the affairs, of their countrymen. For if one of them was asked 'Who is a good citizen, or who an infamous one?' and hesitated in his answer, he was considered a boy of slow parts, and of a soul that would not aspire to honour. The answer was likewise to have a reason assigned for it, and proof conceived in a few words. He whose account of the matter was wrong, by way of punishment had his thumb bit by the Iren. The old men and magistrates often attended these little trials, to see whether the Iren exercised his authority in a rational and proper manner. He was permitted, indeed, to inflict the penalties; but when the boys

were gone, he was to be chastised himself if he had punished them either with too much severity or remissness."

In short, the Spartans have left us a type of education that produced physical strength and endurance, a certain strength of character under a despotic system of regulation, and a citizen body strongly imbued with patriotism, that encompassed every interest and every activity of life.

Athenian education. The simplicity of the aim of education and the method of training were very much the same at Athens as at Sparta. But there was a vast difference in the carrying out of this aim, as well as in the whole outlook of life of the Athenian citizen. *Family life* was not destroyed: upon the father devolved the chief responsibility for the training of his children. The State took an interest in it but did not undertake the task. All schools were private schools. As in Sparta the first seven years of a child's life were spent at home. Then began attendance at two different classes of schools, the *gymnastic school* and the *music school*. At the former he was made to practise those physical exercises that gave him grace and beauty of form as well as bodily strength; and at the music school he learned not only music, as we understand it, but also letters and literature. During this period the child lived at home, but was for the most part under the strict supervision of a *pedagogue*, who was not the teacher but rather a man who conducted him to and from school, and was always present with him, both in and out of school. He was usually an old man, sometimes trusty but often useless, always ignorant, and never respected. He was evidently regarded by young and gay boys as a great interference to enjoyment, insisting upon punctual hours of return, and in general, keeping watch over the boys' every movement.

At the age of 16 the Athenian boy was through with school, but not with training. Now he went

to the *gymnasium* or *academy*, an institution held out in the open air, in the midst of beautiful groves and extensive gardens, where he passed his time in free association with elders and in physical contests, and in social and political discussions that prepared him for the life of an Athenian citizen. His intellectual training was largely *indirect*. Through discussion in the market, conversation at banquets, attendance upon the theatre, and the law courts, he gained the knowledge of the laws and moral customs necessary to direct his conduct. After two years of this sort of training there followed as in Sparta a period of *military discipline*, during which the youth was trained in the use of arms and in the conduct of practical affairs of the State. But while in Sparta this form of training lasted ten years, in Athens it continued for only two years. The end of the first year was signalled by a *public examination* in the use of arms, that of the second year by a similar examination upon the duties of citizenship. But the process of education was not entirely over even then. The life of the Athenian citizen was entirely for the State; and every thing, even his amusements, attendance upon the theatre, and such like, had a social aim, and was *controlled by the State*. The *entire social life became a school* in which physical perfection as well as intellectual and moral growth were constantly supervised and controlled.

The education of the Greek boy as thus obtained in gymnastic school, music school, academy and camp, was more thorough and systematic than that given in Sparta. The games and physical contests were better organised. The *syllabus of studies* was:—(1) *Jumping*; (2) *Running*; (3) *Throwing the discus*; (4) *Throwing the spear*; (5) *Wrestling*. *Jumping* developed a power of concentration of energy, and general agility. *Running* gave increased capacity of the lungs and power of endurance. *Discus throwing* developed poise and symmetry and complete co-ordination in

physical development. *Javelin-throwing* trained in precision of eye and hand. *Wrestling* was the culmination of all physical exercise, and furnished a definite training in moral qualities. Nowhere else was there such a demand for agility, for concentration of energy, for endurance, for suppleness, for quickness of perception, for ingenuity, for control of temper, for the entire subjection of the passions to the control of reason.

Literary education in the music school was not so thorough as the physical training. There was a great deal of memory work in learning by heart the Homeric poems, which were considered necessary to furnish the moral guidance, æsthetic inspiration, and practical direction for every need of life. They were also taught music, properly so called, especially playing on the lyre. But *proficiency* in such an accomplishment was not aimed at nor desired. It was considered beneath the dignity of the free-born Greek boy to spend the time and take the infinite pains that were required to become a skilled musician. This was rather *left to slaves*, who were requisitioned when good music was wanted at feasts and such occasions. Scientific knowledge, there was practically none. Arithmetic was not attempted, as that again was of too practical a nature, and was good enough for the slave. The Greek boy was to be trained first of all as a *gentleman of leisure*. For the rest, all education had a moral aim. Gymnastic education was designed to produce certain moral results, such as control of temper and the general subjection of the passions to reason; that through this training practical endurance, fortitude, courage, loyalty, devotion and a consideration for the rights of others might be developed. Concerning the moral ends of musical education, Protagoras, one of the greatest educators of the Greeks, says: "They make rhythm and harmony familiar to the souls of boys, that they may grow more gentle and graceful and harmonious, and so be of service both in words and deeds; for the whole life of man stands in need of grace and harmony."

We see from this *brief description* that the word *education* conveyed a *very different idea* to the mind of the old Greek from what it does to the modern world. Yet there is one thing that the old Greek has taught us; that we have been all too slow to learn; namely, that *education* is not so much book-learning, nor is it merely instruction in the knowledge of facts, old and new, related and unrelated. *Education is the harmonious development of all our powers*. It is the adjustment of the individual to society. It is a preparation for right living. Education is more than instruction; it is training. Education concerns the whole person, body and spirit and deals with every phase of our nature, mental, moral and physical. It prepares for life in society and is related to all the different spheres of environment.

The results of the old Greek education on their society and on the individual are best seen in the condition of Greek civilisation and culture that were attained in the fifth century, at the end of this period. It has well been styled the most brilliant period of personal achievement, and national progress, which has never been surpassed in history. In politics, in art, in literature, history, poetry and drama, in every aspect of human activity and human thought, Greece excelled all her contemporaries, and perhaps all her successors.

The significance of Greek education lies in the fact that the Greeks had a *developing conception* and standard of life. The conception of education enlarged through successive periods of their history. Change was tolerated and development of the individual was provided for. We see in this respect a marked difference between the Chinese system of education and that of the Greeks. The object of the *Chinese system* was to secure *stability*, exact conformity with the past. For 2500 years there was absolutely no change in text-book or curriculum, standard of learning or

method of examination, in the vast empire of China. What a paradise for conservatives that must have been! It is all over now, but well within the lifetime of almost the youngest of us. For but a few years ago China took her place among the nations, and began to keep step with the onward progress of the world. The extreme sentiment of *conservatism* is always opposed to innovations; and many a parent cannot tolerate the idea that his son should be educated or brought up different from the way he himself was trained in. But such notions are opposed to all progress. The Greeks tried to combine a maintenance of old ideals and the stability of the social order together with individual liberty, and initiative, such as would secure progress and development. In this respect they were far ahead of other nations of their times; and even at the present time we have found nothing better, though our method of attaining this ideal may be different from theirs.

In *The Retreat of the Ten Thousand* we have an illustration of what Greek education had accomplished for its people. Why in the first place did Cyrus dare to invade the realms of the great king of Persia with 100,000 men, when the king could easily bring against him a force of a million? Because he had among them some 10,000 free Greek soldiers. His chief reliance was upon these 10,000 Greeks, even though they were outnumbered by the enemy, 100 for each one. And it was not only because the Greeks were more skilful, better armed, better drilled, though all this counted for much. But it was because in the Greek ranks every soldier was a man, independent, intelligent, a personality highly developed and well disciplined. These went into the field of battle not as the Persian soldiers, who were often driven to the fight with the lash.

When after the death of Cyrus, the great king thought to cause the Greek troops utterly to despair and to ruin their army by cutting off their

leading men, he found that new leaders immediately rose to the occasion. Yes, among the Greeks, by the long years of his training, by the traditions of his country, by the institutions and laws of his commonwealth, by the free discussion in market and court and camp, every man was trained to be a leader.

We have found *much to praise* in the system of Greek education, and we have found also *somewhat to blame*. There were grave defects in the constitution of the Greek States and in the lives of their citizens, which we have already alluded to. In the scheme of training for life *women* were generally quite ignored. Prof. Mahaffy makes the statement that history is entirely silent about mothers in Greece who in any way influenced the moral and intellectual training of their children. But what was far worse was the position in the social order of the *masses of mankind*. Nine of every ten Greeks were denied the high privileges of the free man. The exalted ideals of life for the hundreds of Greek citizens were built upon the degradation and misery of the thousands of *slaves*, who toiled for their masters that these might have leisure, and who were sometimes rewarded by being hunted to death, for no other reason than to furnish sport for the school boy, who found in this way a sort of training that could not otherwise be obtained. It is also noteworthy that *truth and honour* found such an insignificant place in their scheme of virtue. One has but to read the Adventures of Ulysses, the man of many devices, to note this characteristic.

Lastly, reference has already been made to other forms of *immorality* too horrible to mention. Every page of Greek history not only, but almost all the records of the lives of the gods and goddesses of Olympus are stained with accounts of gross lusts and inconceivable immoralities. The Greek thought that his gods were like himself, and only such a conception was possible to a people who had no divine revelation to guide

them. Of all nations of the world the Greek nation was the most highly endowed with natural talents and intellectual ability, which have won for it universal admiration in all ages. We can learn much from them, from their failure and from their success; this our aim, that our warning.

THE REVISED REGULATIONS IN ARTS AND SCIENCE OF THE BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

THE changes which have been introduced into the Arts and Science curricula of the Bombay University and which received the sanction of the Government of Bombay in the course of the last official year have been prominently discussed in educational circles of this Presidency for some time past. Though the movement for revision was originally started mainly to improve the inadequate standards and methods of examination in Science, it soon embraced the entire courses in Science as well as those in Arts. This was not surprising to the younger generation of educationists and was quite what they had expected and earnestly wished for since their graduation. From a perusal of what follows, it will be seen by those who have watched the ferment in matters of higher education created in all the Indian provinces by the Universities Act of 1904, that the changes are undoubtedly the proximate though belated effect of the impetus given by that Act. These changes will accordingly be of considerable interest to other provinces as well where similar revision of University curricula has taken place under the same Act. We propose in this article to bring out the salient features

of the changes from the point of view of the general public without of course overlooking the claims of the educationists.

It will be acknowledged on all hands that changes such as those under consideration can take place only once in a generation and that when they come, they are always of special importance to the general public, on account of the peculiar position that University degrees occupy in India in the estimation of the Government as well as that of the public. The qualifications for entrance into the public services and the learned professions and even social position and rights especially in the educated middle classes are all to a very large extent dependent upon a University education culminating in a degree. The middle classes who flock to the Universities are of very limited means and it is only by exercising the utmost domestic economy that they equip themselves with a University education. Almost every one of the graduates turned out has to seek his livelihood immediately after leaving the University and begin too from the lowest rung of the ladder, which, by the way, is far below that from which University men in other civilised countries of the world begin. Moreover the public services and the learned professions are so over-crowded that for the beginner as trained at present it is doubtful whether the initial income is sufficient to meet the barest necessities of modern life, except by a denial of the most ordinary comforts. In these circumstances the direction, which modifications in University curricula should take, would be that which would equip the raw graduate with the higher training necessary to meet modern conditions, *i.e.*, with a better power of expression in the English language, and a greater

depth of knowledge in the special subject taken up either for following a learned profession or for acquiring the methods of thought and work necessary for a successful career in the public service, without at the same time reducing the benefits derived from the Indian classical languages whose study is necessary to avert a violent rupture from our past traditions and whose extensive works provide the current vernaculars with all their literature and most of their phraseology. How far this view of improvement entertained by the general public has been accepted in the changes under consideration will be seen from what follows.

The old course for the B.A. degree was briefly as follows:—

B.A.—(TWO YEARS' COURSE).

- I. English with Composition—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- II. Classical Language—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- III. History and Political Economy, comprising—
 - (i) History of England, Political and Constitutional—(1 paper of 3 hours).
 - (ii) History of India—(1 paper of 3 hours).
 - (iii) Political Economy—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- IV. One of six voluntary subjects—(4 papers of 3 hours each).

INTERMEDIATE—(ONE YEAR'S COURSE).

- I. English (two papers of 3 hours each).
- II. Classical Language—(one paper of 3 hours).
- III. Mathematics and Physics—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- IV. Deductive Logic—(1 paper of 3 hours).

PREVIOUS—(ONE YEAR'S COURSE).

- I. English—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- II. Classical Language—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- III. Mathematics—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- IV. History, *i.e.* of Greece or Rome—(one paper of 3 hours).

The defects urged against this curriculum were shortly—

(i) that there was *neither a proper division into well-ordered branches of study nor a rational continuity*, and that consequently there was a marked want of thoroughness;

(ii) that as a result of (i) the curriculum presented the appearance of patch-work illogical in many respects and inadequate to meet the demands of the present day which require a high standard of excellence in a special subject;

(iii) that with too few exceptions, the University had not produced graduates who had evinced capacity for original work in any of the various departments of knowledge.

Nobody who had undergone the old course of the University and settled down in life could deny the existence of the first and second defects, and those especially who had graduated in the course of the last ten years keenly felt these deficiencies which handicapped them in their struggle to meet the more exacting demands of the present day. In fact the merest cursory glance at the curriculum shows the existence of these shortcomings. A student, who came to the University to master Sanskrit language and literature, was first put under a course of mathematics with either Greek or Roman history, then there was a strong dose of higher mathematics and physics and of logic and when finally he thought he could pay a good deal of attention to his chosen

subject he was confronted with English history, political and constitutional, Indian history and administration and political economy. Similarly a student of mathematics, though he rejoiced in the mathematics and physics provided for him in the Previous and Intermediate, was taken aback by the ancient history and logic and worst of all in the B.A. degree he was made to undergo a drill of more history and of political economy. It was the same case with students of other subjects. In fact there was no provision for a student of a single philosophical subject to pursue a *continuous* course without being required at some time or other in the four years to study an irrelevant subject. The bad effects of such an arrangement are twofold. Firstly, it retards the progress of every one studying a special subject, by compelling him to study it along with others (a vast majority) who care not a twopence for it; and secondly, it disgusts him by being required to undergo a drill in a subject which is distasteful to him and is not relevant to the main object with which he entered the University. The result was a lowering of standards all round and a marked want of thoroughness. In this respect it was the syllabus of the Previous and Intermediate courses that presented the plainest appearance of discontinuous patch-work. Leaving English and second language, the importance of which nobody will deny, the other subjects prescribed were mathematics, physics, deductive logic and history of Greece and Rome in alternate years. Mathematics and physics have some relation to each other in their advanced stages; for instance, dynamics and statics, hydrostatics and optics are instances of mathematical truths applied to physical phenomena. We are not quite so sure whether either of these subjects has any connection with logic and least of all with history. The man who suggested the alternation of Greek and

Roman history must have been a genius of a high order. To ordinary mortals however it appears that the lessons learnt from the two histories are quite distinct, and it is doubtful whether a study of either history alone without a study of the other can be practically useful as a course of training. These were in short the main defects in the old curriculum.

The new regulations lay down the following curriculum:—

B.A.

- I. English Language and Literature with Composition—(3 papers of 3 hours each).
- II. One of six voluntary groups—(4 papers of 3 hours each for the Pass course and 7 papers of 3 hours each for Honours).

INTERMEDIATE.

- I. English—(3 papers of 3 hours each.)
- II. Classical Language—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- III. Indian History and Administration—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- IV. Mathematics or Logic—(2 papers of 3 hours each).

PREVIOUS.

- I. English—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- II. Classical Language—(1 paper of 3 hours).
- III. Mathematics—(2 papers of 3 hours each).
- IV. Elementary Physical Science—(1 paper of 3 hours).

The characteristic feature of the new regulations is the provision of an Honours degree which has been welcomed by all, particularly those who want to specialize in a single subject. In the ordinary Arts course which will henceforth be the Pass course, 'History and Political Economy' has been deleted from the group of compulsory subjects. This is certainly an improvement both for lovers of the subject as well as those who have a scorn for it, for the former because they can take it

up as a special subject and study it freed from the dead weight of 'slow coaches' who retarded their progress; and for the latter, because they are freed from the study of a distasteful subject. The improvement was not however effected without a strong and determined opposition from the lawyer-politician Fellows of the Senate, an opposition which seems to be most inexplicable. The fears of these public men seemed to have been that nobody would care to take up the subject if it ceased to be compulsory. Even if these fears were true, there was no justification whatever to force the subject down the throats of those who did not want it; the experiences of Madras however prove that the fears are altogether groundless. In that Presidency 'History and Political Economy' has been a purely optional subject for the last twenty years and more and yet almost half the number of graduates turned out yearly are history graduates. Another marked change in the curriculum is that a second language is no longer a compulsory subject, even for the Pass B.A. degree. This we think is a defect in the new course and not an improvement on the old one. In the case of the Honours degree one cannot object to the absence of a second language for the simple reason that the student should be required to devote all his time to the acquisition of a thorough knowledge in one special subject. The Pass course will however attract those who will mostly enter the various public services, whether Government, Local Board or Municipal, or those who will follow the learned professions of law and teaching. To all of these a second language, which will generally be either Persian or Sanskrit, is indispensable in their usual vocations. Urdu, the language of a large body of Mahomedans of the Presidency who rightly treasure it as the only glorious remnant of their great past, is wholly dependent upon Persian and the ordinary

vernaculars of the country are, as we have already stated at the commencement of this article, dependent upon Sanskrit for every fresh acquisition to their phraseology required for conveying modern ideas and thoughts to the 'vulgar multitude.' Further we think that our oriental modes of thought as well as our shortcomings which are the heritage of times past should always be well impressed upon the general army of public servants, lawyers and teachers, especially the last two. Otherwise, as the political events of the last few years have conclusively proved there will always be a likelihood of an unbalanced mind. It is therefore desirable that the earliest opportunity should be taken to restore the classical languages to their former position in the Pass B.A. course. The effects of their removal are apparent on the face of the Pass course. As Principal Paranjpye of the Fergusson College, Poona, points out, the course has become 'too meagre to form matter for two years' work and that for the Pass-man the work has been lessened by *quite three papers*.' The eminent educationist also adds that it will be found that the Pass course will prove a failure and will require *material additions* in a few years if the two years in the B.A. class are to occupy a student sufficiently. We are in entire accord with these views and we think that two of the three extra papers should be in a second language, one being confined to prescribed texts and the other to translation largely of unseen passages. The third additional paper should be in 'Indian History and Administration' which we think should be transferred from the Intermediate to the B.A. course for reasons given later on below.

The changes in the Previous and Intermediate courses though welcome are not of much importance to Arts students and the improvements are marred by half measures which on the whole leave the courses where they were. Physics has been taken from the

Intermediate to the Previous. This is not an improvement to Arts students as they have to learn it in any case. It will however be welcomed by students of medicine, engineering and agriculture and candidates for the Intermediate Science, all of whom will leave the Arts course after the first year. In the Intermediate, mathematics and logic are made alternative subjects. This is a substantial improvement as it has given an opportunity for raising the standard in both the subjects. Thus in mathematics advanced trigonometry, solid geometry, analytical geometry excluding oblique axes and elementary differential calculus are indeed very large additions. In logic also it appears a high standard is expected. These advanced standards in the optional subjects, we think, require a reduction in the number of compulsory subjects in the Intermediate course, which now seems to be rather overloaded. It is mainly for this reason that we have advocated the transfer of 'Indian History and Administration' to the Pass B.A. course which can very well welcome the new-comer. Further it is to be remembered that the Intermediate is the last stage in which Honours B.A. men will study a second language as such, and we think that the room vacated by 'Indian History and Administration' can be very well occupied by an additional paper in the second language dealing mainly with translation of unseen passages. There is a further slight improvement that will suggest itself to every one and that is, the addition of 'Ancient History,' (*i.e.* of Greece and Rome) as an optional along with mathematics and logic. The addition of this will be welcomed by all taking history and economics as optionals for the B.A. degree. Under the present arrangement the B.A. history students will be handicapped by the want of an elementary knowledge of ancient history while those taking languages, mathematics and philosophy are all equipped

with the necessary elementary knowledge in those subjects. We have reason to believe that the omission of ancient history at this stage was purely an oversight. The sooner the mistake is corrected the better, otherwise the study of ancient history in the B.A. course will dwindle into a cram of battles and dates, the larger issues involved being lost sight of.

Compared with the three years' Honours courses of the Madras University the two years' Honours courses or rather the standards of the Honours B.A. examinations (for there are no separate Honours courses distinct from the Pass courses) of Bombay are poor; indeed the standard is so low that Principal Mackichan of the Wilson College has boldly prophesied: 'If I am not mistaken in my estimate of the *Indian student*, the majority of students will elect to go in for honours.' This may be very flattering to Indians but we take it that the substitution of the words 'Honours course' for the words 'Indian student' would make the statement more correct. An Honours course which is to attract a majority of students is, we confess, a strange phenomenon to us. We have already stated elsewhere* that the whole point of the institution of Honours courses as understood in all advanced European Universities, is to bring together those few students who alone can be expected to go deep into a subject for its own sake and devote themselves exclusively to its life-long study. It may be that this ideal is not always realized in practice; but the standard laid down should be as high as that indicated by the ideal so that none but students of superior mental calibre (and they are always a small minority) should ever venture to take up the courses. As Mr. Paranjpye says, 'the average student in this country or in any other is

incapable of depth in any subject whatever; and it will be found that the attempt to keep the Pass and Honours men as near as possible is hopeless. Even in Cambridge the schemes of examinations for these two classes of candidates are altogether distinct. The man for mathematical honours has to do nothing but mathematics during his three years, while the Poll-man, (*i.e.* the Pass-man) has to do a number of subjects—very superficially of course—in his general and special examinations.'

The Science courses on the other hand have come out almost perfect from the hands of the Senate. The Intermediate examination in Science now comes one year after the Previous and not two as heretofore and may be taken in the following voluntary groups which are even more perfect than the similar groups of Madras:—

- (1) Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry.
- (2) Physics, Chemistry and Elementary Biology.
- (3) Chemistry, Elementary Biology and Geology.
- (4) Geology, Botany and Zoology.

Similarly the examination for the degree of B.Sc., which now comes two years after the Intermediate and not one year as hitherto, may be taken in groups of two connected subjects of which one will be the principal and the other subsidiary. Thus a student of science will now have a continuous course of three years in his special subject with just the necessary knowledge in directly allied subjects. In speaking of this course as perfect we have knowingly qualified it by the word 'almost.' It seems to us that the great drawback of the B.Sc. course is that a B.Sc.'s knowledge of English and his second language is limited to that acquired in the Previous class. If a B.Sc. is to hold his own against a B.A. in educational institutions, especially in secondary schools, where a science graduate besides teaching his special subject is also expected

* *Vide* the article on 'Development of University Work' in the August number of the 'East and West.'

to help in English and a second language, it appears to us indispensable that he should study these languages up to the Intermediate stage at least. Further, to acquire a fluent command of English, which is the medium of instruction in high school classes, he must be required to undergo a preliminary examination in selected works of nineteenth century prose and in essay-writing as is done at Madras. This examination need not touch upon allusions, grammatical peculiarities and such other cram things, but may be confined merely to the testing of the candidate's ability to write good English. The deficiencies, in this respect, of B.Sc.'s who are not also B.A.'s are well-known and need no further expatiation. If these additions are made the B.Sc. course will perhaps have to be extended to three years. This will be quite on the model of the Physical and Natural Science Triposes of Cambridge and will be welcomed by all true lovers of science. Before leaving the science courses however we must remark that the Senate has been extremely unwise in permitting the sciences to be included in the Honours B.A. course. It is very much to be regretted that in this matter the Senate, instead of being guided by the pure scientists gave itself into the hands of the philosopher-scientists, 'the kind of men who were nurtured on an education at once literary and scientific' (or perhaps at once neither if gauged by modern requirements). It appears to us that the B.Sc. is truly the Honours degree in science and if the words 'Honours' is really the fashion of the day, surely there is no objection to tack it on to the B.Sc.

In concluding we may be permitted to set forth prominently what we have hinted in the course of the above remarks. We have suggested (1) that Honours courses whether in Arts or in the Sciences should, to be worthy of their name, extend over a period of three years in which the student should be required

to thoroughly master a single subject, (2) that besides the special subject, the only other subject that should be enforced on candidates for these courses should be modern English prose, (*i.e.* of the nineteenth century) which is necessary as a vehicle of expression and in which a preliminary examination may be undergone before proceeding to the degree examination, and (3) that these Honours courses should follow an Intermediate course of two years in which a student besides taking a voluntary group of connected subjects should not be required to study more than the two ordinary compulsory subjects, *viz.*, English and a second language. We also think it desirable that the entrance qualification for the medical and engineering courses should be raised from the Previous to the Intermediate following the precedent of Madras. The advantage of a two years' study of English in colleges under European professors will be great and medical and engineering graduates will be able respectively to disseminate a love for sanitary science and technical education and other allied subjects among the mofussil public by occasionally delivering short lectures on these subjects. They cannot exercise these activities now because, as they say, they are not accustomed to public speaking, which is of course an euphemism for their deficiency in English.

We regret that before the present revised curricula were drawn up, the procrastinatory methods of the Senate did not permit of a full preliminary discussion about bifurcation and voluntary groups. Such a discussion was specially important in view of the last of the three charges brought against the old curricula and mentioned at the beginning of this article, *viz.*, poverty of original work among graduates. Both science and philosophy are so advanced in these days that there can be no question of original work till the most forward positions occupied by

modern scientists and savants have been studied. This is possible only if the Honours courses are confined to a study of a single subject on the lines indicated above. At the same time it is desirable that at the present stage of educational progress provision should be made for Pass graduates to go in for these Honours courses. Such a provision has been made in the case of science students and one may become a B.A., B.Sc., if one so wishes. We think that there must be a similar provision in the case of philosophical subjects. For this reason the Honours degree in philosophical subjects should bear some name other than the B.A. so as to be capable of being affixed to that degree. The best and most expressive name that suggests itself to us is PH.B. (Bachelor of Philosophy). If this innovation is accepted we can have a B.A., PH.B., just as we have a B.A., B.Sc. There can also be the PH.M. corresponding to the M.Sc. and at some future time, perhaps, we can have the D.Sc. and PH.D. as well if we have advanced sufficiently.

So far so good. We must however at the same time say plainly that though advanced University courses are the necessary basis for all original work, the substantial causes for the poverty of that work among Indian graduates must be sought for elsewhere. The social customs of the country especially the early marriage of boys with its attendant responsibilities and worries, the poor circumstances of the vast majority of the students flocking to the University, the total absence of decently endowed Fellowships available for a sufficiently long period after graduation, the diversion of all old educational endowments to the feeding of a host of saintly beggars and sanctimonious humbugs and last of all the contemptuous attitude adopted by certain sections of the public towards the noble profession of teaching which alone can lead to original work under present conditions,

all these appear to us to be far more responsible for our shortcomings. No doubt an improvement on the lines we have set forth above would have gone fairly far to remove the predominance of these defects. It is however too late now, and the general public of this Presidency may have to wait woefully for another twenty years or more before the ideals of the older Universities of England are accepted by the Bombay University. Meanwhile however, the additions and alterations to be made in the near future have been already suggested and we cannot conclude better than by putting them together prominently. They are briefly (1) the restoration of a second language as a compulsory subject for the Pass B.A. course, (2) the transfer of Indian History and Administration to the same course from the Intermediate, and (3) the addition of voluntary ancient history along with mathematics and logic in the Intermediate. In making the last of the above three suggestions, we are reminded of the strong position held by the 'historians' in the superseded regulations as compared with the overlooking even of their equal rights with others in the revised regulations and are sadly impelled to exclaim

'How are the mighty fallen
Fallen fallen fallen fallen
Fallen from a high estate!

(We beg to be excused for jumbling lines from two such widely distant sources as the Old Testament and the best ode in English literature).

"DABBLER."

DETAILED SYLLABUS—CHEMISTRY—C. GROUP—S.S.L.C.

Headings.	Subject-matter in detail.	Reference books, etc.
Simple laboratory operations.	Corks and rubber-stoppers. Boring an ordinary cork. Manipulation of glass-tubing :—To cut off a length of glass tube. Breaking (1) a piece of wide glass-tube by means of a red-hot piece of glass-rod and (2) a very wide or strong glass-tube by suddenly cooling a very hot ring of glass with cold water. To round off the ends of a freshly cut-glass tube, to bend a piece of soft quill tube, making a glass jet. Construction of a wash-bottle.	
Scope of Chemistry.	Rusting of iron; burning of a candle; heating of substances such as mercury oxide, chlorate of potash; burning of magnesium wire; burning of phosphorus. Examples of chemical change. Explanation of chemical change; change in the composition of the substance; formation of new substances as a result thereof. Chemistry deals with the above.	
Study of chemical changes.	Rusting of iron :—(1) Formation of a new substance, rust—oxide of iron. (2) Increase of the weight of the rust, and (3) change in the air. Burning of phosphorus :—(1) Formation of phosphorus oxide; properties of the oxide. (2) Change in the air. (3) Properties of air used up in the burning of phosphorus. Burning of magnesium :—(1) Formation of ash, and (2) Increase in weight of the ash. Heating of mercury oxide :—Splitting into two substances: (1) mercury and (2) oxygen, an invisible gas.	
Kinds of chemical action.	(1) Chemical combination and (2) chemical decomposition. Heating of copper turnings and sulphur; of iron filings and sulphur for 1. Decomposition of mercury oxide into oxygen and mercury for 2.	
Elements, compounds and mixtures.	Compounds and mixtures :—(1) Separation of mixtures of sand and sugar, (2) copper filings and sulphur, (3) iron filings and sulphur. Mixtures can be easily separated. Means adopted: (1) Solution in different solvents. (2) Distillation. Separation of a salt from a solution of the same in water. (3) Separation by taking advantage of difference in density, attraction by a magnet, etc. Elements :—Simple substances—cannot be split up. Compounds :—Can be decomposed. (a) Soluble substances, (b) insoluble substances. Ex (a) Salt, soda, blue-stone, nitre. (b) Sand, copper, glass, etc. Explanation of solution and solvent. No change in weight when a solid dissolves in water.	1. A Complete School Chemistry, by Oldham: Methuen & Co., Ltd., London. 2. A School Chemistry, by F. R. L. Wilson and G. W. Hedley: Oxford University Press. 3. Introduction to Chemistry, by MacNair: George Bell & Sons. 4. An Introduction to Physics and Chemistry, by Perkin & Lean: Macmillan & Co. 5. A Class Book of Chemistry, by Dornington: Macmillan & Co.
Solution, solubility and saturation.		

Headings.	Subject-matter in detail.	Reference books, etc.
Crystallisation.	Saturated solution :—At a particular temperature a definite quantity of water can hold only a definite quantity of solid. A <i>saturated solution</i> when the solution contains the maximum quantity of the solid. The same quantity of water will hold different quantities of solid at different temperatures. Generally the amount dissolved in 100 gms. of water is stated. <i>Solubility</i> of a substance at a particular temperature is the number of grammes of the substance dissolved in 100 grams of water at that temperature. Solubility of common salt, sodium sulphate, sodium chloride, potassium nitrate at different temperatures. Solubility curve. Percentage of dissolved gases. When a hot saturated solution is cooled, crystals of the substance separate. Preparation of crystals of salt, washing soda, blue-stone and alum. Effect of heating crystals and <i>water of crystallisation</i> . Water taken up by a crystal to preserve its crystalline form. Percentage of water of crystallisation contained in a crystal, estimation of the same in the case of copper sulphate, barium chloride and Epsom salts. Efflorescent substances :—Substances which give off the whole or part of their water of crystallisation on exposure to air, e.g., washing soda. Deliquescent substances absorb moisture from the air. <i>Examples</i> . Calcium chloride; Caustic soda; sodium nitrate, etc. Solutions of sodium chloride and silver nitrate. Formation of an insoluble substance when the two are mixed. Separation of salt from a solution of it in water; pure drinkable water from sea water. Natural waters :—Four classes: (1) Rain water purest of natural waters; only when it is just formed; becomes impure in its descent; dissolves the impurities from air. (2) River and lake water often contains dissolved matter. (3) Spring water never pure; and (4) Sea water contains much solid matter. Methods of removing suspended impurities. Explanation of filtrate, residue, etc. Effect of heat on various substances:—iron, copper, magnesium, lead, zinc, tin, sulphur, charcoal, etc. Change in weight when some of them are heated in air. Air is altered by the burning of phosphorus in it. Proportion of air used up in the burning of phosphorus. Air contains two gases: oxygen and nitrogen. Oxides :—Iron—Iron oxide or rust; Copper—Copper oxide; Sulphur—Sulphur dioxide; Magnesium—Magnesium oxide; Charcoal—Carbon dioxide; Phosphorus—Phosphorus oxide. Oxidation :—Slow and rapid. Theory of combustion. The Phlogistic theory.	
Precipitation.		
Distillation.		
Filtration and decantation.		
Elementary study of air.		

(To be continued.)

E. NARASIMHAN.

THE PLACE OF INDIAN HISTORY IN THE S.S.L.C. SCHEME.

I HAVE been carefully noting the controversy about the position and importance of B Group subjects in the School Final Scheme discussed in the columns of your valuable magazine. I should say that I quite agree with Mr. Ranganathan (Sept.) and with Mr. N. S. Manian (in the Oct. issue) when they maintain that the subjects in Group B have been, consciously or unconsciously, knocked to the background under the present system. As a student of History, I regret more than others that the history of this country of which a good deal has to be learnt by our school-going population has not been given its legitimate place in the Curriculum of the School Final Scheme.

The reasons pointed out by Mr. N. S. Manian (in the Oct. issue) for the neglect of subjects in B Group as a whole by our students appear to me quite convincing and practical. From my personal experience too, I think that the present School Final candidate is, for good or bad, weighed down by the overwhelming and elaborate syllabuses for English and subjects in C Group that he is hardly able to spare even a couple of hours per week for the study of the history of his own country. And the School Time-table for Higher Forms is necessarily framed to meet the present requirements with due regard to A and C Groups—subjects for public examination—, so that they have a lion's share of the total working periods, leaving a very insignificant portion, an hour and a half or at the most two hours per week, for the study of Indian History.

As the system stands at present, the student scrupulously avoids studying the subjects in Group B, because the moment he steps into the IV Form, he knows perfectly

well that his promotion will depend mainly on the percentage of marks he obtains in subjects comprising A and C Groups and that he could therefore, with advantage, ignore B subjects and devote more time to the more important subjects—as he is led to think—in which he has to stand the test of a public examination.

While according to the theory of the School Final Scheme, due regard should be paid to the progress of a student *at school* as well as his results at the *public examination*, in the several subjects including those under Group B, it is painful that even some of our educational authorities hesitate to give the importance that it deserves to the record of the student's work *at school* in the several subjects kept by the respective teachers of the High School. When the departmental authorities themselves take the value of the record of the school-work with undue discount, needless to speak of heads of other departments whose eyes involuntarily turn to the pages of the School Final Certificate containing the marks obtained by the student at the *public examination*. Thus when the progress of the student *at school* even in such important subjects as A and C Groups is not given its due weight, it is idle to complain that Indian History—a subject in B Group—does not receive its share of attention in the general struggle. Experience of the practical working of the scheme since June 1910 evidently suggests that the student has no need to pay as much attention to the study of B Group as to that of A and C Groups.

But it might be argued that the student may be made to love the subject by making the teaching interesting in itself, as Mr. Ranganathan suggests in your September issue, and by the heads of institutions giving due importance to B Group in the matter of promotions. But it is doubtful whether those

remedies will be quite successful, effective and practicable. For in the first case, the student—especially if he is one who discontinues with the School Final course—would not see the reason why for the sake of the mere pleasure or interest that he evinces for Indian History or Science he should devote a valuable part of his time to either of those subjects—altogether negligible factors from the view-point of public examiners and many educational authorities—and stand the risk of falling low in the estimation of public examiners in subjects under A and C Groups, and thereby lose the chance of getting a permanent footing in some department of Government fetching him immediately Rs. 20 or 25 per mensem with prospects of rising higher if he is qualified for applying for the special tests.

In the second case, as regards the weight to be given to those subjects in the matter of promotions, it appears to me that the suggestion will not be quite practicable; for it will be very hard for heads of institutions, who were not accustomed to pay due importance in the matter of promotions to Indian History and Geography, to break, even under pressure, their time-honoured custom of caring mainly for English and Mathematics and for C Group subjects in addition under the present system. Whatever may be said to the contrary, the tendency of our students is to care very little for subjects that do not fall under the category of subjects for public examination.

While, on the one hand, under the present system, there is a wide latitude for the elaborate study of local history [as I am a student of History I shall confine myself to the question of Indian History] and the unfettered

scope for framing such syllabus as would suit local requirements, there is, on the other hand, the risk of the student losing the opportunity of taking a clear and comprehensive survey of the history of the Indian people, past and present, in its entirety and many-sided detail. It is doubtful whether, without a thorough study of the past, he will be able to recognise the causes and converging influences that led one period of Indian History into another. Granting that a student of Southern India, by way of studying local history, is made to grasp the spirit of the Carnatic struggle, it is rather difficult to understand how far this local knowledge would give him a clear insight into the system of administration, civil or military, or the growth of Buddhism in Northern India at the time of Chandragupta or Asoka. Unfortunately there are very few Doctor Faustuses among our students—who study for study's sake—who would not grudge, in the midst of their struggle for daily bread, a little of their spare time and energy to supplement their knowledge of local history, acquired at school, by a careful study of the more important events and their varied effects on the social, political and economic upheaval of the whole nation.

The educational authorities seem to advise the teachers in charge of the B Group subjects to dispel the idea that students care very little for subjects that do not stand for public examination. But the Assistant-masters have not been furnished with any effective magical spell or wand to exorcise such an idea from their minds and induce the students to study more carefully the much-neglected subjects.

It is suggested by the same authorities that the students may be made to love the history of their own country by being taken at con-

cession fares to places of historical importance in Southern India. But this means money. Where is it to come from? From the Government or the local bodies that run the institutions or from the pockets of the poor students themselves? If the latter be the case, how hard it will tell upon the slender resources of many of our poor students, whose parents often complain that they scarcely have their bare subsistence left after paying the recently enhanced fees of their sons!

Next coming to the Curriculum of the Intermediate and B.A. Examinations, let us see whether a student studiously neglecting Indian History in the School Final Course has any chance of studying it in earnest in the College courses. Here too the chances are rare. A student, unless he takes History in B.A., can successfully emerge from the portals of the University with high academic honours without knowing accurately even a bit of the history of his own country.

Lastly to come to my suggestion, while music, lace-work, tailoring and many other subjects, which have no bearing whatever on the classification of subjects in Intermediate Group, find a prominent place in Group C, why not the History of India be given a place therein on a level with them and more fittingly with the History of Great Britain? Although it is desirable that particular portions of Indian History may be made compulsory under Group B to suit local requirements, a complete and comprehensive study of it can be possible only by giving it a well-merited position in C Group and formulating a syllabus as ambitious as that of the History of Great Britain. This, it is hoped, will go a great way towards removing one of the anomalies of the School Final Scheme.

C. R. K. SWAMI.

MATHEMATICS IN THE KINDERGARTEN CLASSES.

SIDE by side with the growing demand for things fresh and fresh, there may be generally heard distant and feeble voices which are unable to bid farewell to things long since worn out. Such is the characteristic of the period of transition when the new things are brought in one by one and the old ones are discarded one after another. When first a change is effected, it is not as easily done as it is ordinarily supposed to be. The long-cherished love of old things is so great that it offers a firm resistance to the introduction of new ones. When once this resistance is overcome, there is a great rush of new things from all quarters which it is impossible to resist. It is only after a period of time we are able to open our eyes wide, and to bring about order out of the chaotic conditions of the new things rushing in. It is only now that the sense of proportion comes into play. We are able to see the ridiculous extreme to which certain things are carried and the deplorable condition in which certain other things are left behind. As it is with everything else, so it is with education.

We are now at the first step of a transitional period in the education of our country. There are among us the advocates of the new school as well as those of the old school. The former have a staunch belief in the new methods of instruction and are for their introduction all at once. To them, the new is faultless and the old always faulty. But the latter hold that the so-called new methods are not only not better than the old ones but that they even tend to confuse, at times, rather than enlighten both the teacher and the taught. Thus there is a tug-of-war, as it were,

between the advocates of the two schools. The views of both these advocates are as extreme as possible. If only the two schools of men moderate their views, we may be in expectation of a sweet reconciliation of both the schools. It is altogether wrong to condemn old things as hopelessly faulty or to praise the new ones to the skies as if they were as spotless as a white lily.

Wherever we turn our eyes, we see the good and the bad intermingled with each other. But it is our business to see, wherever possible, that the good dominates over the bad. In the old methods of instruction we see certain good points. For instance, mental exercise in Arithmetic is still in vogue; but the bad point here is that the problems, if at all employed, are not always practical, and they are at times pushed too far to be of any value. In such cases the new school comes to our aid. It suggests the nature of the problems to be employed and the way in which they ought to be presented to the youngsters. It is in places like these we have to introduce the two schools and make them shake hands with each other.

Coming now to the subject on hand, we see that Mathematics in the kindergarten section of our schools can be taught on a sounder basis than is the case at present. In many of our institutions, children have no proper notion of number. They cannot easily differentiate the ordinal numbers from the cardinal ones. While counting, for example, they point out the tenth as ten. Though some of them are quick enough in the so-called 'calculations,' they cannot explain why such and such process is necessary. Until late in the course of education, they continue in this state and it is only after

a long time they are able to form a correct notion of number. If, on the other hand, the correct notion is presented at the very outset, much of the groping about in darkness may be easily avoided.

To give a correct notion of number to the youngsters it is but necessary that the idea of proportion is, first of all, firmly inculcated in their minds. But this part of the work does not fall to the hands of the teacher, because, even before they are entrusted to him, our children have a fair knowledge of this. This can be easily tested by an uneven distribution of sweets among a number of children. Those who get less will cry for more and those who have more will try to run away lest they should be robbed of something of their share. Even lower animals are endowed with this idea of proportion.

It is out of this conception of proportion that the notion of number must be gradually developed. Children must not be told but must be made to see that two is greater than one. From the concrete to the abstract should be the procedure at this stage. Children may be led to count a certain number of articles. It is not necessary that the things counted should all be of the same size and shape always. The pupils may be asked to count the number of their class-mates, or, while engaged in nature study, they may be required to count the number of leaves on a twig, the petals of a flower, and so forth. Their fingers too may be used. Some of the educationists of the day have a great objection to the use of fingers, on the score, perhaps, that they are of different sizes, or, perhaps, that the habit will continue late in life. They suggest the creation of small cubes or some such articles—all of the same size and shape always. Perhaps these may

be of some service at the very outset—to give the notion of a unit and also to show that two units are greater than one, and three greater than two and so on. If the use of such materials is continued, we are afraid that the teaching will grow more and more mechanical. The use of such articles should therefore be only for a short time, *i.e.*, until children can count up to a certain extent, say up to ten or twenty. Afterwards, any kind of articles may be used. But this much is necessary, that the things counted must be such as can be grouped under a common name within the grasp of the child's knowledge. Exercises in concrete things should be continued until the youngsters have a fair knowledge of number and until they know that number is independent of the nature of the things counted. Simple exercises in addition and subtraction may be practised with the concrete materials.

When children are well up in counting up to an appreciable extent, they may be led to represent the numbers with their proper symbols—the Arabic ones of course, the other symbols being no longer in use. The use of the concrete materials may be continued until they can readily perform the operations of simple addition and subtraction. After that period, they should bid good-bye to such materials. There are some who advocate the use of these materials to a ridiculous extreme. For instance, in adding hundreds and thousands they would require these materials. This practice does nothing but confuse the youngsters. It lies more with the teacher than with anybody else to determine where he can safely give up the aid of such materials.

Again, cramming is altogether condemned by some of the advocates of the new system.

Within reasonable limits, it has its own value. To construct a few of the multiplication tables the pupil needs certain concrete materials. The results are jotted down in a note-book together with the higher tables (since it is not always practicable to investigate them all experimentally) and the pupil cannot but get by heart these results, if they are to be of any service later on. He cannot be now and then referring to his notes.

Occasionally, simple oral questions must be proposed to the class and children must be encouraged to solve problems 'in the head.'

The tendency in our schools is to memorise unnecessarily a number of arithmetical tables with whose use our children are not acquainted at all. It is but necessary for them to have something to do with the Indian tables of money, measure and weight. They require also the table of time—not the Indian one at any rate, since it has fallen into disuse. But it is not known why the children of the fourth standard in some of our schools are required to get by heart the tables of troyweight, apothecary's and avoirdupois weights. As for the table of length, it is enough if they are acquainted with the inch, foot, yard, and mile. The tables of foreign money, which some educationists recommend for the second standard, have, properly speaking, no place whatever in the kindergarten section of our schools. If at all, only pounds, shillings and pence may be given a place in the highest of the kindergarten classes.

Exercises in compound addition and subtraction must be carried on until the tables are firmly retained. The problems involving the application of the tables must be elementary and practical. They must be within the experience of children.

Approximate statements of length, measure, and weight must have their due recognition. Children must actually measure the lengths of known objects. They must be led to feel the several Indian weights commonly used in weighing. The approximate statements may be verified by actual measurements.

Simple fractions, such as $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{7}{10}$ must be introduced by means of concrete examples. When the notion of simple fractions is thoroughly grasped, decimal fractions may be introduced. Some are of opinion that decimals must precede fractions. Of course, they must precede complex fractions, but not simple fractions. When units are split into tenths there is the notion of fraction there. Hence it is that decimals must follow the simple notion of fractions. To give examples of decimal fractions, the metric table of length may be used. Whenever new topics are introduced, there should be oral exercises. Simple cases of decimal addition and subtraction must be done only 'in the head.' Slate or paper work is only after a perceptible progress in the topic.

In this connection we may note that the whole amount of work turned out by the pupil must be in the presence of the teacher and, if necessary, with his aid. There should be nothing in the form of home-work or holiday-task.

Side by side with these, it is but necessary that our children should know something of Practical Geometry. The rule 'from the simple to the complex' does not hold good here. It is the complex that appeals best to a child. It can recognise the forms of the well-known solids. It can appreciate a cube, a cone, a cylinder, a sphere, etc., because it can handle them, it can feel them. It is from the solids like these

a child can have the notion of a surface, of an edge, and of a vertex. That is to say, it is from the complex that the simple elements making up the complex can be deduced one by one. From the notion of a solid, that of a surface, a line, an angle and a point can be deduced.

Children must be trained to make figures of solids. They may be required to model such figures out of clay and out of paper. While drawing straight lines, they may be required to fix their lengths satisfying certain conditions. For example, they may be asked to draw straight lines of 2 inches, 3.5 inches and so on. Simple cases of addition and subtraction may be given in the shape of exercises on straight lines.

To enlarge the notion of a surface, concrete examples such as the floor of a room, the ceiling and so forth may be proposed. Children may also be required to describe rectangles and circles with their straight rulers and compasses.

As was already pointed out, it is possible for Practical Geometry to be easily correlated with subjects like Drawing, Clay-Modelling, Paper-Folding and Arithmetic. It is not possible to give in detail in what particular ways such a correlation can be effected. Only one instance of such correlation was shown above. It lies with the teacher to determine how he can successfully carry on his work. Of course, the various points will suggest themselves to the teacher, while he is engaged in teaching. It is not necessary for him to be always pondering over the methods, because in so doing he is apt to forget the subject-matter and thus to destroy the interest of the pupils in the subject. A thoroughly equipped teacher needs no special methods. When the matter is there, the method is sure

to follow. But it is necessary for any teacher to be in touch with the great educational movements of the time. To do this successfully, he must constantly be referring to Educational Journals and Magazines. He must always consult the authorities on the various subjects, at least those with which he has anything to do.

K. KRISHNAMACHARIAR.

MADRAS STUDENTS' ADVISORY [COMMITTEE.]

Circular No. XIV.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE.

(Supplementary to Circular XII.)

Students intending to enter the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge cannot be too often reminded that early application is necessary. Disappointment has often resulted owing to failure to recognise this fact. It is often thought that all that is necessary is to apply through the Educational Adviser, London. The Educational Adviser will no doubt try to facilitate the admission of suitable students, but admission can be given or refused by the College authorities alone who are absolutely independent. No candidate can be certain of getting admission on the mere ground that he has applied through the Educational Adviser. It is the case that Indian students who go to Cambridge almost invariably seek admission to two or three particular Colleges. In exceptional cases there may be strong reasons for a student preferring a particular College to others. But it is a great mistake to suppose that there are only three or four Colleges in Cambridge competent to give first rate training for a high Honours degree or for the I.C.S. examination and which deserve to be patronised by Indians. As a matter of fact students who have won distinction in Cambridge in their various examinations do not exclusively belong to a few particular Colleges; on the contrary almost all the Colleges can claim to have produced brilliant results. On general grounds the practice of preferring a few particular Colleges is to be deprecated. Such practice can only lead to applications being crowded on a few Colleges with the result that the remaining Colleges will only get second-rate

men. These Colleges are bound to protest against this and the position of Indians in Cambridge will thereby become more difficult. Almost all Colleges in Cambridge now admit a limited number of Indians. When there is no special reason for selecting a particular College, the best course will be to give the Educational Adviser, if application is made through him, considerable freedom of choice.

Many students seem to be under the impression that B.A.'s and M.A.'s of this University can get exemption from the Previous examination in Cambridge. Such exemption is only given if the applicant has passed in a classical language in this University. Full information on this as well as other matters will be found in *The Handbook of Information for Indian Students*.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,

24th October 1912.

Ag. Secretary

Circular No. XV.

PRIVATE TUTORS.

It has often happened that Indian students have been hampered in their studies by the employment of inferior coaches. In a certain case, a student has been trying for the last two years without success to qualify himself for admission to the Inns of Court by passing one of the exempting examinations which he could certainly have passed in six months if he had taken proper advice and made the necessary arrangements. If any coaching is required at all on a student's first arrival in England, it is obviously of the greatest importance to get the services of a good and efficient coach. The Educational Adviser in London keeps himself in touch with recognized educational agencies in London and elsewhere and can easily secure the services of competent tutors who will generally be better than those whom the students can find unaided. Generally the College authorities will of course, appoint the tutors for their students. But in cases in which such an arrangement is inconvenient or impossible, students and their parents are strongly recommended to act on the advice of the Educational Adviser.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,

24th October 1912.

Ag. Secretary

Circular No. XVI.

HEALTH OF INDIAN STUDENTS AND RESIDENCE IN LONDON.

The Committee desire to call the attention of students proceeding to England and their parents to the necessity of securing good and suitable lodgings in healthy localities in London so as to ensure as far as possible the maintenance of health and comfort during their stay. The best course that they can adopt is to consult the Educational Adviser on the subject and to be guided by his advice. Indian students in London generally congregate in Bayswater, Hammer-smith, Shepherd's Bush, and to a smaller extent in Bloomsbury. In some cases, no doubt, it is a great advantage for a student to live in one of these localities; for example, a Civil Service student reading in Wren's Institute will find it very convenient to live in Bayswater and Law students will sometimes find it necessary to live close to their Inns. But generally these places are not to be recommended. They are eminently undesirable from the point of view of the student's health. In this connection it is well to point out that, of late, there have been far too many cases of ill-health among Indian students in England. The prevalent kind of ailment is some form of lung trouble which, if neglected, leads to consumption and it is needless to remark that an Indian student has generally a very poor chance of getting rid of consumption in a climate like that of England. Students and their parents are particularly recommended to bear this subject in their mind. Every student should before starting for England undergo a thorough medical examination with a view to satisfy himself that he will be able to stand the climate and also to ascertain what precautions, if any, he may have to take in the matter of food, clothing, etc. The Educational Adviser will have his hands considerably strengthened if he can be supplied with the authoritative medical testimony of the student's physician. When necessary, he can make special arrangements for the student's board and lodging and thus make himself more useful. Apart from their unhealthiness, there are other disadvantages attaching to the localities mentioned above as being particularly patronised by Indian students. One reason why Indian students go to these places is that the landladies there profess to be special caterers to Indian students by offering to provide so-called Indian food which generally consists of inferior English food highly spiced. Another factor is the cheap terms that are offered. Some Indian students

spend the smallest sum on board and lodging and the maximum which their allowances will permit on pleasures of a dubious kind. To cut down one's expenses on board and lodging, it is needless to remark, is an absolutely false economy as, apart from other considerations, it often leads to enhanced medical charges. It is advisable for a student to be prepared to spend from 30 shillings to two guineas a week on board and lodging in London, as it is impossible to get good accommodation and food for a smaller sum. The above localities are also unsuitable on account of their distractions which are bound to tell on the student's study and thus prejudice his career. Indian students will not find any respectable residential society to which they can with advantage seek admission in these neighbourhoods. Students are therefore strongly advised to consult the Educational Adviser in all matters concerning their lodgings. It has also been observed that many Indian students easily succumb to the evils of taking alcoholic drinks and excessive smoking. Parents of students are warned that they should take all possible precaution to prevent their sons from falling into these evil habits as, apart from the waste of funds that they involve and the bad associates that they bring with them, they will find the health of their sons undermined and their career blighted.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,

24th October 1912.

Ag. Secretary.

THE SIXTH MEETING OF THE COMMITTEE WAS HELD
AT THE SENATE HOUSE AT 5-30 P.M.
on 29th February 1912.

PRESENT.—The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Madras, *President*; the Hon. Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, the Rajah of Kollengode, Mr. P. T. Srinivas Aiyangar, *Members*; and Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, *Member and Acting Secretary*.

Read letters from the Residents in Hyderabad and Mysore and from Mr. F. S. Davies, regretting their inability to attend.

Ag. Secretary made a statement of progress from the date of last meeting up-to-date.

Reported that Circulars XI and XII authorised at the last meeting had been printed and distributed; and that the New Edition of the Handbook had been sent to the Members.

Read and recorded the following G. O.'s:—

No. 728, dated 14th October 1911 re management of 21, Cromwell Road, London.

No. 829, dated 23rd November 1911, thanking Members of the Committee for services rendered.

No. 833, dated 24th November 1911, forwarding Indian Word Code for foreign State telegrams.

No. 39, dated 18th January 1912, re Indian Code Word for the M. S. A. Committee, the Committee's telegraphic address being *Xanthion, Madras*.

No. 78, dated 31st January 1912, and correspondence relating to Gopala Krishnan, an Indian student at Montpellier;

No. 160, dated 26th February 1912, extending the term of office of Members of Committee up to 1st October 1912;

No. 161, dated 26th February 1912, accepting Dr. Mitchell's resignation;

No. 165, dated 26th February 1912, granting Mr. Davies, Secretary, leave for 9 months and appointing Mr. K. Ramunni Menon to act.

Read and recorded letter from Mr. Arnold re Overland journey from Marseilles and accommodation at 21, Cromwell Road.

Resolved that a Circular (XIII) based on this letter be issued.

Read and recorded note by Mr. Kunwar Maharaj Singh on Indian students in England.

Read and recorded Proceedings of the Director of Public Instruction, dated 26th January 1912, re Sanskrit and Arabic Scholarships.

Resolved that Mr. P. Bhattanath Swami, Pandit, Mrs. A. V. N. College, be recommended to the Director for the Scholarship.

Read and recorded Official Memorandum of the Director of Public Instruction, dated 5th February 1912, re State Scholarship in Electrical Engineering.

Resolved that Mr. T. Sakharama Rao, B.A., be recommended to the Director for this Scholarship.

Reported steps taken to have the work of the Committee advertised in various publication in the Presidency.

(Signed) J. P. WALLIS,
President.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,
Ag. Secretary.

THE SEVENTH MEETING OF THE COMMITTEE WAS
HELD AT THE SENATE HOUSE AT 5-30 P.M.
on 24th October 1912.

PRESENT:—The Hon. Mr. J. H. Stone, *in the chair*; The Rev. G. Pittendrigh, Mr. F. S. Davies, Mr. K. Nayanar, Mr. K. Narayana Rao, Mr. S. E. Ranganatham, Dr. A. W. Bishop, Mr. Quadir Nawaz Khan, *Members*; and Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, *Member and Ag. Secretary*.

Resolved that Messrs. J. H. Stone and K. Narayana Rao form the Executive Committee.

Read letter from the Resident in Mysore regretting his inability to attend.

Reported that in accordance with the resolution passed at the last meeting Circular XIII was issued.

Reported that the names of the two candidates were, as resolved upon at the last meeting, sent to the Director of Public Instruction in reply to his communication re Government Scholarships. The candidate recommended for the scholarship in Electrical Engineering happens to be the one who was awarded the scholarship.

Read and recorded the following letters from the Educational Adviser, London:—

1. Letter, dated 19th February 1912, re telegraphic address of the Sec. when finally decided.

Reported that the necessary information had been communicated.

2. Letter, dated 1st March 1912, re selection of Colleges at Cambridge.

3. Letter, dated 26th April 1912, re admission to Oxford and Cambridge and exemption from the Previous.

4. Letter, dated 2nd May 1912, re changing of names by Indian students.

5. Letter, dated 15th May 1912, re health of Indian students and their residence in London.

6. Letter, dated 15th May 1912, asking if any changes in the conditions of enrolment of Barristers at the local High Court were in contemplation.

Reported that the information available had been forwarded.

7. Letter, dated 2nd August 1912, re employment of private tutors.

8. Letters, dated 15th August and 25th July, re conditions under which members of the Indian Subordinate Medical Service are admitted to examinations in England.

9. Letter, dated 29th August, advising change of management of the Indian students' vegetarian home at 39, Fellows Road, Hampstead, N. W.

Resolved that Circulars XIV based on letters 2 and 3, XV based on letter 5 and XVI based on letter 7 be issued.

Read and recorded letter, dated 29-2-12, from Mrs. Pitt stating that her projected home for Indian students at Cambridge will, for the time being, be in abeyance.

Reported receipt of various syllabuses and calendars for the current year from the Educational Adviser.

Reported that 100 copies of the first Annual Report of the Distressed Indian Students' Aid Committee were received from the Educational Adviser. The copies were distributed to the members of the Committee and selected persons in the Presidency. A donation of £2 which was kindly sent by Mr. C. P. Ramaswamy Iyer, High Court Vakil, was duly forwarded to the Secretary of the Committee in London.

Read and recorded the following G.O.'s:—

1. Official Memo. Ed. No. 1245-1, dated 1st May 1912, re Gopalakrishnan.

2. G. O. No. 179, Ed., dated 29-2-1912, recording correspondence re Gopalakrishnan.

3. G. O. No. 285, dated 1-4-12, appointing the Rev. G. Pittendrigh and Dr. A. W. Bishop members of the Committee.

4. G. O. 351, Ed., dated 24-4-12 sanctioning the acting Secretary's salary.

5. G. O. 643, Ed., dated 17-7-12, re cost of telegrams on behalf of Indian students in England to be recovered from their friends.

6. G. O. 886, Public, dated 24-7-12, re Certificates of Identity and Passports.

7. G. O. 863, Ed., dated 27-9-12, appointing the new Committee to hold office for two years from 1st October 1912.

Reported that the necessary corrections had been made in the notices of the Committee appearing in the University Calendar and the Lawrence Asylum Press Almanac.

Resolved that notices and Reports of the Committee be sent to the Directors of Public Instruction in the Native States of the Presidency with the request that they may take steps to have them published in the Gazettes of their States.

The Secretary *read* the report for the year: 27th October 1911 to 24th October 1912.

Resolved that the Secretary's report and the Proceedings of the sixth and seventh meetings of the Committee be printed and circulated.

(Signed) J. H. STONE,
for President.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,
Ag. Secretary.

SECRETARY'S ANNUAL REPORT:

27th Oct. 1911 to 24th Oct. 1912.

This, the third Annual Report, covers the period from the 27th of October 1911 to the 24th of October 1912.

PART I.—Account of dealings with individuals seeking information and advice as to study in the United Kingdom.

The following account does not include correspondence with the Educational Adviser in London either on behalf of individual students or on matters of general interest; nor does it relate to correspondence with persons outside this Presidency and with authorities in this Presidency. Communications with students or others who act on behalf of such are alone taken into consideration in the figures given below. During the year under report, 236 letters were received and 213 replies sent out and 61 interviews were held. The number of individuals with whom or on whose behalf these transactions took place is 122. In a few cases applications were made, in the first instance, to the Adviser in London, and in a few more they were made simultaneously to the Adviser and to the Secretary of this Committee. In all such cases the applications were returned to the Secretary for disposal. The enquiries made of the Secretary touch upon many branches of study in which training is provided in the United Kingdom and occasionally on educational courses and examinations in other countries as well as in this country. The largest number of enquiries relate to Engineering, Law, various Indian services, Medicine, University Courses, and various entrance examinations; information is also occasionally sought in regard to Sanitary Science, Forestry, Agriculture, Distillery, Commerce and Banking, Dress-making and Millinery, and Germany, Java, Japan and America. In a good many cases a reference to the Hand-book of Information seemed to satisfy the correspondents. In one or two cases, the Educational Adviser had to be consulted before supplying the candidate with the required information; but generally there has been no difficulty in giving the information and advice asked for. In some cases the candi-

dates were so late in applying to the Secretary that nothing practical could be done to help them in the way of getting admission through the Educational Adviser. In three cases the Educational Adviser was communicated with and his reply obtained by cable. In some cases the students availed themselves of the opportunity of consulting the syllabuses and calendars in the office of the Secretary.

It is not possible to state the exact number of those who have actually gone to Europe as students do not always communicate their departure to the Secretary and in some cases they go without ever consulting the Committee. But from information gathered from various sources, personal knowledge, hearsay, newspaper notices, and reference to passenger-lists, it is believed that the number is not less than 37. This number does not include two who have gone to America. Of those who have gone, 28 are Hindus, 1 is a Mahomedan, 3 belong to the Domiciled Community and 5 are Indian Christians. Three are ladies. Of those who have gone, 24 have formally or informally consulted the Committee and 9 have expressed their willingness to be under the guardianship of the

Adviser. Two of those who have gone are Government scholars and one is a scholar sent by the Vyasa community. 11 intend to take University degrees in Arts or Science, 7 go in for Engineering, 6 for the Bar, 11 for Medicine, 4 for I. C. S. and other services, 2 for Forestry and one for Accountancy (See table 3.) 6 have gone to Oxford, 3 to Cambridge, 1 to Manchester, 1 to Bristol, 6 to London (including 2 for the Bar and one for Accountancy,) 15 to Edinburgh, 1 to Glasgow, and 1 to Dublin; the destination of 3 students is unknown. (See table 4.) The educational qualifications of those who have gone are, in the cases where information is available, generally good; 1 is an M.A., 11 are graduates, 3 have passed in two branches of the B.A., 11 are F.A.'s, 4 are Matriculates, 4 hold school-leaving certificates, and 1 has passed the Cambridge Local; the qualifications of two are unknown. The following tables show the numbers of those who have gone and certain other details for the years during which the Committee has been in existence. In the absence of complete information for the different years, it is impossible to draw any general conclusions from these figures.

Table 1. No. of applicants, letters received, replies sent and interviews held.				Table 2. No. of students who have gone to the United Kingdom.			
Community to which applicants belong				Community to which those who have left belong			
1909-10	1910-11	1911-12		1909-10	1910-11	1911-12	
Hindus ...	174	99	100	Hindus ...	28	10	28
Mahomedans ...	15	9	5	Mahomedans ...	2	1	1
Ind. Christians ...	6	5	12	Ind. Christians ...	1	3	5
Domiciled Community ...	15	7	5	Domiciled Community ...	8	1	8
No. of communication received ...	420	280	236	Total ...	34	15	37
No. of replies sent ...	475	280	213				
No. of interviews held ...	111	64	61				

Table 3. Study to be pursued in the United Kingdom.				Table 4. Educational centres to which students have gone.			
1909-10	1910-11	1911-12		1909-10	1910-11	1911-12	
University Degrees in Arts and Science ...	10	15	11	Oxford ...	3	2	6
I.C.S. & other services ...	4	5	4	Cambridge ...	2	2	3
Bar ...	13	6	6	London ...	5	1	4
Engineering ...	4	1	7	Liverpool ...	13	6	2
Sanitary Engineering ...	...	2	...	Manchester ...	1	...	...
Medicine ...	7	3	11	Leeds ...	1	1	1
Agriculture ...	1	1	...	Birmingham ...	1	...	...
Metallurgy ...	1	...	...	Bristol ...	1	...	...
Forestry ...	2	1	2	Edinburgh ...	...	3	15
Veterinary Hygiene ...	1	...	...	Glasgow ...	7	...	1
Chartered Account ...	...	...	...	Dublin ...	...	...	1
Textile Industry ...	1	1	1	Unknown ...	...	...	8
				Total ...	34	15	37

N.B.—The above figures must be taken as mere approximations.

PART II.—General Progress.

The personnel of the Committee has changed somewhat in the course of the year. Government in their G. O. 160, Ed., dated 26-2-12, extended the period of appointment of the first Committee to the 30th September 1912. Two vacancies occurred during the year owing to the absence of the Rev. Dr. W. Skinner in England and the resignation of Dr. Mitchell; these were filled by the appointment of the Rev. G. Pittendrigh and Dr. A. W. Bishop. Government in their G. O. 863, Ed., dated 27-9-12 appointed the present Committee consisting of the following gentlemen to hold office for two years from the first of October 1912:—

President.

The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Madras (*ex-officio*).—President;

Vice-President.

The Director of Public Instruction, Madras (*ex-officio*).—Vice-President;

Members.

The Hon'ble the Resident at Hyderabad (*ex-officio*).

The Hon'ble the Resident in Mysore (*ex-officio*).
The Hon'ble Raja Vasudeva Raja, Valia Nambidi of Kollengode.

Mahammad Quadir Nawaz Khan Sahib Bahadur, Khan Bahadur.

M. R. Ry. Vengail Kunhi Raman Nayanar Avergal, Cannanore.

M. R. Ry. Dewan Bahadur K. Narayana Rao Avergal, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Madras.

The Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A., Acting Principal, Madras Christian College.

Mr. A. W. Bishop, Ph.D., Director of Public Instruction, Travancore.

Mr. F. S. Davies, B.A., Director of Education, Cochin.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A.
M.R.Ry. Ramunni Menon Avergal, M.A., Professor of Zoology, Presidency College.

M.R.Ry. S. E. Ranganatham, Junior Professor of English, Presidency College.

Secretary.

Mr. A. Davies, Deputy Registrar, High Court, Madras.

On the 22nd February 1912, Mr. Davies, the permanent Secretary, went on nine months' leave and Mr. K. Ramunni Menon was appointed to act during his absence.

A copy of the Hand-book has been supplied to each of the new members of the Committee.

There were two meetings of the Committee, held on the 29th February and the 24th October, 1912.

Four new Circulars were issued during the year:—No. 13 on changing plans *en route*, etc.; No. 14 on Oxford and Cambridge; No. 15 on Private Tutors; and No. 16 on the health of Indian students and their residence in London.

In a few cases applications for information were received from other provinces; in all such cases they are forwarded to the Secretaries of the Provinces concerned for disposal. In one case an application from a resident of Hyderabad was returned from another Province to the Secretary of this Committee for disposal.

During the year correspondence passed through the Committee on behalf of one student who is studying in France. The necessary information as to the financial aid contemplated by his supporters was obtained and forwarded to the Government.

Standing advertisements of the Committee have been kindly inserted by the authorities concerned in the University Calendar, in the Lawrence Asylum Press Almanac and in the Cochin Government Gazette; a similar notice also appeared in the Fort St. George Gazette for some time. As there seemed to be no reason to suppose that the Committee was not widely known, no further steps were taken to advertise.

The telegraphic address of the Secretary is *Xanthion, Madras*, and that of the Educational Adviser, London, is *Xafaris, London*. The privilege of communicating by cable with the Educational Adviser in London was availed of in some instances with obvious advantage; in all such cases, the cost is defrayed by the parties concerned. The Secretary sometimes receives requests from the parents of students already in England to encode telegrams for them. As far as possible such requests are complied with.

The publications of the Advisory Committees of other Provinces have been regularly supplied to this Committee and our Minutes and Circulars have also been supplied to them.

The Syllabuses and Calendars of various Educational Institutions in the United Kingdom for the current year have been received from the Educational Adviser, London, and are kept in the Office and can be consulted by those interested.

At the end of the official year 1910-11, the amount spent out of the contingent allotment of Rs. 380 was Rs. 266-1-5, leaving a balance of Rs. 113-14-7, which lapsed to the Government.

Other matters of importance appear in the Minutes of the Meetings held on the 29th February and on the 24th October 1912.

K. RAMUNNI MENON,

24th October, 1912.

Ag. Secretary.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Advice to Graduates, by Sir James Meston.

In the course of his address at the Convocation of the Allahabad University, His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor gave the following words of advice to the graduates who received their degrees:—

I ask you to consider to-day the special obligation of life and example that rests on you as University men when you go out to work among your fellow-citizens. You may forget much of what you learnt at College. But the spirit of your college life should remain, the hard work, the *esprit de corps* and the balanced judgment; and it is this spirit with which you can illuminate the ordinary business of life. Each of you in his circle is the touchstone by which the value of education is tested; and on your conduct the credit of the University largely depends. What is it then that you can carry away after your college days are over, and use for the bettering of your fellows, by precept and by example? There are many such things; but three of them stand clearly out. You have learnt the need of a calm and balanced judgment, the value of co-ordinated effort, and the supreme power of truth. I have a very few words to say on each of these.

Calmness of judgment is what your books have surely united to teach you; the dispassionate marshalling and weighing of facts in order to determine their effect. The need for similar judgment must appeal to you every day in the practice of your profession or calling. It turns the balance between success and failure at every step in your own affairs. Will you not use it also, gentlemen, for the benefit of your neighbours? Their judgment has not been trained as yours has been. They will turn to you for guidance. When foolish and baseless rumours are unsettling

the people, whether about public affairs or otherwise, you can do much to dispel them.

The second lesson which I ask you to share with others is the value of combination. It is not a lesson that needs a University to teach it: but your history and your mathematics must have given you a scientific basis for it, and must have taught you to be peculiarly watchful for the beginnings of friction and disintegration. You know, with a conviction that passion should never shake, how certainly dissension undermines the family and the State. It is to you educated men that the well-wishers of India look, to check dissension and to impress on your neighbours the disasters which attend it. You have endless opportunities. There are the family quarrels which are constantly with us; they have often the most trivial origin; but their net result is that enormous sums are poured into litigation which the country sadly needs for fertilizing its soil and fostering its industries.

The last point on which I wish to touch is the supreme value of truth. If, as we believe, righteousness exalts a nation, it is your duty and mine, if we wish India well, to wage incessant war on half-truths and falsehoods. Your education has taught you the great and ennobling power of truth. Carry that knowledge into the circle where you live and work. Set your face against intrigue and back-biting. Practice plain-speaking and encourage it in others. When the people are being misled by a false guide, help to unmask him. When lies are circulated about the actions of Government, or the motives of your public men, or the character of your neighbours, disown the falsehoods and attack them. Education has stood for the removal of corruption from public life, from the public services. Let it make an equal stand against intrigue, misrepresentation, the thoughtless untruth, the malicious life.

Development of Character, by the
Hon. Mr. A. G. Cardew.

We take the following from the speech of the Hon. Mr. A.G. Cardew as Chairman at the Fourth Anniversary of the P. S. High School Literary Society, Mylapore:—

The Indian boy is a natural speaker and is also naturally inclined to undertake the investigation of the finer shades of thought. There is no doubt a great scope here for the development of character, and it is very important that that development should not take too much the direction of verbal logic. Accurate thinking would always be valuable, but it is of the first importance to realize that words are of less value than deeds and that passing resolutions is not the be-all and end-all of life and therefore that a debating society, although it has its uses, is only a phase of life, which to be of any use must take practical shape. All over the Presidency there has been Agricultural Associations, and these Associations have had meetings and passed resolutions, but they do not eventuate much in active work. The great object which boys in debating societies should put before them is to see that their resolutions do make for practical results. No doubt it would be a great thing if people in India are given to games. In England games are absolutely a business, but because they are so, they afford an increasingly practical field of management. I think there is a great field for development of character in this country, through the constant practice of athletics. That is the one idea that I want to put before you. I feel that it is obvious that with your natural taste for study you do not want so much mental stimulation as a less mentally active race, and so you should give more time to athletics.

Religious Instruction in Schools, by Principal R. P. Paranjpye.

The views of Principal R. P. Paranjpye of Fergusson College on religious instruction in schools are well-known. In his latest contribution to the discussion of the subject Mr. Paranjpye makes some sound observations, for bringing which prominently to the notice of our readers, we need make no apology. Says Mr. Paranjpye:—

When some young men had their heads turned and did wild deeds in false imitation of the ideas they had superficially taken in during their school career a unanimous cry arose from the politicians that our godless education is sapping the morals of the younger generation. This cry had begun some time before when the older generations of Indians saw the young men neglecting their religious duties and trying to judge even their religions by the light of their reason. This very claim to judge religion by reason sounded presumptuous and the western education came in for a good deal of blame. Attempts were made in Benares, Lahore, Aligarh and other places to have schools and colleges imparting religious education and time alone can decide whether their *alumni* are a better set of people than those who have only received secular education. If any questioning of religions (by our educated men) is to be stopped, the only remedy is to stop all education which appeals to reason, i.e., to stop all western education. Even in the West, Christianity has had to change its points of view any number of times. It is not to be expected that religions will remain permanently outside the range of discussion. As to influencing the political opinions of young men by means of religious education, the idea is absurd. Have we not had some persons using religious sanctions to uphold their extremist or anarchical views? Many sane Indians regard this patent nostrum of religious education as altogether futile. They look upon it as a backward step and as such calculated to retard the progress of India.

The Museum, the School, and Nature-Study Teaching, by Mr. A. R. Horwood.

The following is the abstract of a paper read before the Educational Science Section of the British Association by Mr. A. R. Horwood:—

Museum officials have at last realised the necessity of studying the needs of the visitors to the collections under their charge. The search for knowledge through the impetus given by free education has made museums, along with similar institutions, centres for research. Hence the museum must have its ideal, and a definite plan for carrying it out has to be evolved. Into this scheme educational types of exhibits must necessarily come. The public has to be divided into classes, and exhibits must be suited to each. Hence the material, since it is specialised, is much more valuable than any other former methods could devise. One section, the students' section, is increasingly useful, and therefore requires special development.

Moreover, it is obvious that the museum is merely part of a general scheme of education that each child in its educational progress may—or should—make use of, in the same way as an art or technical school, free library, and so on. Hitherto, however, this fact has been lost sight of, and it is to emphasise the importance and to demonstrate the practical value of the museum in the education of the young that this summary is devoted. A parallel feature of modern education has been the rise of Nature-study. Evolved from the old object-lessons, it has now emerged as an experimental subject into the clear light of advanced methods. It is in fact a method, teaching observation, inculcating logic and reasoning power—and no age was more in need of this—instilling a desire to learn in the young mind, and communicating enthusiasm.

This being so, it is a subject to encourage. The value of Nature-study lies in its association with things, and the necessity of handling them. But it is the museum, above all, which deals primarily with concrete examples, where a man can illustrate ideas by specimens, which he may even touch. Indeed, for the student a museum is the only place in the district where—in Natural Science at any rate—a knowledge of types of different things can be seen and studied. Hence its importance for use by schools.

Education in England, by Mr. Norton Fagge, Principal of the Zamorin's College, Calicut.

We extract the following from an address by Mr. Norton Fagge at the Zamorin's College:—

In England there are no schools conducted by Government as there are in India. The elementary schools of England which correspond to lower secondary schools in the Madras Presidency are all managed by Boards which receive Government aid, the condition of aid being that these schools subject themselves to departmental inspection. Then there are the secondary schools which are also aided by Government and managed by Boards. These correspond to the high schools here. The great Public schools also are managed by Boards. These are maintained by large endowments and the fee income. Since the passing of the Education Act of 1870, which made education compulsory up to the age of 14, the demand for elementary schools increased and to meet this demand a large number of schools were started by Boards aided by Government. These elementary schools teach mainly the "three R's."

The teachers of elementary schools are men that pass out of the elementary schools. These are uncertificated or certificated. The certificated teacher gets a much better salary. The uncertificated teacher starts with £40 a year. The trained teacher in an elementary school, if he is dissatisfied could take his degree in a non-residential University like London or Dublin and pass on to the secondary schools where he receives a handsome salary. The teachers in secondary schools are University men and they are paid handsome salaries. The teachers in the great Public schools are generally graduates of the residential Universities of Oxford or Cambridge. The Headmastership of a Public school is generally secured by a man of influence. Education in the Public schools is very costly. These schools are attended by the richest classes in England and they produce the greatest men of England. Discipline is hard in these schools and boys are governed by Prefects who have great control over them. Sports predominate in the school work. Parents who cannot afford to send their pupils to the Public schools send them to the Board secondary schools. Boys after completing their school life in an English University differ much from that in a Public school. The sudden relax of supervision leads to the ruin of the unwary under-graduates. The University course extends over 3 years.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

University Lectures.

With reference to the University Lectures under Regulation 394 sanctioned by the Senate for the academic year 1912-13, it is notified that the course of 20 to 25 lectures on "The Federal State of the Anglo-Saxons, i.e., a historical and analytical account of the constitutions of the United States of America, Canada, and Australia" to be delivered by Mr. H. J. Allen, M.A., and the course of 20 lectures on "Historical English Syntax" to be delivered by the Rev. J. M. Craig, M.A., B.D., will be delivered during the third term of the year, the former at the Presidency College, commencing on Tuesday, the 7th January 1913 and the latter in the Madras Christian College, commencing on Friday, the 10th January 1913. The days and hours for the delivery of each lecture of the former course will be Tuesdays and Fridays at 2 P.M., and those of the latter course will be Mondays and Fridays 2 to 3 P.M. The lectures will be open to any student who is taking an Honours Course in any college affiliated to the University, on the recommendation of his college authorities. No fee will be charged for attending the course of lectures, but a student shall not attend the course till he has paid the usual fee to his college for the term. The lectures will also be open to graduates of the University who wish to engage in post-graduate study and research on payment to the University of Rs. 50 per course per term, and with the sanction of the lecturer appointed. Post-graduate students who are members of a college will not be required to pay this fee.

Annual Convocation.

The Convocation of the Madras University was held on the 21st instant, presided over by His Excellency Lord Pentland, the Chancellor. The Rev. A. F. Gardiner, M.A., Principal of the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, delivered the usual Address.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

Senate Meeting.

A meeting of the Allahabad University Senate was held recently at the University building, Dr. Sunder Lal, Vice-Chancellor of the University, being in the chair. The business was mainly of a formal character. Members of various Faculties were elected.

Lord Rosebery on Books.

The freedom of the burgh of Peebles was conferred recently on Lord Rosebery and on Lord Murray of Elibank. Lord Rosebery gave an interesting speech on Libraries from which we extract the following:—

After all, the object of all libraries and such appliances, must be in the long run the formation of character. For the formation of character the glories of nature are better than any books. In view books from a three-fold point of view. In the first place they furnish the tools that you require for your various professions—law, theology, engineering, whatever it may be. As to those tools I can say nothing, because they each relate to a separate faculty, if I may use the expression and to deal with them would be much too technical a subject for my discourse to-day. Well, then, they furnish to you literature, and they furnish to you recreation. What about literature? I suppose literature means the standard book; that is the highest form of literature. And what are the standard books? That is a question that I am quite ready to ask, but which I do not propose to answer.

I suppose some people would say that the standard books are those lists of the hundred best books that competent gentlemen are so ready to furnish on the slightest possible occasion and the only doubt in regard to which on reading the list, is whether the furnishers have always read the books. Lord Acton furnished a list of a hundred books that he wished his son to read, and we, knowing his great reputation, all rushed to this list, and we found that it consisted of a hundred books, mostly German, almost entirely theological, none of which I had ever heard of before—and as to which, as the list was posthumous, we always feel a lurking doubt whether it was not a joke which Lord Acton bequeathed to us. But at any rate, in regard to all these lists of a hundred best books, which we are supposed to read—the standard works in literature,—I firmly believe this, that if a man in his honesty and conscience proceeded to read the hundred best books in any list right through he would never wish to read anything again. I confess, I can give no advice on this point. I believe that the best literature for everybody is the literature that they can assimilate—that they can digest.

One of the important items before the meeting was the passing of certain rules for the election of Fellows by the registered graduates.

The Hon. Mr. C. F. De la Fosse, Director of Public Instruction, in the course of his speech said that it was the wish of the Government that the registered graduates should be enabled to exercise the privilege of electing their representatives on the Senate without any further delay; and accordingly a resolution was moved and accepted to the effect that all graduates who had been registered by the 1st of November should be entitled to vote at the election of a Fellow to be held in 1912.

Another important item was the rejection of the proposal to recognise for the University purposes the diploma of the Mayo College at Ajmer.

No controversial subject was on the agenda.

THE PUNJAB UNIVERSITY. Appropriation of Durbar Grants.

The Punjab University has obtained the sanction of Government for the appropriation of the Durbar educational grants of Rs. two lakhs, non-recurring, and Rs. 35,000 per annum, recurring. The non-recurring grant has been apportioned between different schemes, one lakh and seventy-six thousand being allotted for hostels to accommodate the students of the Law and Oriental Colleges. The recurring grant will be devoted to the establishment of two lectureships at Rs. 20,000 to be held by specialists from the West or from India, and for the payment of adequate salaries to competent professors of Sanskrit and Arabic in the Oriental College.

University Grants.

Pending the introduction of the University schemes for which special recurring and non-recurring grants were recently announced by the Government of India, the amounts concerned are being paid over to the various Provinces to be funded for the Universities, which will thus have the benefit of such interest as accrues. The Calcutta and Lahore schemes have already been submitted to and approved by the Government of India. Those of Madras, Bombay, and Allahabad are under either submission or consideration.

The amounts of the grants are as follows:—

Calcutta and Madras Universities, each sixty-five thousand rupees recurring; and four lakhs each non-recurring.

Bombay and Allahabad Universities, forty-five thousand rupees each recurring; and three lakhs each non-recurring.

Lahore, thirty-five thousand rupees recurring, and two lakhs non-recurring.

ABERDEEN UNIVERSITY.

Fifty Years of Aberdeen University.

The growth in efficiency of the older Universities is as notable a feature of the past half-century as is the foundation of the newer ones. At a recent gathering of the Aberdonian freshmen of 1862 the Principal said that fifty years ago the University teaching was done by twenty-one professors, with eight assistants and lecturers: there are now twenty-six professors and sixty-five other members of the staff. True, the number of the students in the University is a hundred less than it was in 1862—but only about forty then took their degrees annually, while last year's output of graduates was 160. The establishment of a stringent preliminary examination has been most effective in producing this result.

CHICAGO UNIVERSITY.

Barrows Lectures for 1912.

The Barrows Lecturer who is coming to India this year is Prof. Charles R. Henderson, Ph. D., head of the Department of Sociology, in Chicago University.

For 20 years Mr. Henderson was pastor over large churches, during which service he was himself deeply interested in Christian missionary enterprise. Having been especially interested in all forms of applied Christianity, and having made himself a recognized authority in the field of sociology, he was called to a Professorship in Sociology in Chicago University, in which institution he is now the Chaplain of the University with a parish of 6,000 students, and also a member of the Faculty of the Divinity School.

THE PROPOSED HINDU UNIVERSITY.

The total sum, collected up to date for the Hindu University, is nearly seventeen lakhs and eighteen thousand rupees.

Seth Narottam Morarji Gokuldas, Sheriff of Bombay, Sardar Daljit Singh of Jullundur, the Hon'ble Mr. Shadilal of Lahore, and the Hon'ble Pandit Motilal Uehru of Allahabad, have been elected on the Executive Committee.

A revised constitution has been drafted on lines of the constitutions of the Universities of Manchester, Sheffield and Birmingham and the proposed Aligarh University. Special provision is made for representation on the governing body of the University of Jain and Sikh religions and for instruction in those faiths.

The Maharaja of Kashmir has sanctioned an annual permanent grant of Rs. 12,000 in aid of the University.

THE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS, &C.

MAHAJANA HIGH SCHOOL, ERODE.

Mr. E. Narasimhan, Secretary to the Teachers' Association and Hon. Secretary to the Students Association, writes as follows:—

The Teachers' Association held two meetings in the month of October and in both "model lessons" were given by teachers. The first was an English lesson, given by M.R.Ry. B. V. Ramaswami Sastryar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, in English poetry to the pupils of the Second Form and was taught successfully in the "Direct Method." M.R. Ry. K. S. Venkataramana Sastryar, B.A., one of our junior History and Geography Assistants, gave the second lesson in Geography to the students of the Third Form.

The Students' Association has been in existence from 1898 but only from 1908 it has been doing some useful and substantial work by holding weekly meetings regularly. In these meetings, essays, sometimes in English and sometimes in Tamil, are read by its members and occasionally debates are also held. But in the year 1909 a new life was given to it by the institution of special prizes for essay and debate. The gentleman who gave such a turn to the Society is M.R. Ry. M. G. Arogyaswami Pillai, B.A., of Coimbatore to whom, we daresay, the Association owes much of its present efficient condition and, indeed, the members thereof feel highly grateful to him and pray the Almighty to spare him for a long time to come.

The competition for the debate prize for the current year was held in the school at 4-30 P.M. on Tuesday, the 5th November 1912, and five gentlemen of the town were appointed as judges. The subject for discussion was:—"Does vernacular journalism open a profitable career for the Indians?" There were more than 20 young debaters most of whom were students of the Sixth Form. The debate lasted for 2½ hours and in the end the judges decided and declared that C. K. Subramanian and B. V. Chakravarti were the best speakers. The latter gave his arguments in favour of the question while the former spoke against it. The judges, however, made honourable mention of Messrs. B. M. Yegyaswami and S. S. Yegyaswami. The Secretary of the School, M.R. Ry. U. R. Venkata Row, B.A., Pleader, thanked the judges and proposed loud cheers to the donor, and thus the meeting came to an end.

The Association also subscribes for the following:

(A) English:—*Boys' Own Paper*, *St. George Magazine* and *The Central Hindu College Magazine*, and (B) Tamil:—*Viveka-Bodhini* and *Vidhya Viharini*. Besides it has a small library.

THE HIGH SCHOOL LITERARY SOCIETY, MADURA COLLEGE.

On Wednesday the 6th November 1912, a public meeting of the above Society was held at 6 P.M. in the College Hall, when Mr. D. Ramaiyar, of the Madura College, delivered an instructive lecture on "The Habit of Obedience." He made the lecture very lively by introducing into it many anecdotes and personal reminiscences. Mr. A. Govindaraja Mudaliar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the Sourashtra High School, Madura, presided on the occasion; and in bringing the proceedings to a close, he made an eloquent speech, in the course of which he pointed out that if the students in their youth learned to obey their masters who really prepared them for the great battle of life they would not fail to show their love and loyalty towards their King-Emperor in their after career. Mr. A. Rajaram Iyer, B.A., L.T., Principal of the Madura College, and many other teachers were present on the occasion. With the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman and the lecturer, the meeting came to a close.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, GOVERNMENT TRAINING SCHOOL, SAIDAPET.

The anniversary of the Teachers' Association, Government Training School, Saidapet, was celebrated with great *eclat* recently in the premises of the school with Mr. J. H. Melville, Acting Inspector of European and Training Schools, in the chair, when after an interesting and varied programme of sports, dialogue and music, a paper on the "Kindergarten Teacher" was read by C. V. Doraisinga Mudaliar, a student under training. This was followed by the reading of the annual report which was a record of good work due to the hearty co-operation of Mr. S. K. Ramaswami Aiyangar, B.A., L.T., the Headmaster and the Assistants of the School. The Chairman said that he was pleased to see the keenness shown by the pupils of the model school in the sports and observed that the Association which is 18 years old, was more flourishing than ever and that Associations of the kind all over the Presidency encouraged a spirit of *esprit de corps*, and made the teacher's life, which is a hard one as a rule as pleasant as possible. He advised the teachers to keep up the habit of study and be up-to-date in their methods of teaching especially in view of the fact that the prospects of teachers are improving since the Government has a keen eye on the improvement and extension of elementary education as is seen from the training of an extra batch of normal students and the increase in the inspecting staff, not to speak of other matters probably under the consideration of the Government.

Reviews and Notices.

JUNIOR ENGLISH GRAMMAR, BY A. M. WALMSLEY,
M.A. (W. B. CLIVE, LONDON). 1s. 6d.

This book departs from the old "orthodox" method of writing grammars. It combines the advantages of the new inductive method with the usefulness of the old deductive method. It does not divide grammar into the old water-tight compartments of orthography, etymology, syntax and analysis; but gives a rational treatment of the subject. From the very commencement analysis goes hand in hand with the other parts of grammar and the difficulties of grammar in matters of idiomatic usages are clearly explained. A new thing in the book is its conformity with the proposals of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology which concluded its labours last year. In short the book is an up-to-date, practical and clear treatment of the subject and should be of very great use to boys of our secondary schools.

AIDS TO THE WRITING OF ENGLISH, BY DANIEL
LAZARUS. (THE METHODIST PUBLISHING HOUSE,
MADRAS). Re. 1.

The book bears on every page evidence of the hand of the practical teacher. Mr. Lazarus must have been patiently accumulating examples of boys' work for several years to produce this book. He does justice to the subject in a clear workman-like way.

EXERCISES IN MODERN ARITHMETIC, BY H. SYDNEY
JONES. (MACMILLAN AND CO.) 2s. 6d.

This is a reprint of the exercises given in the author's "Modern Arithmetic with Graphic and Practical Exercises." There is a growing feeling (though not universal) that a student's book need not contain any explanations of the principles of Arithmetic (which may be well furnished by the teacher) and that it should be only a collection of exercises. And those who hold this view will find this to be a good student's book, as the author's book on "Modern Arithmetic" is already accepted to be a good one.

THE CALCULUS FOR BEGINNERS, BY W. M. BAKER.
(G. BELL AND SONS).

This is a small book extending to about 150 pp. (octavo) which will serve as a good introduction to Calculus (both Differential and Integral), and

those who wish to have only a working knowledge of the subject, without requiring any rigorous treatment, such as students of Physics and Engineering, will find this book to be a suitable text-book.

GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD, BOOK I (TAMIL), BY
K. A. VIRARAGHAVACHARIAR, B.A., FORMER-
LY OF THE PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE, MADRAS.
(LONGMANS GREEN AND CO.) 180 pp. + viii.
7½ As.

This is the first of the vernacular series issued by the enterprising firm, Longmans Green and Co., for the use of pupils in the lower forms of schools.

Part I of the book deals with the elementary facts of the whole world in all its various aspects, physiographic, economic, etc., and in Part II there is an ampler treatment of home Geography, i.e., India.

2. This book has several new and good features, and as far as we can see, is unique in many respects, and quite ahead of the many cheap publications which flood the market at present.

3. The introduction, by far the most valuable portion of the book, is exhaustive: a successful attempt has been made to present the salient features of the world in a rational way, so as to bring out the "uniformity and diversity" which exist side by side in the world features. The wealth of illustrations, charts, diagrams, maps, statistical tables, and Railway routes, is highly satisfactory. The author does not content himself with a mere description and enumeration of facts, but gives the underlying causal relation, and the thought of students is roused by many suggestive questions interspersed in the body of the book.

4. The chapters dealing with climate, wind, and rainfall system, the light zones of the earth, the varying length of day and night in Madras and London, are indeed very clear and informing and should certainly go to dispel the hazy notions in those points entertained alike by many teachers and the taught.

The author who is an enthusiastic Geography teacher himself of large experience has taken immense pains, anticipated all the knotty points and has made an honest attempt to tackle with what were till now geographical abracadabras, especially in the chapters on "temperature,"

"manufactures," "occupations," "civilisation" and "government."

5. But one or two minor defects which, it is hoped, will be rectified in the next edition may as well be pointed out.

(a) In Chapter 13, the distribution of races might have been illustrated with pictures showing the different types of races of mankind.

(b) The wood-cut in page 87 showing the distribution of vegetable production is not sufficiently self-explanatory.

(c) The spelling of some of the words strikes us as peculiar:

"மருகம்," "புரதேசம்," "விரித்திகள்" might have been written as "மருகம்," etc.

6. In conclusion, we welcome this book as it will place in the hands of lower secondary teachers and students in Training and Art schools a brief, yet an exhaustive and withal a cheap book written on the model of some of the best and up-to-date English geographers like Wallis and Young. Hereafter at least there should be no excuse for the unscientific way of handling this subject by teachers and its unsystematic study by students. Hence, need we say that this book really supplies a long-felt want in the educational circles here?

THE INTRODUCTORY STUDY OF THE BHAGAVAT
GITA, BY C. V. RAMACHANDRA RAO SAHIB,
B.A., B.L. Price Re. 1-8-0.

It is a book of high merit and deserves all the praise that has been bestowed upon it by Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnaswami Rao Ayl., C.I.E. We do not indulge in exaggeration when we say that, like the book under review, books, few or none, have hitherto appeared as contributions to the vast literature bearing on the Gita, whether in Indian or European languages. Though it is modestly styled an Introduction to the Study of the Gita it has been planned and executed on a conception purely original, which we believe is the result of long thought and life-long study. To a superficial observer the Gita may appear full of repetitions, contradictions and inconsistencies. The learned author has, in a masterly manner, brought out the aim and the object of the 'song of songs' and by unassailable logic established the unity and consistency of the work which, by both friends and foes, has been admitted as the fairest flower in the field of Indian Philosophy. The Introduction to the Gita can with every right be called a concord-

ance of the Gita teachings and has successfully done for the Hindus what the concordance of the Scriptures has done for the Christians. The author says that he has derived his inferences, uninfluenced by any bias and uninspired by any system of thought as set forth in the latter day schools. If, however, on a reading of the book it is found that the principles proved to be taught in the Gita are at most identical with the doctrines of Dwaitism, it should not be set down for a fault of the author, because an impartial study of the text, leads, in the view of the author, to such conclusions.

Now that the book is before the public, it is for Pandits and scholars to say whether or not the views contained in the book are exactly the teachings of Baghavan Sri Krishna and, if there are points for disagreement, to convincingly prove them without partiality or bias, quite in the spirit in which the author has done his task in this valuable treatise. However much school-men may wrangle about the finality of Spirit and Matter, it does not concern the average man or woman who is a Dwaitin to the core and pupils and students being much more so, we may with confidence say that the book is eminently fitted to be placed in their hands to enable them to get a proper understanding of their duties to God and man. We cannot close without congratulating the author on a work that he has so ably and successfully executed.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Kottakal School, Malabar.—We have received the report of the Headmaster of the school for 1911-12 and we are glad to note that the school has done good work during the year. The strength, the attendance and the examination results were satisfactory and improved over the record of the previous year. We hope the intention of the proprietors to raise the school to the grade of a complete secondary school will soon bear fruit. Since the existence of the school is a source of profit to the Kovilagam by avoiding the cost of schooling their children abroad, they should accomplish the above intention. A commercial class has also been opened to impart instruction in shorthand, typewriting and similar subjects.

A New School near Shoranur.—Under the presidency of Mr. Kavilappara Mooppil Nayar, the opening ceremony of a new school at Vedanamkuruesi, near Shoranur, was conducted on the 15th inst., with much enthusiasm. Almost all the big landlords of Walluvanad were present. The school was construct-

ed by the well-known Desamangalam senior Narayanan Nambudripad, who presented the school to the public of the place at his sole responsibility of management, where free education will be imparted. Speeches on the usefulness of primary education supporting compulsory methods and exhorting landlords to follow the footsteps of the liberal donor Desamangalam Mana were made by Mr. Kururnambudripad, Kunhunni Nayar and others. With the usual votes of thanks the proceedings terminated.

Distribution of Prizes at the Hindu High School, Triplicane.—Sir Harcourt Butler distributed prizes recently at the Triplicane High School on the occasion of the annual prize distribution. Loud applause greeted his arrival and it was some minutes before proceedings could be commenced. Sir John Wallis, the Vice-Chancellor was also on the platform, while among those present were the Hon. Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Iyer, Dr. C. B. Rama Row, Mr. B. Hanumantha Row, Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar, Mr. M. A. Parthasarathy Iyengar. The first item was the reading of the Headmaster's Report for the year ending 30th June 1912.

This was followed by the distribution of prizes and it was noticeable that all of these were books, mostly of famous English authors and poets.

After the distribution of prizes Sir Harcourt Butler addressed the meeting in a long speech on the improvement of secondary education in Madras.

Special Grants to Industrial Schools.—The Government of Madras have sanctioned the utilization of a sum of Rs. 12,000 out of the Imperial grant of 8 lakhs, allotted for the current year, towards the payment of special grants to the following industrial schools:—St. Joseph's Industrial School, Coimbatore; Wesleyan Mission Industrial School, Karur; Chengelvaraya Nayakar's Technical Institute, Madras; Arcot American Mission Industrial School, Arni; St. Joseph's Orphan Industrial School, Tindivanam; Anjuman-i-Mufidi-ahli-Islam, Madras; Art Industrial School, Nazareth; St. Francis Xavier's Industrial School, Tanjore; All Saints Boys' Industrial School, Puthur, Trichinopoly; Anjuman-i-Isha-athul-Hasnath, Vellore; E. G. L. M. Industrial School, Nayadupet. It is proposed to pay the amounts specified above as free grants to the schools for their better equipment. The Superintendent of Industrial Education has been asked to see that the amounts are drawn by the correspondents of the schools concerned and spent in the purchase of articles approved by him and that the necessary vouchers for the articles purchased are submitted to him for scrutiny and check.

The Hindu Theological High School, Madras.—The annual public meeting in connection with the Sarasvati Puja distribution of prizes to the pupils and the school-day celebration was held in the school hall recently. There was a large gathering

on the occasion and the Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. Sadasiva Iyer occupied the chair.

The programme contained a number of interesting items. The boys enacted scenes from English, Telugu and Tamil dramas.

Mr. T. Rajagopala Nair delivered an interesting lecture on religious and moral instruction. The Chairman then gave away the prizes to the students.

With the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman the proceedings came to a close.

Distribution of Prizes, Muthialpet High School, Madras.—The 64th anniversary of the above institution was celebrated recently in the upper hall of the school premises in the presence of a large gathering of gentlemen with the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundara Iyer in the chair.

The proceedings began with prayer after which the Honorary Secretary read the annual report on the working of the institution.

The Chairman then unveiled the oil painting of the late Mr. G. Manika Cbetty, Headmaster.

Prizes consisting of books, medals, etc., were distributed to the deserving pupils and selected dramatic scenes from Sakuntala were enacted by the students in the English language and they were much appreciated by the audience.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundara Iyer made a long speech and was then garlanded, and he said it afforded him great pleasure to have been able to take part in that evening's proceedings.

Mr. O. Thanikachalla Chetty then proposed a hearty vote of thanks to the Chairman for his interesting speech and especially the words of advice given to the students. The proceedings were then brought to a close.

A Girls' School at Vizianagram.—The Government Girls' School which has been recently sanctioned for Vizianagram was formally opened on the 4th inst. Mr. P. Narayana Row Naidu, the District Munsiff, presiding over the pleasing function.

American Mission High School, Pasumalai.—The sixty-seventh anniversary of the American Mission High School and Training Institution at Pasumalai was celebrated in the Washburne Hall, recently, with Mr. A. Rajaram Iyer, B.A., Principal, Madura College, in the chair. The meeting which was very numerously attended, was in some respects a unique one and the gathering consisted of gentlemen, both European and Indian, of teachers and professors, and of students, many of whom squatted on the floor for want of room. The entrance to the premises, the stairs leading to the Hall and the Hall itself were tastefully decorated, and a portion of the Hall was set apart for the location of a small stage, a structure artistically built, on which the school boys enacted their parts during the course of the evening. In front of the building, there was a flag-staff on which

streamed the Union Jack. There was an organ in a corner of the Hall near the dais on which sat the Chairman and the Rev. J. X. Miller.

The School Report was read by Mr. S. Chinniah, B.A., L.T. The Chairman made an interesting speech at the close of which the Rev. J. X. Miller read the names of the prize-winners, and Miss Sanford distributed the prizes. The Chairman congratulated the prize-winners. The National Anthem was sung by groups of four, each group coming successively on the stage, wearing a different national costume and representing the English, the Irish, the French, the Chinese, the Scotch, and lastly the Americans. With the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman, the meeting terminated.

Pay of Pandits and Munshis.—The Governor in Council is pleased to sanction the proposals submitted by the Director of Public Instruction for improving the pay and prospects of Pandits and other language teachers employed in Government schools and colleges, subject to the modifications that the pay of the last grade should be Rs. 30-2-40 and that the increments in all cases should be spread over a period of ten years. The appointments of twenty Pandits and Munshis will accordingly be graded as follows:—

Two on a pay of Rs. 80—4/2—100 each.
Eleven " " 60—3/2—75 "
Four " " 50—2/2—50 "
Three " " 20—2/2—40 "

The Government approve generally the proposals to distribute these appointments among the various institutions and to alter their designation.

The revised scale will be introduced from 1st March 1913.

The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to submit to Government as accurate an estimate as possible of the probable amount that will be required for the payment of aid to other schools if the authorities of those institutions undertake similarly to enhance the pay of the language teachers in their employ.

Delegation of powers.—The Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to delegate to Inspectors and Inspectresses of Schools his power to sanction the payment of grants towards stipends in Training Schools for masters and mistresses.

The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to submit for the approval of Government a draft of the consequential alterations to be made in the Grant-in-Aid Code.

Parlakimedi Debating Association.—The anniversary meeting of the High School and the College Debating Associations was held recently in the

premises of the local college, with the Minor Rajah in the chair. Among those present were Mr. A. Cotton, Companion to the Rajah, Mr. Voss, Mr. Glendenning, Mr. T. C. Orgill and Mrs. Orgill. After the reading of the reports of the Associations, Mr. Cotton addressed the students of the College on "Sports." He observed that sports, if pursued with the spirit of a sportsman, would form the characters of the students. Mr. Orgill then distributed prize books to the winners in the various competitions, such as essay-writing, elocution, versification, etc. The proceedings of the evening then terminated.

Prize Distribution at London Mission High School, Erode.—The leading official public of Erode assembled at a specially erected pandal in the compound of the Rev. A. W. Brough of the L.M.S. to witness the distribution of prizes to the pupils of the London Mission High School recently. Mr. F. R. Hemingway, I.C.S., the Collector, presided and distributed the prizes, after which he delivered an interesting speech on the necessity for moral education. The assembly then witnessed exceedingly well got-up plays, one in English and another in Tamil (the Trial Scene and "Kuchela" Charitram) respectively by the pupils. The singing of the National Anthem brought the proceedings to a close.

BOMBAY.

Opening of a Moslem School at Poona.—Sir G. Clarke lays Foundation Stone.—A large gathering which included the leading members of the Mahomedan community, The Hon. Sir Richard Lamb, S. E. Jaffer Beg, Turkish Consul-General, Major-General Barter, Mr. Prior, Director of Public Instruction and Mrs. Prior, Mr. Fazalbhay Chenai, Mr. S. A. Wahed, Sirdar Nowrojee Padumji, C.I.E. and many others assembled on the open space in front of H. H. the Aga Khan's bungalow on the 13th inst. to witness the ceremony of laying the foundation stone by H. E. Sir George Clarke, Governor of Bombay.

His Excellency who was accompanied by Lady Clarke and Capt. Davis, A. D. C., was received by Mr. Fazulbhay Currimbhoy Ebrahim, son of Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim, founder of the institution and other Mahomedan gentlemen and conducted to the dais when the former explained the object of the scheme for the advancement of Moslem education. The party were then conducted outside the *shamiana* where His Excellency performed the ceremony of laying the foundation of Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim School. After doing so His Excellency declared the stone well and truly laid and added that he hoped Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim would live long to see the fruits of his munificent generosity. He then performed a similar office in case of Bai Khanumbai Noormahomed Joirafbhoy Hostel which was situated some thirty or forty yards away.

CALCUTTA.

St. Xavier's College.—His Excellency Lord Carmichael in company with the Hon. Mr. Kuchler, Director of Public Instruction, and Messrs. Gourlay and Hodgson, recently visited the St. Xavier's College in Park Street.

A guard of honour of the 2nd C. V. R. Cadets under Sergeant-Major Holdesforth and the full College band were drawn up in the compound and the latter immediately His Excellency's motor car entered the gateway, struck up and the Guard presented arms.

His Excellency who was met on arrival by the Rev. Fathers Harris, Schwre, Vander Schuren and Vander Mergel was conducted through the building and appeared to evince a particular interest in the "Goethals Indian Library" and the physical and chemical laboratories.

Mass education in India.—Last year a prize of a hundred Rupees was offered by Dr. S. K. Mullick of Calcutta, for the best and most practical essay on compulsory mass education in India. The task of examining the essays submitted for competition was undertaken by Mr. Gokhale and Mr. Siroda Chara Mitra, retired Judge of the Calcutta High Court, and they awarded the prize to Lala Ram Dhan, B.A., L.L.B., a pleader in practice at Ferozepur, in the Punjab. His essay has now been published by the News Press at Lahore, and we hope it will find many readers in view of the encomium passed upon its author by Mr. Gokhale, who described him as "the only man who really understands the subject."

PUNJAB.

Punjab Engineering School.—In opening the new Punjab Engineering School at Rasul on the 12th inst., Sir Louis Dane regretted that although Punjab with its canal employed the largest number of Engineers of any province in India, and was crying out for development it had no college for teaching the higher branches of Engineering. The institution opened was meant only to teach the lower branches and His Honour felt ashamed in asking Mr. Montagu who was present to come there as the school was only a humble beginning of what it ought to be and might be one day. The Punjabi, as mechanic and artisan, was exceedingly capable, but was handicapped in rising in his profession by want of proper mechanical education. The Rasul Engineering School was to remove this difficulty by giving sound practical training and turning out trained sub-overseers, fitters, firemen and mechanics for whom there was considerable demand as the industrial development of the province proceeded.

Khalsa High School, Gujranwala.—H. H. the Lieutenant Governor of the Punjab laid the foundation stone of the new Khalsa High School at

Gujranwala on the 8th inst. The school buildings it is estimated, will cost Rs. 1,25,000. His Honour also distributed the prizes to the students of the High School.

D. A. V. High School, Dehra Dun.—The annual prize distribution of this school came off recently with great *eclat*. Elaborate preparations were made by the Headmaster for it.

The day's proceedings began with the election of the President, Mr. T. C. Mukerjee, a member of the local Municipality, and known in the town for his many acts of public utility. Next came the chanting of *Prarthna* in Sanskrit by four children of the school in chorus. The President then called upon the Headmaster to read his annual report. Thereport dealt with the progress of the school during the year and pointed out particularly its shortcomings and wants suggesting remedial measures.

Choice recitations in English, Sanskrit and Persian followed. Two dialogues in English by IX and VIII class boys respectively and a piece of poetry recited by a VI class boy with very correct pronunciations and accents were liked by all. *Dayanand Lahari* was sweetly chanted by another VI class boy. The President then gave away the prizes which were 120 in all, including those for general proficiency in religious instruction—the chief feature of the school.

ALLAHABAD.

State Scholarships.—The Director of Public Instruction, Allahabad, has invited applications from candidates desirous of obtaining State Scholarships of £150 a year each, tenable for two years in Europe for the scientific study of Sanskrit.

Government Grant to Ajmer College.—Out of the 50 lakhs of Rupees granted on the occasion of His Majesty's Coronation Durbar held last year, Rupees thirty-two thousand have been allotted to Government College, Ajmer. The boon, unexpected as it is, will serve to avert the imminent and threatened danger of its disaffiliation from the Allahabad University.

Advice to new Graduates.—A meeting was held recently in the Balarampur Hall of the Macdonnell Hindu Boarding House, Allahabad, when Dr. Satish Chandra Banerji and Dr. Tej Bahadur Sapru addressed the new graduates of the Allahabad University who received their degrees at the recent Convocation. The whole hall was crowded with graduates and under-graduates.

The Hon. Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya was voted to the chair amid loud applause. The Hon. Pandit at the outset offered his hearty congratulations to the new graduates on the distinction they had won and said that he would not stand any longer between them and Dr. S. C. Banerji and Dr. T. B.

Sapru whom they were all very keen to hear. He called upon Dr. Banerji to address the meeting.

Dr. Banerji and Dr. Sapru then delivered lengthy and able addresses.

The Chairman then rose amidst loud applause to address the meeting. He expressed the thanks of the meeting to Dr. Banerji and Dr. Sapru for their able addresses full of sound sense and asked the new graduates to follow the valuable advice given to them.

Pandit Haridaya Nath Kunzru then proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman and Drs. Banerji and Sapru. The vote was carried by acclamation and the proceedings terminated.

MYSORE.

Education in Mysore.—At a recent meeting of the Representative Assembly, the following were among the subjects discussed:—

EDUCATING THE RYOT.

Intelligent ryots of the poorer classes may, it was prayed, be encouraged to undergo practical training in the Government Hebbal Agricultural Farm for a year or two by granting them scholarships.—The Dewan replied that the Agricultural Committee of the Economic Conference had the scheme in hand.

OTHER EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

The other subjects referred to prayers for the granting of scholarships as an encouragement to industries, the affording of greater facilities for educating the weaver classes, a preference to the subjects of His Highness the Maharajah in schools and colleges in the State, and the Honours course in colleges, to all of which the Dewan gave a sympathetic hearing, and a promise that they would be noted for consideration.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS.

It was represented that instruction on religious subjects in schools now in vogue cannot prove a success owing to the pupils being of various creeds. It would be much better if instruction on abstract moral principles to be observed by every loyal subject is given with illustrations. No religious instruction should be given in Government schools. Such education may be left in the hands of parents. The good work done in the way of tolerance among the various religious sects and communities during the last 80 years is being marred. The intention with which the Government has introduced this instruction will never be attained. In reply the Dewan said:—"The Inspector-General of Education will give your suggestions his attention."

CONSCIENCE CLAUSE.

Mr. C. Srinivasa Rao, Chickmagalur Taluk, urged that provision may be made for a "Conscience Clause" in the Grant-in-Aid Code for all aided schools and colleges in the State so that all pupils attending such schools may have the benefit of such pro-

vision as is allowed in all aided schools and colleges of British India for European and Eurasian pupils.—This was noted for consideration.

GRANTS FOR GAMES.

Mr. M. Venkatakrishnaiah, Mysore City Municipality, prayed that grants be given to school gymnasia, athletics and games. The Dewan replied that the matter was being experimented with in Doddballapur.

A Girls' School Field Day.—The annual field day of the Baldwin Girls' High School in Richmond Road, Bangalore, was held on the 2nd inst. Miss Fisher, Principal of the School, received the very large gathering of guests, who began to arrive from as early as 3 o'clock when the first part of the programme was negotiated. Part II was taken in hand at 5 o'clock, opening with tennis and badminton tournaments and a basket-ball competition, to which events the extensive grounds of the school lend themselves admirably. The competition, however, that created the greatest merriment during the evening was the animal race—an event that went under the category of "Menagerie race" in my school days and still means the same sport. Some poultry, many dogs and a calf and a donkey made up the entrants in this case, and the dog seemed to come away from the rest by leaps and bounds. The play grounds of the institution were effectively embellished for the occasion, in the work of which the talent of the girls was largely noticeable, and refreshments were served under the spreading trees of the compound. A "Lantern-Chain" closed the programme, after which the prizes were distributed amidst the customary cheering and cheerfulness.

TRAVANCORE.

Bishop Hodges H. G. S. School Literary Society.—Under the auspices of the Literary Society attached to the Bishop Hodges' H. G. S. School, a special meeting was held in the school hall recently under the presidency of M. R. Ry. Udayavarma Raja Avargal, B.A., the senior member of the old royal family of Mavalikara. There was a large gathering including the officials of the station. After a few introductory remarks from the chair, Mr. K. Abraham, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the school, made a short speech in which he dwelt briefly on the importance of a Literary Society in the general education of young men who are to be the leaders of the rising generation. Mr. J. J. Noronha, B.A., delivered an interesting lecture "A Literary Society and its Advantages." The lecturer dwelt at length on the practical working of literary societies and the advantages that can be derived therefrom if they are conducted in a right spirit of moderation and hearty co-operation. The programme consisted of other interesting items including songs, a Malayalam farce and an English drama. The Chairman in his concluding speech referred to the indefatigable efforts of Christian Missionaries towards the spread of education. The National Anthem brought the

function to a close and the gathering dispersed with three hearty cheers to H. M. the King-Emperor and to H. H. the Maharajah of Travancore.

HYDERABAD.

Mahboob College, Secunderabad.—The distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Mahboob College came off recently. Col. A. F. Pinhey, C.S.I., C.I.E., the Resident, presided and gave away the prizes. The college premises were prettily decorated with flags and bunting and the large hall was crowded to overflowing. The Resident's speech was very sympathetic and encouraging and was greatly appreciated by the audience. He promised the college large grants both recurring and non-recurring and exhorted the public of Secunderabad to subscribe liberally towards the up-keep of the college. We have no doubt that this appeal will meet with a satisfactory response. The congratulations that the Resident bestowed on the Headmaster and his staff are, in our opinion, well deserved. The college has been very lucky in securing a succession of able and enthusiastic Headmasters and Mr. Alagappa Moodaliar, the present Headmaster has improved the college considerably and done much to ensure its progress. He is popular among the pupils for the kindly interest he takes in their welfare and has by the conscientious performance of his duties as well as by his genial disposition, won the regard and esteem of all around him. The technical classes opened at the beginning of the year have, we understand, been a great success and the results at the public examinations have been uniformly good.

We congratulate Rai Bahadur C. Varadarajoo Moodaliar, the Honorary Secretary of the College, and Col. Hodgson, the President of the College Committee upon the well merited tribute of praise they have received from the hands of the Resident.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The Prince of Wales.—The Prince of Wales who becomes an Oxford Undergraduate, will, it is said, be at liberty to become a member of the Oxford Union and of other University societies. His grandfather was an honorary member of the Union only. He used, with his Governor, Colonel Bruce, to attend the debates of the Society, when he occupied

a special chair beside the President, but his appearances in the Union except on these occasions were very rare. He was not allowed, much as he desired, to rub shoulders with his fellow-members. Vincent's Club, in its old quarters, on a first floor in the High, was not for him either.

Indian Students in England—Dissatisfaction with Official Arrangements.—In the issues of *India*, dated September 20 and 27 there were published two articles on 'Indian Students in England,' by Mr. Syed Abdul Aziz, of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law. The writer's main contention, in the second of his two articles, is that the official view taken of the success of the 'Central Bureau of Information,' situate at 21, Cromwell Road, London, is not justified, and there is another side to this official view. The articles referred to, and the ensuing correspondence thereon, clearly show that the Bureau has failed to justify its existence, and that consequently its maintenance at the cost of the Indian tax payer is not warranted.

With regard to the operations of this institution there is general dissatisfaction amongst the Indians in England, but the people in India are in the dark as to the opinion of the former and the facts they possess. It was therefore desired and deemed necessary that those who support the views expressed by Mr. Abdul Aziz should hold a public meeting, which came off on the 4th instant at Caxton Hall, Westminster, in order to draw the attention of the public and the authorities to this important matter by passing the following resolution:—

'That in the opinion of this meeting, the Central Bureau of Information, situate at 21, Cromwell Road, London, S. W., in charge of an Educational Adviser for the Indian students, has failed to establish any of the claims made on its behalf, and its maintenance, at continuously increasing public expense, for the alleged convenience of a very limited number of well-to-do Indians, is not justified, and that this meeting is of further opinion that Indian parents who may desire to have a guardian for their children studying in the United Kingdom should make their own arrangements; and if such parents desire to have the services of an official, they alone must be charged for such services with a view to make his establishment self-supporting.'

Mr. J. M. Parikh, Barrister-at-Law, presided, and the hall was crowded. The proceedings were most enthusiastic throughout, and terminated in an unanimous vote in favour of the resolution.

The Educational Review.

Prof. John Adams presided this year over Section L of the British Education as a science. Association meeting (at Dundee) — Educational

Science. His presidential speech dealt chiefly with the question of '*Education as a Science*,' a title familiar to most as that of a book by Dr. Bain in the International Scientific Series and the principal gospel of educationists, a generation ago. The word 'science' in those days, as it still is in our days among the unscientific, was a magic cognomen calculated to make any body of doctrine orthodox. Prof. Adams, this year, endeavours to clothe with meaning this old cant phrase, educational science. The word 'scientific' applies to a method of procedure in enquiry and is opposed to 'empiric' which is another method of enquiry. Observation and collection of facts, attempting to fit the facts in a theory, testing theory by an appeal to experiment and evaluating results with reference to some recognized standard, these constitute the scientific method; lack of any one of these is empiricism.

Prof. Adams' exposition of the scientific method in education naturally raises the question, *Is teaching in India scientific?* how far teaching in India is influenced by the method of science. Let us consider the teaching of English. It consists in the patient, laboured exposition of a text. The teacher, be he lecturing in a college or mastering it in a school, reads the text, line by line, sentence by sentence, translates the sentiments of the author into his own language, explains the implications

of the imagery, points out archaisms, of syntax or of vocabulary, irregularities in the metre and, in the phrase of the vernacular poet, chews the sugar-cane till it turns bitter in the mouth. This method of teaching is based on a theory, as all scientific method ought to be: the theory is (1) that the sentiments of a poet are valuable apart from the poetic expression and should therefore be presented to the learner in the milk-and-water style which alone the lecturer is capable of: (2) that the noting of the peculiarities of poetical style, which are more frequently called irregularities of versification and other forms of poetic license is useful for appreciating a poet. In so far as this method of teaching is based on a theory, it is scientific. But theory precedes method and verification follows. Testing how far the method has produced the object aimed at, we find the results to be disappointing. The appreciation of English poetry by the average student, as Father Quinn pointed out in his address to the South Indian Branch of the English Association in October last, is very poor; its influence on the mind of the average B.A. *nil*, a few brilliant exceptions only proving the rule.

These facts point to some flaws in the theory that underlies this method of teaching poetry. Bad methods in teaching poetry. And those flaws are not far to seek. Poetry is nothing but expression. The poet does not announce to the world some new, unknown, unsuspected truth, as the scientist does, say when a Darwin announces that creation is not an inexplicable phenomenon, but a natural selection of the fittest to survive under the ever-changing conditions of life. On the

contrary, poets take old world truths and reclothe them in new imagery, so as to appeal to minds similar in nature to the poet's own. And since the expression constitutes the essence of poetry, you can as well attempt to teach poetry by the method of paraphrase as attempt to help a man to read a picture by scraping the paint off and putting your own daub in its place. Similarly lecturing on the peculiarities of grammar which is the stock-in-trade of the average teacher of Shakespeare is scarcely poetry-teaching; the teaching of so-called irregularities of prosody is not the means to train the ear to appreciate the glorious rhythm of the greater English poets. Thus the application of the scientific method of procedure reveals the method of teaching poetry in our schools and colleges to be faulty. We sadly want bold experiments in teaching methods before we can hit upon proper methods but the pressure of University examinations grinds enthusiasm out of the souls of our teachers and we have to go ever in the old ruts.

Mr. H. A. Treble, writing in *The Journal of English Studies*, Vol. I, No. 2, describes a method of Poetry teaching. teaching poetry startlingly opposed to the traditional ones. His first principle in teaching poetry is, "Don't teach at all." That is, the intervention of the teacher, the editor, and the commentator, between the pupil and the poem should be as little as possible. The next thing he points out that the poetry lesson should not be turned into a language lesson. To make a song into a peg on which to hang exercises on parsing and analysis is vandalism of the worst kind. Nor is the paraphrase a desirable exercise; it but leads the pupil to imagine that poetry is

an unnatural form of expression. The teaching of poetry should begin with ballads. At this stage, the teaching should consist merely in reading so as to familiarize the ears of the pupil with the lilt of the poem. At the next stage, poetry of a more complex kind may be chosen; now the teaching should be merely the pointing out of beauties of expression which the unassisted pupil is likely to miss and in the training of the visualizing of descriptions. Now the pupil may be introduced to Shakespeare. Rapid but efficient reading, passing over the difficult passages, the understanding of which is not essential for understanding the play as a whole, should constitute the first teaching. When the play is read a second time, the difficult passages may be taken up but Elizabethan grammar and philology should be relegated to the background. The third stage is that of critical work and literary history. But this we need not discuss here.

Though the period covered by this Report Administration is one in which momentous changes were introduced 1910-1911. in "Public Instruction," the Report itself is not a very exciting document. In the financial portion of it or in the part dealing with the number and strength of schools, nothing noteworthy is recorded, except that the total expenditure from all sources on education has increased by 7 per cent. There was a fall in the strength of colleges; 32 female students pursued University courses and 45 students pursued post-graduate courses which means, we suppose, studied for the M.A. degree and were not engaged on post-graduate research. There was a fall in the number of secondary schools from 362 to 349, which is regrettable.

It is explained in the Report that there was not a real fall, for weak incomplete secondary schools were converted into complete elementary schools. But since the distinction between elementary and lower classes of secondary schools, whatever it might be in theory, is, as a matter of fact, non-existent, absolutely the same work being done in elementary schools and in the lower classes of secondary schools, this explanation is not very consoling. There was a distinct rise in the number of elementary schools, there having been 333 more schools and 33,551 more pupils than during the previous year. This is gratifying. The Report mentions that special attention is being paid to Teachers' Associations and special science lectures are being delivered in Madras to elementary school teachers; but from first-hand knowledge we can testify that the work done is nominal. Special education, European education and various other similar sub-divisions of educational activity are mentioned, but with nothing noteworthy about them except that non-European girls' schools have increased by 60.

A writer in the *English Review* for September, relating his experiences Relics of a barbarous age. in a large and expensive public school in England, says: "As the boys gibed at my knowledge of French, I soon learnt deliberately to talk badly and eventually to forget, so that when I left I knew positively less French than when I entered the school.....The way foreign languages are taught at these schools is a farce and a scandal. The method is stupid, purely formal, and wooden, French, for example, being taught exactly like Greek, as if it were a dead language. The consequence is that the teaching is dead, the interest of the boys is

dead: the whole business is commonly looked upon with derision." What would this writer say if he entered a school or college of the Madras Presidency and heard Tamil or Telugu taught to boys whose mother-tongue is Tamil or Telugu exactly as Sanskrit is taught? The poetry teaching consists merely in translating word for word the archaic language of poems into the modern dialect which can be used in teaching but which the boys cannot use in their own composition. The grammar teaching is absolutely unconnected with the matter read, but based on a text-book written in verse and exceptions justified by metrical peculiarities in the verse of the grammar text-book, in this style:—"As the grammar finishes this rule with the meaningless letter e, the following exceptions to the rules are referred to by that letter." Such is the kind of teaching that the advocates of the vernaculars want to perpetuate. The anonymous writer in the *English Review* forgot his French as the result of bad teaching. Is not the notorious inability of our graduates to compose in their vernaculars, due to the same cause, bad teaching of the vernaculars? We learn the languages, miscalled 'classical,' not to compose in them but to understand the literature enshrined in them. The teaching of the vernaculars as dead languages must result in a paralysis of one's powers of composition.

The botanist Brown discovered in 1827 that little particles placed in water and examined with a microscope do not sink down as a pebble dropped into a well but move about briskly in all sorts of directions. This movement is perceptible in all liquids which are not vis-

cous and in gases. This agitation is the more marked the smaller the granules. This "Brownian movement never stops. Inside a cell, closed so as to prevent evaporation, it can be watched for days, months, years. It is exhibited by the liquids enclosed in quartz for thousands of years. It is eternal and spontaneous." The mystery of the Brownian movement has been solved by Prof. Perrin of the Sorbonne. The agitation of the particles is due to the motion of the molecules of the fluid itself; for a fluid apparently in equilibrium is really in violent and spontaneous agitation. If we pour alcohol in water, the two fluids get intimately mixed together. This we can understand only if their molecules were in constant motion, for if they were motionless the two fluids cannot interpenetrate each other. This explanation first given by Weiner in 1863 has now been proved to be true by Prof. Perrin, who has measured the size of molecules and thus verified it quantitatively. He first determined the weight of an atom of hydrogen to be very nearly $\text{grm. } 1.47 \times 10^{-24}$, a value corroborated also by theoretical calculations. This result he arrived at by measuring the distribution of equilibrium with reference to the height of molecules in emulsions. This result he has verified by measurement of the Brownian movement. Lord Rayleigh has also arrived at similar results about the sizes of molecules from the diffraction they cause in sun's light, such as produces the blueness of the sky. The results have also been verified by methods of observation based on radioactivity and electrification of droplets and molecules have been finally proved to be objective realities and not theoretical entities created by the imagination of chemists.

Mr. Pease, speaking the other day at Newcastle, said that the Board of Education were coming to the conclusion that examinations were not the best test of efficiency. Examinations serve a real purpose if they are merely used as a stimulus to school work; but they fail hopelessly if used as a means of selecting candidates wishing to enter careers or a further course of study. Many a student that passed the Madras University Matriculation was absolutely unfit, and many that failed were quite fit, for proceeding to a University course or entering a professional career. All this we, in Madras, believe or rather pretend to believe; but our practice shows the hollowness of our profession. Headmasters follow an elaborate scheme of assessing school work but their results are not regarded as worth anything. Principals are supposed to have complete discretion in selecting with the help of the S. S. L. certificates of pupils and other means at their disposal those that are fit for Matriculation at their colleges, but the Syndicate regard Principals as sure to misbehave and insists on accepted certificates being sent to it for scrutiny. The chain of suspicion goes further. A man may lecture to his pupils on morals but is not considered moral enough to be trusted to examine his own pupils. The serpent of suspicion has wound tight its slimy folds on all educational work. Will any Hercules ever rise to fight this monster?

Lord Haldane, speaking at the Bristol University, upon "equality of opportunity in education as something that should be within the reach of every youth and

A policy of suspicion.

"Many ought to be called."

maiden" said, "only the few can be chosen, but the many may and ought to be called." Very often we hear in India the opposite sentiment expressed by responsible people. As there are not enough openings in life for the young men that pass yearly out of our Universities, a check must be placed, in the opinion of these critics, on the number that enter Universities. This is a most mischievous doctrine. The object of Universities is to spread culture and not to manufacture superior clerks and budding Deputy Collectors; and the more young men come in touch with University life—poor as it is—in this country, the better will it be for the land. A University that is anxious to restrict admission within its doors stands self-condemned. A course of collegiate education, even to those that cannot ultimately pass muster in the B. A. degree examination is not a waste of effort but so much national asset. Though the University organization is not elastic enough to find exactly what each young is fit for and train him for what he is fit, but is but a Procrustean bed as our Universities unfortunately are, yet spending a few years in University work cannot but prove a blessing to young men.

The unconscious humour in the following extract from a Church Missionary Society's pamphlet, entitled "The Awakening of India's Womanhood," first attracted our attention to it and we pass it on to our readers. The writer says: "The problem of to-day is how to deal most wisely with the new insistent demand for education, that it may be a purifying and ennobling influence in the new life of India. In Government Schools the education is, and must be, secular and

non-religious, and, therefore admittedly destructive of Eastern faiths. It lies with the grant-aided Mission schools to do the constructive work so sorely needed, to lay the sure foundations of eternal truth, and to insist upon the fulness of Christian character as the true ideal of education." The *naïveté* of the proposal to stop the destruction of Eastern faiths by insisting upon "Christian character as the true ideal of education" is remarkable. Anyway we fail to see how the alleged destructive effect of education in Government Schools can be counteracted in the minds of students who have become a prey to it. As a matter of fact, we do not believe that the so-called secular education in schools, accompanied as it is by religious education in every sense in our homes, on our pials, in bhajana parties, etc., has destroyed the Hindu religion. Many of the reactionaries that attempt to prop up superstition now in our country by pseudo-scientific explanations of ancient myths have been through Government Schools and many rabid materialists of our acquaintance are ex-students of Missionary colleges. The success of Christian Missionaries to-day in India is, as it was in ancient Judæa, Greece, and Rome, amidst the despised and down-trodden. Among the higher classes, there has been an upheaval of superstition latterly, though it cannot be denied that the study of English Literature, itself inspired by a blend of Hebrew, Greco-Roman and Gothic ideals, has elevated the character of our educated men and of our public life.

A writer in *School Science and Mathematics* for November 1912, outlines an interesting scheme of profitable laboratory work in Geography in secondary schools.

The first is 'regional studies,' such as (1) the study of a water-fall, the scenery associated with it, its economic importance; (2) the vicinity of the home and the adjustment between the culture of people to the contour of the land they occupy; (3) the adjustment of the people, the roads, industries, etc., to a coastal plain; (4) the physical features of a great city and the relation of the economy of the city to them. 'River studies' admit of the following work. Plotting out an outline map of the great drainage basins and the study of floods along with a rainfall map, the study of possibilities of developing irrigation, navigation, etc., along with a contour map. 'Atmosphere studies' cover the ordinary work of meteorological observatories—and here we cannot help interposing a wish that the Government of India will see its way to amalgamating their meteorological observatories with the schools in the neighbourhood—and study of the daily weather map and training in forecasting. Other useful work would be the correlation of a physical atlas with a commercial atlas, of a contour map with a rainfall map, a rainfall map with a map of forests or population. In all this work, three things should not be lost sight of—careful observation, accurate records and logical deductions. The acquisition of facts of science and the formation of right habits of thought are the object of this kind of teaching of Geography.

In connection with the Fifth International Congress of Mathematicians which met at Cambridge in August 1912, the Mathematical Association (England) organized an Exhibition. Section C was devoted to calculating machines.

The more interesting items were the adding machines, in which the addition was done when a key was depressed and "carrying" from one denomination to another was done by various special devices: Cash Registers, electrically driven, Comptometers which could add, subtract, multiply and divide, Arithmoneters for actuarial calculations, apparatus for solving algebraical polynomial equations. A touching incident closed the meeting of the Congress. "A procession of members proceeded to Cayley's grave and there deposited a wreath in his memory. Funds were secured for the preparation of a silver wreath to be presented to the University as a permanent tribute of respect and honour from the Congress to this great Cambridge mathematician."

We are glad to announce that Prof. K. V. Rangasami Iyengar, M.A., of Triyandrum and Dr. P. S. Chandrasakar, B.A., M.D., of the Medical College, Madras, have been elected as Fellows of the Madras University, the former by the Registered Graduates and the latter by the Faculty of Medicine.

We congratulate the electors not only for the best choice they have made but also for returning educationists.

THE HON. MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI AIYER'S ADDRESS AT TRICHINOPOLY.

At the annual distribution of prizes at the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, the Hon. Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyer, C.S.I., C.I.E., delivered the following valuable address:—

Father Bertram, students, ladies and gentlemen:—It is always a pleasure to meet students and see their faces beaming with pleasure at their own success or at the success achieved by their fellow-students. I have presided at several prize distributions but I have never had the pleasure of meeting such a large number of students in any other institution. It is not merely a pleasure but a privilege to be present on this occasion and to see something of the work of this college. Though I am a native of the neighbouring district of Tanjore and I am not a stranger to the work of the St. Joseph's College, I must confess I have hitherto not been able to pay a visit to this institution and see how splendidly it is equipped and how zealously it is conducted. The report which has been read by Father Bertram shows an unbroken record of success. Whether in the field of intellectual contest, or in the field of out-door sports, the college has more than maintained its own. You will agree with me that the college authorities deserve our thanks and our congratulations for the excellent work they have done in the year under review. Usually the annual reports of colleges contain mere uninteresting arrays of figures. The report read to-night is however one of the most interesting and suggestive I have ever come across. Father Bertram has dealt with all the chief controversial questions of the day and all the important topics that are now engaging the attention of the educational world. Among the new departures in the year under review has been the introduction of the Honours' Course and Father Bertram has sought to justify it and has succeeded in his attempt. The colleges in Madras have undoubtedly several advantages over those in the mofussil. Their students are drawn from all parts of the Presidency. They live in a more intellectual atmosphere, in a place where there is more evidence of something like public spirit. They have greater opportunities of coming in contact with eminent men from other countries. They can get the benefit of inter-collegiate lectures which may be arranged between the different colleges in Madras. Their life may be

said to be on the whole richer in interest. The advantages that I have mentioned no doubt count towards the better realisation of University ideals. On the other hand, the mofussil colleges are not without compensating advantages. The students here are probably more free from the distractions of the numerous public meetings and functions which are apt to draw away the student from his legitimate work. You have the advantage of studying under a body of teachers whose enthusiasm for their work is unbounded, who look upon education not as a paying profession but as a calling to which their lives have been dedicated. It may also be fairly urged that the number of students in this centre is a world sufficiently large to confer that variety of experience and mutual intercourse which are some of the attractions of a good University. There are various agencies in this college to promote a sense of corporate life among the students. The College Union and the Hostel and the arrangements made for sports and games are all calculated to draw students closer towards each other and make them feel an interest and pride in the colleges to which they belong. The College Magazine which has been recently started is a further attempt to stimulate intellectual activity among the students. The mofussil colleges seem to me to have a distinct place to fill to and supply a want in the scheme of education in the Presidency. A further justification for maintaining and strengthening the colleges in the mofussil is that it is not possible for the poorer classes of students to attend the colleges in the metropolis. It has been said in connection with the enhancement of school and college fees that it is desirable to eliminate the unsuitable and incompetent, by raising the fees to a point which would render a University education prohibitive to persons of the poorer classes. I do not think it can be said that poverty implies lack of intelligence, or unsuitability for higher courses either in Southern India generally or in the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly from which the bulk of the students of this institution is drawn. A policy of raising the fees if carried out without other compensating measures may have the effect of shutting out the most competent and the best qualified students from the colleges. There has been a growing feeling even in England that the Universities must be thrown open even to the working classes and people of a similar station in life. The greater facilities offered by the mofussil colleges to the poorer boys furnish

abundant justification for their existence. If, however, I may indulge in a vision of the future, I think the time must come when the educational needs of the Presidency cannot be served by a single University having its centre of operations in Madras. Notwithstanding the existence of the ancient and richly endowed Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the movement has grown in England for the creation of other Universities in other centres. The colleges which were the nuclei of the modern Universities of Manchester, Liverpool, etc., could not at the inception have been as well equipped or endowed as the older Universities. Nor could they have claimed all the advantages possessed and offered by the ancient seats of learning. Nevertheless the feeling in favour of local Universities grew strong and eventually found expression in the establishment of several of them in suitable localities. I do not think that a University for the southern districts, one for the northern districts and another for the group of western districts, would be too many for the wants of the future. If a University is ever to come into existence for the southern group of districts, where is a college better fitted to serve as a nucleus for that University than this college which is so splendidly equipped, is so zealously conducted and is so popular, and which place can be claimed to be a more central or suitable locality than Trichinopoly where we find, in addition to this college, a Protestant college close by and a Hindu institution which may one day develop into a college? Trichinopoly yields to no other place in religious importance from the Hindu point of view. Here at the foot of the picturesque rock-fort and its crowning temple is a place dear to the Hindu mind on account of the sanctity of its shrines and steeped in historical associations appealing to the Englishman, the Mahomedan and the Hindu, where temple, mosque and chapel flourish side by side in peace under the ægis of British rule. The Christian and the Hindu educational institutions cluster together closely and can continue to work in a spirit of friendly emulation and with that spirit of tolerance and harmony which should pervade the atmosphere of a University. In view of the possibilities of the future, the attempt to strengthen the existing colleges by the introduction of an Honours' Course or otherwise requires no apology or excuse.

Another question to which reference was made in the report is the subject of moral and religious instruction in schools. Father Bertram has told us what views he submitted to the com-

mittee recently appointed by the Government to inquire into the subject. I think they are perfectly sound and I am glad to find that he is prepared to adopt the conscience clause in the management of this institution. I am not, however, prepared to insist upon the introduction of this clause in institutions conducted by other missionary bodies whose religious scruples prevent them from recognising the similar scruples of others. If those institutions have been established and are being conducted on the understanding that religious instruction is to form part of their teaching, I think, it would be a serious loss if those colleges were to withdraw from their work in consequence of the introduction of any conscience clause. I am also unaware that the absence of such a clause has in any way affected the popularity of institutions like the Madras Christian College.

Yet another topic on which Father Bertram has dwelt is the position of the Oriental languages in the education system of the country. Only two days ago the cause of the Oriental languages was eloquently pleaded by the Rev. Mr. Allan Gardiner in his Convocation Address. The subject is one which is beset with difficulties. Apparently Mr. Gardiner's object was to justify the action of the University in putting forward its proposals for the utilisation of the University grant. The proposals of the University were largely based upon the ground that the subjects chosen by them for the University lectures were those in which there was a large scope for local research and there were great possibilities of success. The foundation of the professorships proposed by the University will advance the cause of research and scholarship. But it is not likely to popularise a study of the classical and vernacular languages to which Mr. Gardiner has justly attached importance and which has undoubtedly been set back by the recent action of the University. I do not see that Mr. Gardiner has made any practical suggestion, if I may be allowed to say so, for the purpose of attaining the end which he so eloquently advocates. Father Bertram has suggested that a second language might be included as compulsory subject in group III of the Intermediate course and Group V of the B.A. course without prejudice to Group VI of the B.A. course. I think these suggestions deserve the consideration of the University and if possible should be given a trial. I can well foresee the objections that are likely to be put forward by the University. The new regulations have only

recently come into force and it might be considered unwise to go on constantly tinkering with the courses of studies and condemn the new regulations without giving them a reasonable trial. There are further obvious objections to the restoration of the classical and vernacular languages to the position which they occupied before the recent regulations. The various optional groups have become highly specialised and it is quite likely that the addition of compulsory subjects to these courses may be objected to as over-burdening the student. The fact cannot however be denied that the study of the vernaculars has received a serious check. The demand for classical and vernacular studies has so greatly fallen that in many institutions the services of the Pandits have been dispensed with. Though it may be impracticable to set back the hand of the clock at the place which it formerly had on the dial, I think it deserves serious consideration whether the suggestions made by Father Bertram are not feasible. I should like to supplement Father Bertram's suggestions by another that a classical or a vernacular language should be added to the compulsory group A in the School Final Scheme of studies. In passing I should like to observe that the cry for more specialised education in science is a little overdone. It is imagined that by providing a highly specialised education we shall be necessarily advancing the cause of research and stimulating the growth of originality. I should be the last person to underrate the importance of scientific studies or the value to the country of original research. But I cannot help thinking that somewhat hazy notions prevail as to the conditions under which original work is done. Unless a man who goes through a highly specialised course of study in science is able to devote his after-life to the same study he has no chance of doing any useful work in the department of study which he has chosen. How few of our graduates can devote themselves to scientific research after they leave the college! Our science graduates are obliged just like other graduates to choose walks of life which offer no facilities for the prosecution of research. And if we look at other countries research work is mainly done by persons who are engaged in the work of education or in laboratories attached to great industrial concerns. What the country really wants is citizens of liberal education and culture. The chief value of scientific studies lies in the mental discipline and in the intellectual habits they create and foster. The mere scientific

information is not half as valuable as the habit of observing things and dealing with questions in a scientific spirit. I doubt whether from this point of view the demand for specialisation in a high degree is not overdone and whether the legitimate claim of other branches of study are not likely to be overlooked.

I now pass on to a subject to which the attention of students and their parents or guardians has not been sufficiently directed. There are hundreds of you gathered here to-night. I wonder whether any of you have given attention to the question of your future career. Very probably many of you think that "sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof" and it is enough for the present to consider how best you may go through your school or college course and how best you may equip yourselves as students. But I do not think that is a sufficiently serious view of your responsibilities. It is a problem which appeals very strongly to parents and guardians and has to be faced by conditional authorities. What is to be your future avocation? That is the question I would earnestly entreat all heads of schools and colleges to endeavour as far as in them lies to help the students in solving correctly, that is, in accordance with the students' talents, aptitudes, circumstances, and limitations. Some of you, or most of you perhaps, look to employment in the service of the Government. I do not wish in any manner to disparage employment in the service of the Government. Nor do I wish to prevent you from entering the public service. But it certainly has to be remembered that Government service cannot possibly be the sole avenue of employment. Other walks of life must necessarily be sought by the hundreds of young men who are seeking education in the various colleges and schools. Numbers of them come to me for advice, and I am sure they come to my friends also for advice and I confess I have found it exceedingly difficult to suggest some practical solution. But the difficulty that one may find in solving the problem does not relieve you or me or any one else of the duty of facing the problem. You will do well to think of industrial or commercial pursuits. If other avenues of employment are to be sought it is, I think, the duty of those who are responsible for the management of our schools and the Principals of colleges to shape their courses of instruction in such a way that they may be helpful to their students in fitting them for new walks of life. It is perhaps hardly

fair to suggest to the authorities of this college any course which may appear to be likely to throw an additional burden upon their resources. But their resources are great, their enthusiasm is unbounded, and their love for this country is so great that I feel excused if not justified in making an appeal to the managing body. For instance, it may be possible to give some sort of instruction in the rudiments of mechanical engineering, considering the facilities offered by the presence of large Railway workshops where it may be possible to induce the authorities to take in apprentices. You may develop a commercial side on the lines on which the School of Commerce in Calicut has been conducted. That may enable a large number of students to earn a fair living in mercantile firms or independently as auditors or otherwise. There are various other ways in which it is possible for the authorities of a college or

school to help their students in the choice of their careers as far as in them lies. I hope, the students of this institution will avail themselves to the fullest extent of all the advantages and opportunities which are open to them here. The Society of Jesus was distinguished in Europe for furnishing the best professorial body in the Church of Rome. The Missions in this country have worked with the same single-hearted zeal and devotion to learning with which they have worked in Europe. You have the great advantage of being guided by professors who attach a great value to discipline and conduct.

Let me conclude by saying how much I esteem it a privilege to have been given this opportunity of seeing the splendid equipment of this college and of testifying to my appreciation of the work of this college and its services in the cause of education.

JUST READY.

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THE SIMPLIFIED SPELING SOSIETI.

BI MARK HUNTER, M.A.,

Onorari Secretari ov the South Indian Braanch.

Ring out, wield belz, tu the wield scie,
The fliing cloud, the frosti liet;
The yeer iz diing in the niet;
Ring out, wield belz, and let him die.

Ring out the oeld, ring in the nyu,
Ring, hapi belz, acros the snoe,
The yeer iz going, let him goe;
Ring out the fauls, ring in the tru.

* * * * *
Ring out a sloeli diing cauz,
And ainshent formz ov parti strief;
Ring in the noebler moedz ov lief,
With sweeter manerz, pyuerer lauz.

We mai hoep that in the cors ov the nyu yeer the cauz ov irashonal spelling, stil tu sloeli diing, tugether with aul thoez 'ainshent formz' ov falaishus argyument which ignorant sentiment invoecs in its suport, wil be veri larjli 'rung out.' The Secretari ov our Sosiety in London in a reesent leter tu me riets hoepfuli. "The wurc heer," he sez, "goez ahed and bi the end ov necst yeer we shal be in a veri strong pozishon." He haz beyond cwestion good groundz for hoep. Stil the persistensi with which English peepl ov edyucaishon and cultyur refynez tu recog-niez the obvius in the mater ov spelling iz litl short ov apauling. That the soel purpos ov

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speling iz tu reprezent speech az faithfuli and consistentli az practical conveeniens permits, seemz tu eni wun hu haz taicen the slietst trubl tu thinc out the subject for himself, an aulmoest self-evident propozishon. Yet this plain and simpl trunth iz bi everi suporter ov our present orthografi implisitli denied. The distingshon, agen, between spoecensoundz and riten simbolz iz ov so elementari a carактер that it seemz aulmoest an insult tu the intelijens ov an opoenent tu urj it. And yet nuthing iz mor surten than that the majoriti ov English peepl du not recogniez a disting-shon so fundamental and so eezi tu graasp. Thai constantli confyuez the spoecen wurd with the riten and printed sienz which ade-cwitli or inadecwitli simboleiz it. I am freecwentli joeyulurli aasct bi mi frendz hou I am geting on with mi 'nyu langwij,' naimli, simplified spelling. And hou ofen hav spelling reformerz been charjd with atempting tu lai sacrilijus handz upon the venerabl muther-tung and with seecing tu contaminait the pyuer stream ov English undefield!

If a cors in fonetics, such az haz reesentli been conducted in Madras bi Mr. Daniel Jones, had formed part ov everi Englishmanz edyucaishon, and wer the bair outlienz ov the histori ov the muther-tung recond among the thingz which everi Englishman aut to noe,

the ignorans and confyuezhon ov thaut which iz displaid in the yuemorus saliz and graiv indictments I hav menshond wood be met with much les freecwentli than thai ar.

But in the prezent stait ov ignorans—an ignorans which, bi the wai, iz not confiend tu Englishmen, and iz not unnoen in relaishon tu langwijez uthur than English—thair iz nuthing for it but to goe on insisting on the obvius, tu ceep repeeting that langwij iz a mater ov spoecen soundz, not ov riten simbolz, and that a langwij can not posibli be afected for the wurs if simbolz which egzist soelli tu recaul tu the eer the sound ov the spoecen wurd, the melodi and rithm, it mai be, ov the spoecen vurs and sentens, ar maid tu discharj thair fungshon with increest acyurasi and consistensi. Re-riet—if for conveniens I mai directli adres an imaginari objector—re-riet in the curen speling the vursez from *In Memoriam* which I hav plaist at the hed ov theez paragrafs: the efect ov the riten wurdz mai bi asoesiaishon be mor pleezing tu yuer ie, but yu hav not aulterd the langwij in the sliettest degree. Reed the pasij aloud and no wun wil be aibl tu tel from yuer pronunsiaishon hou the wurdz on the paj yu reed from hapen tu be spelt.

Shuurli aul this aut tu be perfectli obvius, if wun oenli thins for a moement. Confyuezhon ov thaut, wun wood sai, iz scairsli posibl in a mater so ecseedingly simpl; and perhaps it iz not egzactli confyuezd thincing, but raather meer luusnes ov ecpreshon which confronts us ofen in the plee ov thoez hu deprecalt chainjez in speling in thair solisityud for the 'pyueriti ov the langwij.' Posibli their iidea iz that the curen orthografi haz an ainshent histori, and on that acount iz wurthi ov pre-

zervaishon. If that be the real argyument; if it be contended that our prezent speling shood be respected becauz ov its venerabl aij and its historical asoesiaishonz, thair iz oenli wun aanser posibl, but an aanser entierli sufisient. It iz an egzortaishton tu studi this so venerabl histori. A veri litl egzaminaishon wil shoe that the curen speling iz not the speling ov Chaucer, or ov Shakespeare, or Milton, or Dryden, scairsli eeven that ov Dr. Johnson. It iz a thing, so tu speec, ov the dai befor yesterdai, with no hier sangshon than the yuesij ov the modern printerz ofis. It iz not saicred or venerabl. Thair iz not a shred ov tru sentiment or a breth ov romans tu sanctifie or endeer the leest ov its absurditiz.

The saicred caracter ov English orthografi iz not a mater on whiich it iz permisibl eeven tu sentimentaliez. It haz no egzistens; it iz a meer ficshon born ov ignorans. The pyuriti ov the English langwij iz anuthur and reali seerius cwestion; but thoez cunsurnd for the pyuriti ov English speech, as distinct from the permanens ov prezent English speling, hav everi reezon tu suport the Simplified Speling Sosieti, and nun whatever tu opoez it. The three priemari aimz ov the sosieti hav been sumd up in the fraiziz, saiving ov tiem, efisensi ov miend, and *cleerness ov speech*. With a rashonal speling sum ov the tiem which iz nou waisted in lurning tu spel English 'corectli,' that iz tu sai, abominabli, wood be devoted tu lurning tu speec English corectli; and when sound and simbol goe hand in hand and the lesen in speling iz at the saim tiem a lesen in pronunsiaishon, a mor cairful, yueniform and staibl pronunsiaishon ov English bi aul claasez ov pyuepilz wood be promoted and practicali ashuurd. It must, on the uthur

hand, be evident that a speling sistem, in which the leter iz litl or no indicaishon ov the sound, leevz uncheet aul thoez tendensiz which maic for uusurtenti, divursiti and rapid chainj in pronunsiaishon. In eni oais reezon and asertaind fact aliec demonstrait the fyutiliti ov the noeshon that the pyueriti ov a langwij can be prezurvd, or the langwij in eni wai benefited bi the retenshon ov an arbitrari and irashonal orthografi.

THE UNIVERSITY LECTURES ON PHONETICS.

By MR. DANIEL JONES, M.A.

Mr. Daniel Jones, M.A., Lecturer in Phonetics, University College, London, delivered, at the invitation of the Senate of the Madras University, two courses of lectures and conducted a series of classes in phonetics in the Presidency College, Madras, from the 9th to the 21st December. The lectures were attended by over three hundred persons, including professors, lecturers and schoolmasters from all parts of Southern India, students under training at the Teachers' College, Saidapet, and those reading for the Honours Degree in language at the Presidency and Christian Colleges. In the first course of lectures, Mr. Jones dealt with phonetics as applied to the teaching of English, giving a clear exposition of phonetic theory for the purpose of teaching the various elementary speech-sounds in English, and of phonetic transcription for enabling the student to acquire correct pronunciation by learning to use the right sounds in the right place. The practical working of phonetic methods was elegly demonstrated in the classes held immediately after these lectures. The second course of lectures was of a more advanced character

and dealt with the application of phonetics to philology. In his concluding lectures Mr. Jones gave an interesting account of some tendencies of change in modern English pronunciation and spoke of the uses and methods of phonetics with special reference to its application in teaching.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

In his introductory lecture, Mr. Jones said that as good pronunciation of English was of the highest importance to Indians, the question was how could one whose native language was not English learn to pronounce it well. Correct pronunciation could not be learnt by imitation alone. The careful imitation of good speakers should be combined with some knowledge of phonetics, which was the study of the formation of speech-sounds. The best method would be to start with single sounds and by means of suitable phonetic exercises learn all the different sounds used in English speech. The student should then proceed to learn to use the sounds correctly by means of phonetic transcription. For good pronunciation could not be acquired by learning the individual sounds alone. Many words in English were pronounced in a particular way by themselves and somewhat differently when in combination with other words. The ordinary spelling gave no clue to the student as to the right distribution of sounds. Hence phonetic transcription was particularly useful in learning the value of the vowels in connected speech.

ENGLISH SPEECH-SOUNDS.

Mr. Jones then treated the organs of speech and explained the principles on which speech-sounds were classified, illustrating his lectures by diagrams, charts and phonetic transcrip-

tions on the blackboard. He next considered the various consonant and vowel sounds in great detail, and pointed out how they were pronounced. In the case of sounds somewhat difficult for foreigners, he suggested suitable phonetic exercises for acquiring the right pronunciation and for getting proper control of the organs of speech. He then dealt with these sounds in relation to other sounds in words and sentences and explained the peculiar characteristics of standard English pronunciation. Useful rules were given regarding the varying value of certain consonants such as *d* in the termination *ed*, *ng* in words like *finger* and *singer*, *r* before vowels and consonants, and *s* in nouns and verbs.

Speaking of the vowels, Mr. Jones said that there were fifteen vowel sounds in English, and it was important to learn to pronounce them correctly. Some of them were rather difficult for foreigners, but they could be easily mastered with a little practice. Indians generally did not pronounce *a* and *u* correctly, owing to insufficient lip-rounding, and made the short lax sound of *i* much too tense in words like "lip" and "disc." Another difficult vowel sound was that in "bird," "worth," "girl." He suggested several tongue and lip exercises for getting perfect control of these organs of speech. Mr. Jones next dealt with the neutral vowel, the sound of *a* in "about," and pointed out that it was the commonest sound in English. Many small words like "have," "from," "but" when unimportant had the neutral vowel, as well as many unstressed syllables. The reading of books written in phonetic transcription was recommended as of great help to Indians in learning the correct use of this vowel.

QUANTITY, INTONATION AND STRESS.

After a thorough treatment of English speech-sounds in detail, the lecturer proceeded to the consideration of such subjects as quantity, intonation and stress. He pointed out that good pronunciation could not be acquired simply by learning the individual sounds. For even if the sounds were correct, pronunciation would be wrong if they were used in the wrong places, or if there was any mistake as to quantity, intonation or stress. Mr. Jones gave the rules of quantity in standard English speech, and remarked that Indians generally had a tendency to make the long vowels and consonants much too short. In this particular case, it was much better to err on the side of length than make the sounds too short. Intonation was another important element in pronunciation. It had nothing to do with stress, with which it was sometimes confused, but was the variation in the pitch of the voice, and was of considerable importance in indicating shades of meaning. In some languages like Chinese, it was of such great importance that a word had different meanings according to change of tone. Even in English, one could actually give meaning to meaningless sounds or alter the meaning of a word or sentence by intonation. Mr. Jones illustrated this by numerous examples, and gave rules as to when rising, falling and level intonations should be used. The subject of stress was next taken up and dealt with exhaustively. After explaining how stress was used in English and giving several rules about word-stress, the lecturer pointed out how it was modified by the principle of rhythm. Dealing with sentence-stress, he showed by examples that stress was of great importance,

in English as variations of stress actually modified the meaning of the words.

THE PRACTICAL CLASSES.

The classes which Mr. Jones conducted after the lectures were an important feature of the course, and considerably enhanced the practical value of his lectures to the teachers present. The students in the class had a phonetic drill every day, when they were taught to pronounce the sounds of the language correctly. They had afterwards to write down in phonetic transcription passages of English prose read out to them by Mr. Jones in ordinary conversational style. These exercises proved to be so interesting and helpful that many of the on-lookers took part in them for their own benefit. Mr. Jones not only corrected the errors in pronunciation committed by the students in the class, but also explained to those present the nature and cause of those errors, and the manner in which they should be corrected. The classes were thus extremely useful to the teachers, as they were made acquainted with the methods by which they should deal successfully with faults in pronunciation, and apply phonetics generally to the teaching of English.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION.

In his lecture on the development of English pronunciation which concluded the general course of lectures on phonetics, Mr. Jones gave a very interesting account of some of the great changes of English sounds in the past. It was necessary for the student of literature to familiarise himself with early English pronunciation in order to appreciate the old poets aright. The poetry of Chaucer and of Shakespeare would fail to impress us with their full beauty

and melody if we had no knowledge of the pronunciation of their times.

The lecturer next described the methods by which early English pronunciation was reconstructed. He pointed out that there were four kinds of evidence to be studied. Spelling was of great value in determining pronunciation, especially in Chaucer's time, when it was largely phonetic. Most of the letters used at that period had their traditional Latin values, and we could find out what these values were by a comparative study of the sounds in the modern Romance languages. By Shakespeare's time, however, spelling became practically fixed, and it ceased to throw much light on the changes of pronunciation from the sixteenth century onwards. Rhymes were also of some help in determining early pronunciation. They had to be used with some caution, because they were very often imperfect. But the rhymes of Chaucer and Shakespeare were useful to a certain extent in helping us to find out their pronunciation.

Another source of information was the series of works by the grammarians and phoneticians of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries on the English pronunciation of their own time. These accounts by contemporaries of the pronunciation of former generations supplemented and confirmed the evidence derived from other sources. The last kind of evidence was that derived from the principle of continuity. The principle was that change in pronunciation was, as a rule, gradual and took place according to phonetic laws determined by the structure of the organs of speech. One sound could not pass suddenly into another without intermediate stages, which could be established with a knowledge of phonetics. The principle of continuity was of the greatest importance in the reconstruction

tion of early pronunciation. But no one kind of evidence was absolutely sufficient in itself. It was by putting all the available sources of information together that the main features of Chaucerian and Shakespearian pronunciation were established.

PHONETICS AND PHILOLOGY.

The special course of lectures on the application of phonetics to philology was intended for advanced students of language. Mr. Jones pointed out that if a knowledge of early English pronunciation was useful to the student of literature, it was of even greater importance in the study of philology.

Philology was the history of the spoken words. For the proper study or just conception of such a history, some understanding of the principles of sound-change was absolutely necessary. Mr. Jones illustrated this by showing the actual methods of investigating the past history of sounds. Taking up various sounds in English, he established their early pronunciation by reference to the different kinds of evidence he had mentioned, and gave those present a clear idea of how they should go about their work and apply phonetics to the study of linguistic change generally. Mr. Jones concluded the lectures with some valuable hints to students of Indian languages as to the proper methods of study. The first essential was that they should be thoroughly familiar with the principles of practical phonetics. If they were working on the reconstruction of the early pronunciation of any language, they should take some old text and find out what sound each letter represented. A rigorous distinction should be made between sounds and letters. When they made a deduction as to any sound, they should ask themselves whether it satisfied the

principle of continuity. If not, could it be explained by any external influence, such as analogy or dialectal influence. In regard to the form which their work should take, if they intended publishing their researches, Mr. Jones said that full explanations should be given of how they arrived at the pronunciation of each letter. The original pronunciation should also be given in phonetic transcription.

CHANGES IN MODERN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION.

The pronunciation of all languages was in a state of constant flux. It changed from generation to generation. The English language particularly had a tendency to change very rapidly. In his lecture on some of the tendencies of development in modern English pronunciation, the lecturer's aim was to show that a knowledge of phonetics was not only of value in the reconstruction of past pronunciation, but enabled us to a certain extent to forecast the probable directions of change in the future.

The tendencies of change in a language, said the speaker, were generally in the direction of that form of speech known as vulgar. Pronunciation developed in a natural manner among the uneducated classes. The speech of the educated classes, on the other hand, was much more conservative and generally tended to retard the natural course of change. But sooner or later, it followed the lead of the uneducated at a respectable distance. There was, as a matter of fact, at present, a general tendency in the speech of the educated in the south of England to approximate to the London dialect. Mr. Jones gave several instances of Cockney pronunciation and showed that they were the further natural development of certain sound-changes which

had been going on in the language in the past. Speaking of certain consonantal changes, the lecturer drew particular attention to the tendency to modify the sound of *l* when final or followed by a consonant. In Cockney the weakening of *l* into a back vowel was very common. *Railway* was pronounced *raiway*, *milk* like *miok*. This change which was now actually taking place in English, it was interesting to notice, had occurred long ago in Old French, in which an *l* coming before a consonant regularly became *u*.

One other important feature of modern English speech was the tendency towards spelling pronunciation. Many people, either owing to false notions of correctness, or because they mistook the letters for the real word, were inclined to pronounce words as they were spelt. Thus the pronunciations of *clerk* and *often* according to the spelling, were frequently heard at the present day. This tendency was certainly undesirable, but it did exist and seemed to be on the increase. It seemed probable on the whole, that the English speech of the future would be characterised to a large extent by Cockney vowels and spelling pronunciations. The tendencies towards change could, however, be checked by the use of phonetics in schools. Phonetics was now being taught largely in England and Scotland, and its wider adoption would go a great way towards arresting changes in pronunciation.

PHONETICS AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN INDIA.

In regard to methods of teaching English in India, Mr. Jones said that the amount of phonetics which could be introduced in the ordinary course of teaching a language varied. Teachers were so hampered by

examinations and Inspectors that they had not sufficient time to give to phonetic training. The result was that the pronunciation of the student was often hopelessly bad. The best method of teaching English was that employed in the teaching of foreign languages generally. The student should first be given suitable phonetic exercises for getting control of the organs of speech. He should then be introduced to the spoken language of ordinary conversation, and be made familiar with all the sounds of the language. To ensure a correct use of the sounds in English a phonetic transcription should be used to the exclusion of the ordinary spelling during the initial stages. The teacher should next impart a command of the commonest phrases and idioms of the language by means of easy dialogues and descriptions. Grammar should be taught at this period only by the direct or inductive method. The teacher should try to connect the words of the foreign language with the ideas they express or with other words of the same language, and not with those of the mother-tongue. Translation and composition should be kept till the end. The value of this method was that it enabled the student to acquire a correct pronunciation of the language very rapidly.

OTHER USES OF PHONETICS.

The application of phonetics, however, was not confined to foreign languages alone. It was of value in the teaching of the mother-tongue itself. In English, certain forms of pronunciation were regarded as correct and other forms as bad or vulgar. The desire to inculcate correct speech had led to the employment of phonetics in schools as a means of teaching English. This had been eminently

successful and had resulted in the disappearance of 'vulgarisms' and dialectal peculiarities in the speech of the children. Recently a conference of Scottish phoneticians was held to settle upon the pronunciation to be taught in schools. That pronunciation was now taught in Scotland by means of phonetics.

Phonetic transcription again had been used with marked success in teaching children and illiterate people to read. By this method they learnt to read in a comparatively short period, while it took them two or more years to learn the traditional spelling. Some people thought that the transition from phonetic transcription to ordinary spelling would be difficult. Experience had shown, however, that children who had learnt by the phonetic method wrote the current spelling much more accurately than those who did not have such a training. Mr. Jones quoted in this connection the words of an experienced teacher in London, who had said that if the transition from phonetic transcription to ordinary spelling were carefully worked out, children so trained made better spellers in the end than others.

PHONETICS AND INDIAN LANGUAGES.

After referring to many other uses of phonetics, Mr. Jones spoke of the application of phonetics to the study of Indian languages. He pointed out that hitherto the study in India had been entirely of the literary language. He impressed on the audience the desirability of making a systematic study of Indian languages and dialects as they were ordinarily spoken. Englishmen wishing to learn an Indian language could get books dealing only with the literary dialect, which differed from the spoken form. Every language teacher knew how unsatisfactory it was

to learn pronunciation from the literary language. He urged therefore the attempt to apply the science of phonetics to Indian tongues. Work of that kind would be much appreciated by all foreigners who desired to learn Indian languages.

PROGRESS OF PHONETICS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The lecturer, in conclusion, referred to the rapid advance of phonetic methods in England. Phonetics did not receive proper scientific treatment till the latter part of the nineteenth century, when the researches of Ellis, Bell and Sweet put the subject on a satisfactory basis. Their work was of the greatest importance, for as a result of it, phonetics had come to be a subject of great practical utility. In England, phonetics was now largely used in schools. The University of Belfast had recently made it compulsory for all students taking French. And in Scotland it was a compulsory subject in all training colleges. Mr. Jones hoped that the facts he had put before his hearers, would induce many of them to take up the study of phonetics seriously, as they would find it of the greatest use in the study and teaching of both European and Indian languages.

Mr. Mark Hunter, M.A., proposed a vote of thanks to the lecturer, which was most heartily accorded. He said that he wished to express on behalf of all those who had attended Mr. Jones's courses of lectures, their appreciation of the wholly admirable manner in which he had treated the subject. It was of immense value to them to have heard and seen this important and fundamental branch of study treated by an acknowledged master of the subject. He hoped that Mr. Jones's visit and lectures would result in a great improvement in the

teaching of English in schools and colleges. They owed a debt of gratitude to the University of Madras for giving them the opportunity of hearing Mr. Jones.

S. E. RENGANADHAN.

SOME COMMON ERRORS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS IN ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS.

(EXPERIMENTAL GEOMETRY.)

THE object of the writer of this article is to point out some glaring and common errors into which pupils of secondary schools generally fall, in the hope that their attention might be drawn to them and their chances of falling into such errors might be minimised.

One of the chief mistakes committed by pupils in the elementary stage of drawing a mathematical figure, at the outset of their career, is the use of the *soft* pencil. They do not take care to see that the *lead* of the pencil that they use for drawing purposes should be tolerably hard. HB pencils are very generally used and on account of their softness, should be avoided. Their '*lines*' possess '*length*' and '*breadth*.' Moreover, the pencil used for purposes of drawing straight lines with, is not mended in the proper manner so as to have a chiselled edge. Thus, two straight lines, when drawn to intersect each other, not infrequently form a small parallelogram at the point of intersection. The conception of straight lines meeting at a point is not easily obtained. Then (2) straight lines drawn so as to pass through two points, do not actually pass through them in the figure. In such cases, pupils generally resort to some *method*. The whole straight line is made *thick*, especially the parts near the points in question. The

same defect is noticed in the work of the pupils in the higher classes, when they have to draw a tangent to a circle from an external point. The tangent correctly drawn, is rather a rare sight. When pupils find that some space is left between the direction of the tangent and the circle at the point of contact, they manage to get over the imperfection by *thickening* the whole straight line. Care must be taken in drawing straight lines through points. The foot-rule should be shifted and brought close to the points, until it is seen that the straight line drawn gently, as a first attempt, does actually pass through them. The parts near the points should be tested first and then the actual drawing of the straight line should be made.

(3) The drawing of straight lines at right angles may be taken next. As a rule, pupils draw *curves* at the points in the straight line where right angles are formed. The method of sliding down the set square is rarely adopted and the figure is consequently bad and incorrect. This defect at the angle is got over by the pupil by his habitual '*thickening*' process. The result is that, in his attempt to cover the defect, it becomes more prominent than before.

(4) The bisection of the angle may be next noticed. The mistake is not so common here as in the other cases. The direction of the bisector is right, if it is drawn with the help of the compasses. If an angle be made with the protractor equal in magnitude to half the angle in question, the figure is invariably wrong.

(5) The drawing of the square presents considerable difficulty to the pupil. Two sides are generally equal in length and are right in direction; but the remaining two

sides are either not parallel to the opposite sides or not equal to them in length. Pupils should be given sufficient practice in the drawing of squares.

The correct drawing of the figure of Euclid I. 47 so that the straight lines joining the extremities of the hypotenuse with the opposite corners of the squares described on the sides and the perpendicular from the vertex to the hypotenuse are actually concurrent, is rather a difficult task with the majority of the pupils.

(6) The correct description of the incircle of a triangle and the three escribed circles is rather an 'achievement' with our School Final candidate. It often happens that the exact positions of the centres are not ascertained and the circles when described touch two sides only and not the third. The space that is clearly visible between the circle and the side of the triangle is filled up. The pupils cannot resist the temptation of making the figure look all right, with slight use of the pencil.

Even when two escribed circles of a triangle are correctly described, the third circle refuses to touch the sides. The pupils become tired at this stage of their work and feel naturally inclined to fall back upon their own resources.

(7) In the drawing of the circle, care is not taken to see that the pencil has a conical or pointed edge and as a result, it often happens that the so-called circle of the pupils is a plane circular ring with a small *breadth*. This sort of circle is found very convenient, especially in the case of the description of the inscribed and the escribed circles, and naturally finds favour with them.

(8) Another matter connected with the

pencil used by them, is its *size*. They generally use pencils smaller than their smallest fingers, and it is no wonder, therefore, that the figures are bad, execution is clumsy, and the chances of their hand-writing becoming spoiled are very great.

(9) In the majority of cases, pupils use only one pencil for drawing straight lines and circles with. The pencil is inserted into the compasses, when the description of a circle is required. The pencil, which was originally intended for drawing a circle, is then removed and used for the purpose of drawing a straight line.

Thus it has one uniform edge, neither conical, nor chisel-like, the top being more or less a fine specimen of a paraboloid of revolution. The use of separate pencils for straight lines and circles should be insisted on. The pencil fixed in the compasses should in no case be removed, except for mending purposes. It is a matter of very general occurrence that *violet* pencils are largely used for drawing purposes. Sometimes the figure is drawn with pencil, with some degree of correctness, and it is then traced *in ink* and the whole work is spoiled, wavy lines being the result.

Figures should always be in *pencil* work and *not in ink*.

(10) The manner of drawing of the tangent to a circle from an external point deserves notice. Pupils generally effect this by placing the foot-rule or the edge of the set square close to the point and the circle and draw the straight line through the point. The method of describing the semi-circle is rarely used. This method should be insisted on.

(11) The figure relating to the drawing of the direct and transverse common tangents to two circles appears to be rather complicated

and is done generally with some difficulty by the pupil. If one rectangle is all right in the figure, the other rectangle is all wrong, the angles being acute and obtuse instead of being right. Mention has just been made of the method of placing the foot-rule close to the circles for the purpose of drawing the common tangents, direct or transverse. Pupils need practice in drawing this figure also.

(12) In the division of a circle into six or more equal parts, some difficulty is experienced by the pupil. He generally marks the first distance or part, a little less or a little more than the exact measurement, and finds that when he comes to the end in stepping off equal distances, there is some space left over, or some space required.

He then turns back and makes an attempt at reconciliation. The points of division are thickened and matters set right.

I venture to hope that many teachers of high schools will agree with me in thinking that these are some of the more salient of the errors of the general body of pupils. The directions, though simple enough, will be useful in the avoiding of the many mistakes in geometrical figures, that now form a prominent feature of the work of the young secondary school mathematician.

M. D. GOPALACHARI.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION IN INDIAN SCHOOLS.*

The subject of English composition is no doubt very important but it is also rather stale. It certainly occupies a prominent place in the curriculum, but in view of its prominence, has

A paper read by Mr. P. S. Ramakrishna Iyer, B.A., L.T., Lecturer in History, Ernakulam College, at the Teachers' Conference, Ernakulam College, on the 16th November 1912.

been so often discussed in meetings and conferences, as to be made to look almost threadbare. The literature on the subject has grown, is growing, and is likely to grow. But as a result of all this 'rage and fury' in connection with the subject, are we in a position to say that there has been a marked or substantial improvement in the methods of teaching the subject or in the level of school-boy composition? Probably, there has been some improvement; but I believe not quite as much as one would wish. To some extent this may be due to the indifference of our teachers or the indifference of our boys. But I believe that, in a great measure, it is also due to the difficulty of the subject and the defective character of the methods still pursued. In spite of the hundreds of papers read and discussions held on the subject, it cannot be said that quite satisfactory methods have as yet been evolved with regard to its teaching. The subject baffles solution: it eludes the grasp. If it has ceased to be the Cinderella, to some extent, it continues to be the Sphinx of the school-room. This, however, is little matter for wonder seeing that even in connection with the teaching of the subject in England, a great authority makes the plaintive remark, "The English boy cannot write English and the English boy is not taught to write English." If matters are so bad in England, where English is learned quickly and naturally as a mother-tongue, how much worse must they be in India where English is learned painfully and laboriously as an alien language!

To begin with, however, the question may occur to one: Is proficiency in composition or skill in writing a thing that can altogether be taught by precepts or learned by practice? Is it possible for one to become a polished writer or stylist merely by getting up rules of rhetoric or by continued practice in composition? My belief is, if at all, it is possible only to a small extent. It may be easy to teach our boys a string of rules and principles with regard to

composition but what can these rules avail them if they are destitute of ideas and sentiments and of a copious vocabulary? We may teach one the rules of dietetics but how can they help him in picking up muscle and bone unless he be supplied with nourishing food? We may supply a workman with the necessary tools but of what use can they be to him in the absence of raw materials to work on? In the same way mere rules of rhetoric and composition can by themselves avail our boys very little, unless, at the same time, they have been fed on nourishing literary food. Is it possible for one to attain proficiency in writing except by a diligent course of reading and by a careful study of fine literary models? Is what we call style, in its higher sense, with its delicate shades and subtle charms, with its undefinable qualities of wit and humour, of pathos and passion, of vivacity and vigour, a thing which can be learned or taught mechanically by tricks of rhetoric or by diligent practice? I do believe, not. To acquire this priceless thing, it is highly necessary for one to drink deep from the fountain of the Muses and take constant rambles in the sunny and spacious fields of literature. This is what Frederic Harrison, a great writer himself, says: "Style cannot be taught..... Nothing practical can be said about style. None of you by taking thought can add one cubit to his stature; no, nor one gem to his English prose unless nature has endowed him with that rare gift—a subtle ear for the melody of words, a fastidious instinct for the connotations of a phrase." In a recent address on 'Language and Literature' this was what Lord Morley said: "Grammar, philology, rules of rhetoric are indispensable apparatus. But all this technique is only a means of access to these treasures of our literature that, in the old famous words, are with us in the night and in the hurry of the prime, stir youth and refresh age, adorn success and, to failure furnish shelter and consolation." I shall call to my aid one more writer, an authority on matters of rhetoric, Professor

Minto. This is what he says: "We must bear in mind that the writer's power is a growth from within and that advice from without must always be preventive rather than impulsive. The writer acquires his vocabulary, his habits of arrangement, his turns of phrase and sentence by a slow and gradual process day after day as he reads, feels and thinks." From all that has been said above, it must be apparent to us that the practice of composition as an art occupies only a subordinate place as a means for acquiring proficiency in writing. If we really want our boys to attain this proficiency, we must take care to see that our school libraries are well stocked, that they are well managed and that they are well used by our boys. The latter must constantly be advised on the choice of books and on the methods of study. What a source of genuine pleasure must it be to us to learn that, at least, a few of our pupils have been able to acquire a taste for reading and a habit of study at school!

From what has been said above, I should not be understood to mean that composition may be safely neglected. I have only tried to give you an idea of the place that the teaching of composition occupies in a general scheme of English culture. In its own way, the teaching of English composition is important. Geniuses, born masters of style, may afford to despise it, because they are above it; but for ordinary mortals, who are slowly picking their way in the art of writing, the precept and the practice of composition will be found of great value in regulating their ideas and shaping their style. In Professor Minto's words "it helps the beginner in the management of his resources." This will be quite apparent if only we take care to understand what amount of effective training in language is involved in one's trying to write an original essay. Scattered ideas have to be collected: they have to be arranged in logical sequence: they have then to be presented in choice literary dress. Apt words have to be chosen. Words have to be woven into graceful sentences. Sentences have to be rolled

into paras.: and paras. have to be built up into an essay. All this means training, to some extent, in the art of expression.

I shall now proceed to make a few general—and I hope, practical—remarks on the principles and methods of teaching English composition. In connection with this I may call your attention to three stages:

1. the elementary;
2. the intermediate; and
3. the advanced.

By the elementary stage, I mean the stage as applied to the primary department of our schools. I need not say that it is in this stage that the foundation of all knowledge—English and vernacular, historical, geographical and scientific,—is laid and that therefore special attention must be paid to the methods of teaching pursued, the text-books taught, the appliances used, and I may also say, the teachers employed in the primary department. The teaching of English composition must, in my opinion, be given an important place in this department. What must be its scope? To teach our boys the names of familiar objects and to enable them to speak and write short sentences in English. By a well-arranged course of exercises they must be drilled in sentence-structure. With regard to the character of the teaching it may be noted that it must be purely oral in the earlier period and oral as well as written in the later. What is to be the method of teaching? Not the grammar method, not the translation method,—without a moment's hesitation we must give them the good-bye—but it is the conversational method that must be adopted. It is by means of free conversational exercises, that our boys have to be easily and naturally initiated into the English language. It is superfluous for me, at this time of day, to dwell on the merits or the advantages of the direct method of teaching English. Thanks to the disinterested labours of educationists like Mr. Yates of Madras and Mr.

Nelson Fraser of Bombay, the method is gradually coming into vogue in our schools.

I know this method is, to some extent, followed in Cochin schools. But I believe that it has to be followed to a much greater extent and in a better way. Since our little boys have to pick up their English by means of imitation, the primary teachers have to be particularly careful with regard to the words they use, the sentences they speak, the pronunciations they follow. They must also pay careful attention to the pronunciation of English words on the part of their boys. The child is father of the man in more ways than we may at first think of. Ugly mistakes in pronunciation and, for the matter of that, in grammar, idiom or usage picked up in childhood may have an unfortunate tendency to stick on, in spite of our resolute efforts to cast them off in later life.

Our conversation teachers of the primary department must take care to see that their lessons are made lively and interesting and do not degenerate into a mechanic drill. They must themselves have a good command of simple colloquial English which they must be able to wield in a graceful and natural way so as to interest their boys. Secondly, they must see that the topics chosen for conversation lessons are familiar and interesting. I know that our little urchins have a keen zest for learning English and if only conversation lessons are well-conducted they cannot but prove immensely delightful to them.

For one or two years the teaching may be simply oral and after our boys have acquired some facility in talking, recourse may be had to written exercises also. In the third and fourth standards, the boys may be asked to give not only orally but also in writing, short sentences on familiar objects or scenes or events. A short description may be read from books like Nelson Fraser's Readers or Yate's Readers or Arnold's Readers and the boys may be asked to reproduce

the substance in a few simple sentences of their own. Or again, conversations may be freely held between the teacher and the boys on pictures of familiar animals and scenes such as we find in Arnold's composition lessons.

In this connection, I have to suggest that every primary school or department must be supplied with a modest library containing a decent collection of story books and picture books adapted to the needs of little boys. I know that in these days there is an abundance of chatty literature in English from which such a collection may easily be made. Another suggestion I have to make is that having regard to the special qualifications that the teachers of English of even the primary department have to possess, the system of specialisation in teaching may, to some extent, be followed even there. I know this suggestion is likely to be flouted by many. I know the remark would naturally be made—"It is all specialisation with a vengeance." But mind you! I call for specialisation, not in connection with the boys, but in connection with the teachers. It has to be remembered that these are days when the system of teaching in each and every subject has been and is being revolutionised. New systems and methods are being advocated and fresh literature is being issued, with regard to every subject, year after year. Therefore I feel inclined to think that in order to secure continuity and efficiency of teaching in the department and enable our primary teachers to remain up-to-date, and well-informed in the subjects they have to teach, the system of specialisation in teaching may, to some extent, be tried with advantage even there. This system may, perhaps, militate against the pedagogic canons given in familiar method-books, but it need not be said that such canons may occasionally have to be thrown overboard in consequence of altered conditions.

I shall now proceed to make a few remarks in connection with the teaching of English composition in the intermediate stage which comprises

the lower secondary and high school departments.

In the high school department—it need not be said—the subjects chosen and the methods followed should be a little more advanced than in the lower secondary department. In the latter department the scope of English composition may, to a great extent, be limited to the paragraph. That is to say, the boys may be trained by a system of well-regulated exercises, in the composition of small paragraphs giving brief descriptions of familiar scenes or objects or events or containing the substance of easy stories read or told in the class. The subjects chosen should be concrete, easy and familiar. In the high school department, however, the boys may gradually be trained in the writing of essays—descriptive or narrative or abstract—on subjects that are more advanced in character.

An important point I wish to bring to your attention in connection with the teaching of English composition is that oral composition should invariably be made to precede written work in the class. Nothing could be a greater mistake than for a teacher to suppose that the composition lesson is altogether a silent lesson for himself as well as his pupils. No doubt, it may be the easiest of things for a teacher to set a subject for composition off-hand and ask the boys to engage themselves on it according to their unchecked proclivities. But what is the result? Left without rudder and compass to guide them, they naturally drift. Many of them give us specimens which are little short of hideous. If weedy verbiage, sickening bombast, bad grammar, faulty idiom, disconnected ideas, illogical arrangement, reckless punctuation—if all this can make an essay glorious, certainly the essays given by our boys must be considered thrice glorious! The correction of such essays, how sickening, how killing must it be! Hence I think, it may be said without fear of contradiction, that the happy-go-lucky system of teaching English composition is doubly cursed! It is

a curse to the pupils, it is a curse also to the teacher, having regard to the trouble and the travail involved in the matter of correction. Therefore I make the following suggestions: The subject must be judiciously chosen by the teacher at home. It must then be carefully prepared by him. He must come to the class armed with a neatly drawn-up outline. He must do some effective teaching on the subject in the class and with the help and co-operation of his boys work out, by means of judicious questioning and explanations, stories and illustrations, something like a b-b summary. The boys may then be asked to do the writing work. Whatever the nature of the subject may be—description, story-telling, letter-writing, paraphrase or essay writing—there is clear scope as well as need for such oral teaching in the class and the working-out of a neat outline. It need not be said that the advantages of this system are manifest and manifold. It trains the boys in oral composition which is of immense value. It awakens in the boys suggestive trains of thinking; it gives them a settled programme to proceed with; it brings to their attention the points to be dwelt upon, the order to be followed, the catch-words to be employed. And for the pains taken, the teacher finds that he is more than amply rewarded in the improved character of the essays, and in the greater ease and efficiency in the matter of correction.

Speaking about the primary department, you remember that I laid particular stress on the importance of oral composition. In the intermediate stage also, it must be paid adequate attention. There is no subject in the school curriculum but affords plenty of scope for it. Speaking about the advantages of oral composition, a writer thus remarked in a former issue of the *School World*, "the advantages of oral composition include the co-operation of the class, both positively by help given and negatively by suggested criticism: the presence of the teacher

as an arbiter of fact and judgment: the elimination of recorded error: the necessity for a choice of vocabulary and a training in conciseness of thought." For these reasons oral composition is one to be strongly recommended in all stages of composition teaching.

In addition to the actual exercises in composition, our boys must now and again be treated with lessons on subjects connected with composition. That is, they must constantly be given instruction on such matters as the use of punctuation marks, the use of capital letters, direct and indirect forms of speech and on the chief points to be remembered in connection with style. No teacher should ever feel tired of dining into their ears rules and precepts with regard to the choice and use of words, the structure of sentences and paragraphs, etc. The following string of rules taken from that excellent manual "the King's English" may very well serve as a specimen. It refers to the choice of words.

1. Prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched.
2. Prefer the concrete word to the abstract.
3. Prefer the single word to the circumlocution.
4. Prefer the short word to the long.
5. Prefer the Saxon word to the Romance.

In the same way, they must be furnished with rules—of course well illustrated—in connection with the sentence, and style in general. The faults of school-boy style must all be quite familiar to us. What are they? Word-mongering, bombast, obscurity, clumsy and involved structure, hyperbole. May I give you one or two specimens of this hyperbole! They are interesting enough. In the course of a description of a 'village on fire' a sixth form boy appears to have written like this: "A Himalayan weight of paper and a Pacific ocean of ink are too poor a material to adequately paint the sufferings of these villagers whose houses were now on fire."

Again speaking about the advantages of "Literary Societies," a student of the Intermediate class wrote that it was "The one question which has formed the theme of controversy and thought among sages and philosophers of all ages." It is easy to multiply instances of such gems. It need not be said that it must be the constant aim and endeavour of every teacher, by precept as well as by practice, to repress, to the best of his power, such vices of school-boy composition.

I shall now pass on to make a few remarks on English composition in general subjects. It need not be said that there is abundant scope in most of the general subjects, for composition exercises—oral as well as written. In the interests of English composition, therefore, it devolves upon the teachers of general subjects to give their boys as much training as is practicable, in English composition in their own subjects. But then the teachers of the lower secondary department may urge that in their department it is impossible to do English composition in general subjects seeing that they have all to be taught in the vernacular. It is not at all my intention on this occasion to criticise the policy of the department but treating the question purely as an academic one I may be permitted to observe that I am very little in favour of this so-called 'Oriental' system. Some of you may not be able to see eye to eye with me on this question but before you make up your minds, please listen for a moment to my considerations in favour of what may be called the 'Occidental' system. In the first place, it is highly doubtful if such subjects as Algebra, Geometry, Arithmetic, Geography, Botany would easily lend themselves to teaching in the vernacular. In the case of subjects like these there may be ideas which it would often be found extremely difficult if not altogether impossible to express in the vernacular. Again for lack of suitable words and phrases in the vernacular new words and phrases may have to be coined—as they often have been.

But these hideous Anglo-vernacular hybrids, instead of rendering the teaching intelligible or effective, are only likely to render it obscure, if not a bit comical, also. Secondly, are there suitable text-books in the vernacular with regard to the general subjects? Very few. But in English, we have got scores of excellent and cheap publications in every subject. Thirdly, does not this system involve some discouragement to the study of English seeing that the general subjects could very well be made handmaids to English in the matter of composition, etc.? Having regard to the difficulty of learning English, a foreign tongue, and the usual slaughter of the innocents, in English, in the School Final and the University examinations as much encouragement as possible has to be given to the study of English in our schools. But it may be urged that the vernacular too must be encouraged. In that case, special vernacular schools may be started or the vernacular subject itself be specially strengthened in more ways than one. If we are to have real, solid, effective teaching in the general subjects in the L. S. department and not mere shilly-shally, I am inclined to think the present system may have to be given up.

Passing on to the high school department there is no such difficulty. Taking history, I know, it can admirably be made use of for purposes of English composition. Every teacher of history must pay careful attention to essay-writing on the part of his boys in his subject. Once a week or so a special period or a part of a period may be set apart for essay-writing. Two or three questions may be given beforehand and the boys may be required to look them up at home. In the composition period, the class may be divided into two or three sections and each section be asked to write an essay on one of the subjects, as prescribed at random. This system, if continued, is likely to afford the boys opportunities for revision, enable the teacher to gauge occasionally the progress of

the boys in his subject and also give them very good training in English composition. In the college department, the essay-writing system has been followed by me all these years and it has been found to work very well. Then take geography. I do believe there is scope for the writing of short essays, descriptive, explanatory, argumentative, in this subject. As for science, I do not know if it would lend itself to essay-writing. The teachers of science must decide the question. For aught I know of it, I am inclined to believe that science too can, to some extent, be brought under contribution. As for mathematics, I do not think there will be any difference of opinion. In spite of Tennyson's reference to the "Muses of the Cube and Square," it is difficult to believe that the hard bony skeleton of mathematics will admit of being clothed with the garb of rhetoric.

The correction of composition exercises is very important. It must be done neatly and carefully by the teacher and the symbols employed must be quite intelligible to the boys. If the correction could be done in the presence of each boy, so much the better. If that were impossible, at least, before the essays are returned after correction, each boy must be called up by the teacher and the corrections made, be carefully pointed out to him. But it may be urged that in a large class, say of 30 or 40 boys this may not be quite possible seeing that, while each boy is being called up, the others may have to be left unemployed, naturally to the detriment of discipline. To obviate this difficulty, I venture to suggest the following system for the conduct of a composition class. It may be called the group system. Some years ago, at the instance of the late Principal of the College, it was actually tried by me for some time in the high school department and that, with good results. Here is the system.

Taking a class, say, of 30 boys, it is divided into 3 equal sections or groups *a*, *b*, *c*. On the

first day, group *a* alone is kept in the class and groups *b* and *c* sent away to the library or some vacant class room having been given some definite reading or library work to do. Taking group *a* a subject for essay-writing is set for it by the teacher. The subject is discussed in the class for about 15 minutes and during the remaining part of the period the boys are set for writing work. During the next composition period groups *a* and *b* assemble in the class, group *a* to receive the essays corrected and returned and group *b* for the writing of the essay. While group *b* is engaged in the writing work seated in the rear desks, group *a* is collected in front of the teacher for discussion work. The teacher has about 35 or 40 minutes at his disposal and 10 boys. The essays, only ten in number, have probably been corrected by him already at home. In the presence of the little group in front of him, the mistakes committed by each pupil are carefully discussed. Thus not only individual attention is made possible but the whole group is made to benefit by the discussion and correction of each boy's mistakes. It is such free and informal discussions of important points in grammar, idiom or style, that are really needed I can assure you they can be carried on in such a way as not to cause any disturbance to group *b*. During the next composition period groups *b* and *c* assemble, *b* for discussion and *c* for writing. For each round the same subject or different subjects, according to the discretion of the teacher, may be set for different groups.

The advantages of this system must be apparent. In some ways it lightens the work of the teacher seeing he has only small groups to handle at a time and it renders individual attention with reference to each pupil possible on the part of the teacher and also affords opportunities for effective and profitable work by way of discussion and explanation of mistakes. All this is done without any sacrifice of discipline.

If the classes were small consisting, say, of

15 or 20 boys, then it is enough if they were divided into two groups.

Proceeding to the advanced stage, which comprises the college department I propose to make very few remarks seeing that we, teachers, are very little concerned with it. I have only to note that the subjects set for composition in this stage as well as the teaching adopted must be of an advanced character. If, in the intermediate stage, boys are to be strictly limited to turkey-flights in composition, here eagle-flights have occasionally to be attempted. Principles of rhetoric and style have to be taught. The philosophy of the sentence, of the para. and of the essay has to be inculcated. Fine literary models—passages from Addison and Swift, from Burke and Goldsmith, from Ruskin and Froude, from Macaulay and Green—must constantly be held up before the student. In a word, the teaching has been made a little literary and artistic.

THE MATRICULATION TEXT-BOOKS FOR 1913.

THOUGH it is somewhat late in the day to offer any comment on the suitability or otherwise of the Text-books prescribed for the ensuing Matriculation Examination, it is still desirable to pass a few observations on the subject in the hope that it will be of use to those responsible for the selection of the Text-books, in the future at least. With this end in view, I venture to draw the attention of the Text-book Committee to the following remarks on the extreme unsuitability of some of the Text-books prescribed for the Matric. Examination of 1913:—

I. "The Cloister and the Hearth" contains such detached selections from the original narrative, that it is very difficult to follow them without a reading of the bigger book. If an abridged classic were desired, it would

not be difficult to find one in a continued narration rather than in a collection of mere detached parts of a story. Mr. Dunn's abridged edition of 'The Cloister and the Hearth' (Frowde) would have better served the purpose than the one appointed and in use. Again, the details of monastic life, the customs of the Middle Ages, the pictures of Christian worship and the like, with which the book is interwoven, are quite puzzling to the VI Form student of India; while the plot, teeming as it does with incidents of love and loose behaviour (especially in the eye of an Indian) certainly does not furnish good edifying reading to Indian boys. Is it impossible to get on without a book of this sort for the Sixth Form? Are there no better books available in the wide range of English Literature suited to meet Indian tastes and needs?

II. Then, the *Selections from Irving* is another hopeless case. The description of Christmas festivities in England, the enumeration of Christmas dainties, such as ham, bacon and beef—things, the bare mention of which is loathsome to the Indian—and the strange customs of a foreign country, however interesting to English readers, cannot but be bewildering to Indian youth. And as to the style of the pieces, though the Sketch-book is admittedly among the masterpieces of English Prose Literature, yet in the light of experience it can be safely asserted that no sketch of Irving's is within the easy comprehension of an average Indian student of the VI Form. And it is all the more objectionable as a text-book for *non-detailed* study, as such books are expected to be studied by the students themselves, without the teacher's aid.

III. "The Retreat of the Ten Thousand," though an account of one of the most inter-

esting incidents of the world's history, is a very plain, simple narrative that any Indian VI Form student can understand by himself. When it is placed by the side of Irving's sketches and legends, one cannot but wonder how it could have won the distinction of being prescribed for detailed study, in preference to the latter. Another objection in its regard is its being a mere translation from a German production and not an original English work. Its style, though simple and comprehensible, is found, on a closer study, to contain a good many foreign structures. Besides, its price of Re. 1-8-0 is far above its real worth, which cannot exceed a Rupee; and this would be a fair price indeed, considering that some ten thousand boys and more are under compulsion to buy it.

IV. Among the Poetry pieces prescribed, the selections from Byron's "Childe Harold," are far too hard and perplexing for our Matric. students, the visionary ideas contained in them as well as the style in which they are expressed being beyond the reach of their understanding.

In prescribing text-books, it would be well to take note of the fact that the early associations, experiences and tastes of Indian boys are very different from those of the English: hence it is that books popular with English youth are hardly cared for or understood by the Indian. As a consequence, books like the ones mentioned above, or those dealing with Greek mythology—such as the Wonder Book or even Kingsley's Heroes—however excellent in an Englishman's estimation as fit companions for English boyhood, are disgusting in the extreme to the Indian boy and produce little or no fruit.

And it is very essential that the subject-matter of the book selected should be such

as to *interest* Indian students, besides being expressed in easy, good diction, as the aim of the University, at least in the Matric. standard, is merely to enable them to acquire the power to express their ideas in good idiomatic English. How can the student use with profit a book whose subject-matter does not interest him or whose style is above his understanding?

The question, then, naturally arises: What English books are likely to suit this country? This question I think, may best be answered by holding up a typical model such as is furnished by one of the text-books prescribed for 1914—"The Children of the New Forest." The story is continuous, the style pure English and of a style just up to our Matric. standard; and the plot contains nothing that can bewilder an Indian student. And, in Poetry, I would suggest, among others, selections from some of Sir W. Scott's famous poems, as "The Lady of the Lake," "Marmion," "The Lord of the Isles," etc.

To be brief, whatever the selections may be, if but careful attention were paid to the points noted above, all would be well. They may be summed up as follows:—Purity of style, and fitness of subject-matter; suitability to the standard and to the kind of text-books—detailed or non-detailed, and freedom from foreign subjects of an extreme type, such as abound in the text-books appointed for the present year.

AN ENGLISH TEACHER.

GEOGRAPHICAL INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS.*

We propose here to briefly review the principles and methods of geographical instruction as indicated to us by eminent teachers of the subject in our own times. But before we can do anything of the kind just noted, it must be clear to us as practical teachers to know definitely where we stand as regards the aim or value of our subject and its relation to the other sciences. Such an understanding of its aim and the character of its subject-matter must surely save us from many pitfalls and stray wanderings and enable us to grasp the significance of our work, especially in the direction of training the young minds committed to our charge and adding to their little stock of knowledge. It is also necessary to remember at the outset that the aim of this paper is not to present in any detail either the methods of instruction to be followed, or the character of the subject-matter with which it will be necessary to concern ourselves in the various stages of the child's development, but rather to indicate briefly and clearly the general conclusions which have been arrived at by eminent teachers of the subject after laborious investigation as regards its aim, its scope and its principles of teaching.

With these preliminary remarks, we may well commence our examination of the value of geographical study taking as our basis the brief and suggestive statement of the modern conception of the subject made by the editor of Mr. Redway's "New Basis of Geography," that "Geography relates the sciences of nature and the sciences of man. As a bridge over which to pass backward and forward from the study of man's habitat to his

activities and limitations and back again, Geography is a unique and indispensable element of elementary education. It combines, relates, compares and interprets a great mass of facts which bear upon the supremely interesting subject of man and his home. It arouses, informs and stimulates the mind in a hundred ways and justifies itself at every turn. Man and nature, man in nature, not man alone or nature alone are the true subjects of interest and study in Geography." Dr. H. R. Mill defines "Geography as the exact and organised knowledge of the distribution of phenomena on the surface of the earth, culminating in the explanation of the inter-action of man with his terrestrial environment."

The field to be covered is so vast and composite in character, so far-reaching and touching human experience at an infinitely large number of points that some writers have come to regard it as a composite science. A comprehensive treatment of the subject, must, in the words of Mr. Sutherland, take into account the forces which have made and sculptured the earth's surface, the present condition of the earth's surface as affected by atmosphere and water that it forms a habitat for life, the relationships or responses that obtain between the organic and inorganic worlds, the manifold needs of mankind and the uses made of environment—organic, inorganic and social—to satisfy these needs. As another writer remarks, Geography in its widest sense is a compendium of the sciences. But it does not claim to include the sciences whose results form its raw materials, any more than a house can be said to include the quarries, the forests, and the mines which have yielded its stone, timber and metal work.

The practical aims of geographical study and its relation to other branches of knowledge may be here briefly summarised. *Firstly* it develops mental powers such as observation and reflection. *Secondly* it is the

foundation or starting point of the "human studies" as literature, history, economics and sociology. It is, according to Mr. James Bryce, the gateway to the physical sciences, it is the key to history and it is the basis of commerce. *Thirdly* besides the pleasure which is derived from its knowledge, it enables the individual to combat successfully with his social and physical environment.

Want of space and time forbids us from entering into a discussion of these aims and we shall merely content ourselves with quoting a few general observations made upon them by

Remarks of Mr. Sutherland quoted.

Mr. Sutherland. "These aims fall into two categories, *viz.*, those which have for their object the disciplining of the mind, and second those whose purpose it is to acquaint the pupil with his environment and teach him its use. The aims which can be consistently included in the second category are rational and tenable; but those in the first, considered in the light of modern psychology, are irrational and untenable. If training in one field of learning could carry over and explain problems in new fields of an entirely different character, then, perhaps, we might justify mental training as an aim of any department of education, as, for example, Geography. This not being the case, we can only indorse those aims which are directly and vitally concerned in preparing the child for active life. Mental training must be incidental."

Coming more directly to the subject, we need hardly say that it requires to be considered under the three distinct heads of school education—elementary, lower secondary and high school. Such a consideration must necessarily involve a discussion of its two elements, *viz.*, the materials of instruction and the manner of imparting them without in any way hindering the child's natural and spontaneous evolution, under each heading.

Geographical study actually begins when the child enters school. What is generally spoken of as nature-study includes within its province some of the elementary ideas about physical and home Geography. Thus it is necessary for the child to comprehend objects of natural scenery as plants, water-courses and elevated lands. Gradually he begins to realize and visualize the height and majesty of a pine or a cedar, the mightiness of a Mississippi and the sublimity and grandeur of the Himalayas. The child thus gets into sympathy with his environment and gets a first-hand knowledge of the things he observes. Thus his mind is enlarged and enriched with a store of ideas, which, though elementary in character, are the very foundations of all future geographical study. Again by means of "home" Geography the child is enabled to get a dim idea of locational Geography which gradually prepares him for the comprehension of the world as a whole. The child therefore by observation gets to a new world of ideas and facts, which, though unclassified as yet, are still of immense value in preparing him for a more comprehensive understanding of the subject. Hence, as Mr. Sutherland so aptly remarks, "it is the immediate function of the school and the teacher to bring child and nature into advantageous relationships, so that sense-impressions may be vivid and lasting." Mr. Mackinder in his suggestive paper entitled "Development of Geographical Teaching out of Nature Study" goes even further and says that it ought to be our aim to impart into the mind of our young pupil the habit of "thinking geographically" and "visualizing" geographical phenomena. In fact we must arouse his interest by all possible means. For this purpose, the romantic element in childhood may be utilised by the teacher narrating tales of adventures—historical or mythical, preferably mythical in the earlier stages and historical in the later ones,—and thus enabling the child to see in their vague outlines the mighty complexity of

Geography in Elementary Schools.

(a) Materials of study and principles regarding their selection.

* A paper read before the Historical Section of the Teachers' Association, Saidapet, by E. S. Venkataramanaiyer, B.A.

all human and natural phenomena. Further it ought to be remembered by the teacher of Geography more than by any other that the first impressions he creates in the mind of his pupil should be such as to goad him on to a further study of the subject.

Now the question arises as to the methods which we should follow in order to realize these aims.

(b) **Method:** Having selected the materials for teaching and graded them according to the requirements of the several classes of our elementary school, we must so present them to our pupils as to enable them to realize even vaguely by suggestion the concrete and significant principles which lie at the basis of geographical phenomena. It must be understood that at this stage we do not mean to suggest that the rational element should be in any manner unduly emphasized. Rather the pupils should be made to gather up a number of *typical* facts illustrating some at least of the essential principles of our subject. This gathering up of data for the discovery of principles, or later their application to new cases involves the comprehension of relationships which are their essential elements. So the central problem for the teacher is "how best to stimulate the constructive thinking of the pupils in the class; how to induce in them the most educative self-activity." The method which offers the best solution for this and which appears most suitable to the pupils of the earlier grades, seems to us to be the inductive method. Again the presentation of the subject-matter in the form of pertinent problems for the pupils' solution and suitable questions relating old and new data, suggesting likenesses and differences, and welding together all statements germane to the problems set forth would have a very great effect in stimulating the pupils' self-activity and directing it along right channels. Lastly in giving the pupils ideas regarding home and world Geography, the teacher will do well to adopt the regional method of treatment, for besides other advantages, this method is more scientific and conduces to a better organization of material especially in the higher grades of the elementary school.

Having thus indicated in outline the general methods of teaching the subject in the elementary school, we will now proceed to notice

(2) **Special.**

some of the special aids to such teaching commonly adopted to make the subject more clear and interesting. The first of these which

(a) **Maps:**

Definition.

suggests itself naturally to us is the *map*. For purposes of convenience, we shall bring under this head not only maps strictly so-called, but also plans and diagrams, making and use of models, and the globe. In the words of an eminent writer on this subject "maps and the globe record the raw material of geographical knowledge properly ordered. Geography is essentially a study of distributions and the correlation of distributions on the earth's surface. Maps and the globe express certain spatial distributions. Maps are thus both instruments of the method and also representations of the objects of study—at once aids to thinking and conventional symbols of thought. Their function is to present phenomena as distributed in space." Another writer regards them "as symbolical representations of geographical truth." Yet another, taking into account their time-saving character, terms them "shorthand records." These various definitions indicate the main advantages to the teacher of a careful use of maps in the class-room, and it is therefore unnecessary for me to dwell further upon this aspect of the subject. The chief characteristics of a good map are:—

- (1) It ought to be a truthful representation of the locality or area it seeks to present. It should be revised and up-to-date. (2) It ought to be distinct and clear for such distinctness and clearness enable one to interpret it easily. (3) The symbols employed should be such as are in common use and should present very little difficulty to the reader. A judicious use of such maps will tend to a proper understanding of facts—historical or other, will train the mind to appreciate the phenomena of nature

Characteristics of a good map.

Use and abuse of maps.

and will suggest problems whose solution demands thought. But we must also be aware of such a thing as abuse of maps and the evil consequences flowing therefrom. The introduction of maps—big or small—at too early a stage of the child's education, when he has only the most vague ideas regarding direction and distance, will only result in confusion. Even in the higher grades of the elementary school, as Mr. Jolly points out, it is imperative that the teacher should indicate the true nature of lines on maps, the real character of a map, the real directions on it and a comparison of these with the real directions in nature, and should avoid loose descriptions of localities, loose pointing out on the map, loose questioning and loose ideas of proportionate areas on maps. I shall close this discussion of maps and how to use them with a statement of the "ten commandments" of the same writer as regards the order of procedure to be observed in introducing children to the

True idea of a map. (1) Draw a plan of the class table. (2) Draw a plan of the school-room floor with walls, etc. (3) By means of water poured on the table or on the floor, or on a board laid on the floor, show graphically the phenomena arising from the relations between land and water; and draw a plan of these "phenomena on the plane." (4) Get the pupils to draw relief models of these phenomena and insert them on the plan. Thus the pupils can be introduced to the need of having special marks to show mountains, plains, etc. (5) Distinguish between a map and a picture. (6) Distinguish between a plan and a map. (7) Insert the true directions on the plan and map. (8) Show the need and way of drawing to scale. (9) Show the need and nature of lines of measurement. (10) Draw maps of the school and its immediate neighbourhood.

The introduction of the globe at too early a stage is attended with a good many difficulties and it seems therefore advisable to postpone it to a later stage of elementary education. The importance of plans, diagrams and models is sufficiently obvious and needs no special detailed

treatment. We will remark that all these offer enough material for practical work and by themselves afford ample scope for keeping the pupils active and interested.

I am afraid this paper has already gone to a wearisome length and I shall therefore content myself with simply stating that pictures and illustrations of life and scenery, school excursions and field-work may also enable the pupils to learn a good deal by observation and render the lessons more lively and realistic.

The following directions of Mr. Jolly regarding geographical teaching in elementary schools may be stated for our guidance:—(1) Teach it as a series of object-lessons. (2) Utilize the child's own knowledge and experience at every step. (3) Begin the realistic teaching of the subject very early. (4) See that all lessons are short and thoroughly conquered. (5) Move slowly, but surely. (6) Graduate the technical terms used. (7) Write on board all technical terms used. (8) Get the definitions from the pupils. (9) Use diagrams for illustration. (10) Discard all text-books.

Passing on to a consideration of geographical teaching in the middle schools, we are disposed to think that geography at this stage should be mainly descriptive. The causal or rational element should not be

lost sight of, but the main purpose ought to be the gathering up of data for the comprehension of the world as a whole. Some attempt may be made at classification and generalization, but it is not very essential. Economic and political Geography and elementary notions of mathematical Geography may now be introduced to the pupils.

The general methods indicated previously may be followed with slight variations. Correlation of Geography with other subjects may be attempted.

(b) **Method:**
(1) **General.**

right lines may be used by the pupils for home-study.

Maps and making of relief models should invariably be continued. Recording of observations, tales of geographical exploration and the various kinds of practical work referred to previously may now be continued with advantage. A freer use of pictures may be made and picture-reading may also be taken up. The globe should be used wherever necessary. Magic lantern exhibitions may prove very valuable and impressive.

The materials of study at this stage should be rationally organized. The causal element should be the key-note of our teaching. Geography in High Schools: (1) Materials of study. Political and economic Geography should now be treated at considerable length.

The more difficult ideas of mathematical and physical Geography may be taken up.

The deductive method may be followed and the regional treatment adopted as regards subject-matter. The pupils may be made familiar with the various processes of analysis, synthesis, association, comparison and reasoning in studying the subject. Correlation of Geography with other subjects should now be widely extended. Geographical novels should be studied by the pupils and the text-book should be a subordinate factor in teaching.

There seems to be no real necessity for as much practical work as was provided for in the lower classes. Pictures, illustrations and maps should be used as before. Graphs and statistics might be used to illustrate geographical facts.

We shall now conclude this paper by summarising the main points to which reference has been made. We first considered the modern conception of our subject and indicated its scope and aims. We then passed in review the main questions relating to geographical instruction in elementary schools such as the

principles to be observed in the selection of materials for study, the general methods to be adopted in teaching the subject and the special aids to such teaching to make it more lively and realistic. Incidentally we took up for somewhat detailed treatment questions regarding the most important of these special aids, viz., the map. After stating our ideal of geographical instruction in elementary schools, we glanced rather summarily at the main features of such instruction both in the lower and higher classes of secondary schools. It only remains for us to express the hope that in the future at least this problem of geographical instruction will receive at the hands of educationists that amount of care and attention which it undoubtedly demands.

ARUMUGAM, THE ARITHMETIC PRODIGY, ANALYSED.

By F. H. V. GULASEGARAM PILLAI, B.A.,
OF JAFFNA, CEYLON.

ARUMUGAM, an illiterate Tamil boy of South India, has, by his extraordinary powers of calculation, earned the name of an "Arithmetic Prodigy." Some sidelights, therefore on *what he does* and *how he does them* will interest the public, especially the readers of an educational review.

During the early part of October last, the boy visited Jaffna and I had the opportunity of testing him on five different occasions and on quite a variety of sums. Below I give an idea of his methods and powers of calculation so far as I was able to make them out.

To begin with, the prodigy is perfectly at home in the four simple rules of arithmetic involution and evolution. Any sum within that range, provided that neither the question nor the answer consists of over 14 digits, he works out in his marvellous brain in the wonderfully short time of 3 seconds at the most. To get an insight into the so-called 'mystery,' it will perhaps be just as well to

deal with the different operations, one by one, in their respective order.

The operations of addition and subtraction are performed line by line, as each line is being dictated, associating crores with crores, lacs with lacs, and so on. The method employed for subtraction is evidently that of complementary addition, the usual "shop-method." These operations, it must be remarked, are confined only to simple quantities; for in adding a number of lines each consisting, say, a number of rupees, annas and pies, the prodigy complains of the difficulty of remembering the figures of the various denominations in each line.

As for multiplying mentally a number of p digits by another of $14 - p$ digits (p being any positive integer not greater than 14), it is a feat certainly not within the reach of every ordinary mortal. Different persons have tendered different explanations of this admirable feat, none of which appeals to me as satisfactory. The explanation that I shall offer rests on certain hypotheses one can legitimately assume. It rests, *firstly*, on the supposition that the prodigy, whose faculties for calculation have been abnormally developed, remembers the product of any two numbers each less than a thousand: so that he gives the product of 897 and 968 as instantly as any boy of our third standard should give the product of 11 and 12. *Secondly*, it rests on the assumption that the boy makes use of a table of the following character:—

A hundred times	{ one hundred = ten thousands. " thousand = a lac. " lac = a crore.
A thousand times	{ one thousand = ten lacs. ten thousands = a crore one lac = ten crores.
10 thousand times	{ ten thousands = ten crores. one lac = a hundred crores. a lac $\times$ a lac = a thousand crores.

XVIII

750 = $\frac{3}{4}$ of a thousand.	500 = $\frac{1}{2}$ of a thousand.
75,000 = $\frac{3}{4}$,, lac.	50,000 = $\frac{1}{2}$,, lac.
75 lacs = $\frac{3}{4}$,, crore.	50 lacs = $\frac{1}{2}$,, crore.
250 = $\frac{1}{4}$ of a thousand.	
25,000 = $\frac{1}{4}$,, lac.	
25 lacs = $\frac{1}{4}$,, crore.	

Add to these a few ingenious devices and artifices and the explanation is complete. In support of the foregoing, it will not be out of place to give here a couple of sums together with the process the prodigy says he actually goes through to arrive at the results.

Example 1. To multiply 6700417 by 641.

PROCESS:

$$67 \text{ lacs} \times 641 = 429 \text{ crores } 47 \text{ lacs.}$$

$$417 \times 641 = 2 \text{ lacs and } 67,297.$$

Hence (adding)

$$6700417 \times 641 = 429 \text{ crores } 49 \text{ lacs and } 67,297.$$

Example 2. To multiply 78968 by 81925.

PROCESS:

$$819\frac{1}{2} \text{ hundreds} \times 79 \text{ thousands} \\ = 64720\frac{1}{2} \text{ lacs.}$$

$$= 647 \text{ crores } 20 \text{ lacs } 75,000.$$

$$819\frac{1}{2} \text{ hundreds} \times 32 = 26 \text{ lacs } 21,600.$$

Hence (subtracting)

$$81925 \times 78968 = 646 \text{ crores } 94 \text{ lacs } 53,400.$$

I may also add that the boy is thoroughly familiar with the usual artifices employed by ordinary arithmeticians when the multiplicand falls just short of 10^n . When he was asked how he would obtain the product of 999997 and 787692, he promptly answered that he would deduct 3 times 787692 from 787692 lacs.

When once the prodigy's method of multiplication is understood the operation of division presents no difficulty. For it is just as easy for the boy to divide 89765432 by 58976 mentally, as it is for an experienced arithmetician to divide 876543 by 89. Here too, the boy was found to be acquainted with the artifice employed in division sums when the divisor falls just short of 10^n .

The operations of multiplication and division are performed on compound quantities

in a most instructive manner, as may be seen from the following illustrations:—

Example 1. To multiply Rs. 25,648 10 as. 9 p. by 568.

PROCESS:

$$10 \text{ a. } 9 \text{ p.} \times 568 = 10\frac{3}{4} \text{ a.} \times 568 = 568 \text{ a.} \times 10\frac{3}{4} \\ = \text{Rs. } 35\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{3}{4} \\ = \text{Rs. } 381 \text{ 10 a.}$$

$$\text{Rs. } 648 \times 568 = \text{Rs. } 3 \text{ lacs } 68,064.$$

$$\text{Rs. } \frac{1}{4} \text{ lac} \times 568 = \text{Rs. } 142 \text{ lacs.}$$

$$\text{Hence the result} = \text{Rs. } 1 \text{ crore } 45 \text{ lacs } 68,445 \text{ 10 a.}$$

Example 2. To divide Rs. 89515 13 a. 4 p. by 219.

PROCESS:

$$\text{Rs. } 408 \times 219 = \text{Rs. } 89,352.$$

$$12 \text{ a.} \times 219 = \text{Rs. } 164 \text{ 4 a.}$$

$$\text{Hence Rs. } 408 \text{ 12 a.} \times 219$$

$$= \text{Rs. } 89,516 \text{ 4 a.}$$

$$= \text{Rs. } 89,515 \text{ 13 a. } 4 \text{ p.} + 6 \text{ a. } 8 \text{ p.}$$

$$\text{Hence Rs. } 408 \text{ 11 a. } 11 \text{ p.} \times 219$$

$$= \text{Rs. } 89,515 \text{ 13 a. } 4 \text{ p.} + 6 \text{ a. } 8 \text{ p.} - 219 \text{ p.}$$

$$= \text{Rs. } 89,515 \text{ 13 a. } 4 \text{ p.} - 139 \text{ p.}$$

$$\text{Hence the quotient} = \text{Rs. } 408 \text{ 11 a. } 11 \text{ p.}$$

$$\text{And the remainder} = 11 \text{ a. } 7 \text{ p.}$$

Example 3. How often is £213 14s. 8d. contained in £8765 11s. 6d?

PROCESS:

$$£8765\frac{1}{2} + 213\frac{1}{2} = 41 \text{ (roughly).}$$

$$£213 \text{ 14s. } 8\text{d.} \times 41 = £8763 \text{ 1s. } 4\text{d.}$$

$$= £8765 \text{ 11s. } 6\text{d.}$$

$$\text{less } £2 \text{ 10s. } 2\text{d.}$$

$$\text{Hence Ans. } 41 \text{ times and } £2 \text{ 10s. } 2\text{d. over.}$$

Next, we come to *Involution*. The giving of the n th power of any number is no less a marvel. In this connection, it is interesting to learn that all powers up to 50, 30, 25, 20, 15, 16, 16, 15, 15, 14, 13, and 13 of the numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 respectively the boy has at his fingers' ends, having made the necessary calculations and memorised the results.

Before explaining how numbers greater than 13 are raised to any power, it must be observed that for the prodigy to be able to

raise any number M to any power n , M should not consist of over 7, 5, 4, 3, 3, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2 and 2 digits according as $n = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12$ and 13 respectively. Powers higher than 13 are given only for numbers of 1 digit, which results, the boy has cut and dried in his prodigious brain.

Now to get at the methods employed, one can easily perceive from the illustrations given below that the lad uses the one or the other of the formulae $a^2 = (a + b)(a - b) + b^2$ and $(a + b)^2 = a(a + 2b) + b^2$ for squaring any number. Powers higher than 2 are generally worked out by repeated multiplication, using suitable artifices wherever possible. Here I might state that the prodigy shows no acquaintance with the expansion of $(a + b)^n$ for any value of n greater than 2.

Example 1. To square 13765.

PROCESS:

$$13780 \times 13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands} = 18 \text{ crores } 94 \text{ lacs } 75,000.$$

$$15 \times 15 = 225.$$

$$\text{Hence } 13765 \times 13765 = 18 \text{ crores } 94 \text{ lacs } 75,225.$$

Example 2. To cube 99999.

PROCESS:

$$\text{The square of } 99999 = 99998 \text{ lacs and } 1$$

$$[\text{since the square of } 99999 = 99998(99998 + 2) + 1].$$

$$\text{Again remembering that}$$

$$99999 \times 99998 = 99997 \text{ lacs and } 2.$$

$$[\text{since } 99999 \times 99998 = 1 \text{ lac} \times 1 \text{ lac} - 3 \text{ lacs} + 2],$$

$$\text{the cube of } 99999 = 99997 \text{ lacs of a lac} + 2 \text{ lacs} + 99999.$$

$$= 99,997 \text{ thousand crores } 2 \text{ lacs } 99,999.$$

While dealing with involution, I may add that the result of subtracting the square of 62876589628 from the square of 62876589638 was immediately given as equivalent to ten times the sum of the numbers themselves. From this it is evident that the well-known algebraical identity $a^2 - b^2 = (a + b)(a - b)$ is utilised by the boy with advantage. But on trial he was found to be ignorant of the corresponding formula for the difference of two cubes,

It is at the extraction of the n th root of any number (*Evolution*) that the whole marvel reaches its climax, especially when the root is given out before the number itself is completely uttered. Persons unacquainted with the prodigy's methods are perplexed at what may seem an unaccountable feat; but when once they get into the secret of it all, much of the charm is at once dispelled. To begin with, the maximum number of digits in the n th root of a number of not over 14 digits is one more than the integral quotient obtained when 13 is divided by n . Of these, the digit in the units' place is easily determined from the corresponding digit in the proposed number itself. For instance, if any number should end in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9, its cube root must end in 1, 8, 7, 4, 5, 6, 3, 2 and 9 respectively. The method of determining the other digits is best illustrated by examples. But I may mention that the 7th up to the 13th roots that contain at the highest 2 digits are determined digit by digit and that roots higher than the 13th, which are extracted only when the result is less than 10 are readily given out from memory.

Illustrations:—

(1) *To find the square root of 189475225.*

PROCESS:

$$13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands} \times 13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands} = 1890 \text{ lacs } 62,500.$$

$$\text{The remainder } 4 \text{ lacs } 12725 \text{ divided by } 2 \times 13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands gives the trial divisor } 15.$$

$$\text{Also } 412725 + (2 \times 13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands} + 15) = 15.$$

$$\text{Hence the square root is } 13\frac{1}{2} \text{ thousands} + 15 = 13765.$$

(2) *To find the cube root of 873722816.*

PROCESS:

$$\text{The nearest number of tens whose cube falls just short of } 873722 \text{ thousands is } 95.$$

$$\text{The last digit is obviously } 6.$$

$$\text{Hence the cube root is } 956.$$

(8) *To find the seventh root of 80798284478113.*

The 7th root consists of 2 digits.

The number of tens is 9.

The last digit is 7.

Hence the seventh root is 97.

(4) *To find the cube root of the 96th power of 2.*

The cube root of the 96th power of 2

= the 32nd power of 2

= 429 crores 49 lacs 67,296 (from memory).

Again as regards the prodigy being able to give the roots of certain numbers before the number itself is fully stated, the explanation rests on the A, B, C of arithmetic. For who is there that cannot give the square root of 16^* or the cube root of 17^{**} (if there should be any such root) even though the figures in place of the asterisks be not known? Likewise, no sooner does one utter, "Find the 31st root of 214 crores and....." than the lad comes out with the answer 2. In general the higher the root the quicker could it be given.

Now getting outside Arumugam's favourite regions, his knowledge of fractions is confined only to halves, quarters and eighths. The word decimal, or its Tamil equivalent (பதின்மம்) is quite Greek to him. *Re* problems, to say the least, he does not relish them, especially the intricate ones. Even a sum requiring him to find two numbers whose sum and difference were respectively given was found too intricate to solve. But simple and straightforward sums, especially on interest and exchange, he attacks with perfect ease. Performing, as he does, the operations of multiplication and division upon very large numbers, the prodigy is able to find the amount at compound interest on any sum of money for a reasonable number of years. In such sums I noticed the boy reduce the principal to the lowest denomination before proceeding with the necessary calculations.

The boy's failures over problems and other "catch-questions" cannot count against him as he lays no claim to bring anything beyond a mechanical calculator.

It is gratifying to learn that the marvellous prodigy has gone a step further and *discovered for himself* the usual formulæ for the summation of (i) n terms in A. P.; (ii) n terms in G. P.; (iii) the first n natural numbers, their squares and their cubes; (iv) the first n odd numbers and their squares. Questions were set under each of the above heads and the boy's answers and process agreed in every case with the corresponding algebraical result. A single illustration will suffice:—

To sum up $1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots$ to 60 terms.

PROCESS:

Multiply $(60 + 61)$ by $(60 + 59)$ and the result by 20, which corresponds with the algebraical formula $S = \frac{n}{3} (2n + 1) (2n - 1)$ for the sum of the squares of the first n odd numbers.

The prodigy had no general method to indicate for the summation of the cubes of the 1st n odd numbers, the squares or cubes of n terms in A. P. or of powers of the 1st n natural numbers higher than the third.

Finally I shall refer to the prodigy's knack of solving certain questions by purely empirical methods. The prime factors of

$$2^{23} - 1 (= 8388607 = 47 \times 178481) \text{ and}$$

$$2^{20} - 1 (= 536870911 = 233 \times 1103 \times 2089)$$

were given in about 3 and 5 minutes respectively. In this connection it is of historical interest to note that had the prodigy been able to carry his calculations to numbers of 22 digits he would have earned a world-wide celebrity by being the first to verify Mersenne's statement that $2^{21} - 1$ is composite.

Of the other questions solved empirically the following two are interesting:—

(i) What number less than 420 gives

remainders 1, 3, 4, 4 when divided by 3, 4, 5 and 7 respectively?

(ii) Find two numbers the sum of whose squares is equal to the cube of 61.

To sum up, a marvellous multiplication table, a wonderful memory and ingenious methods and devices combined with lightning speed constitute the prodigy. When one recollects that there are people who have a special aptitude to remember a reasonable number of figures, it is not an impossible task for an abnormally developed brain of Arumugam's type to retain the figures it does. How the brain became so much developed or where it got all the figures from originally are speculations to be reserved exclusively for psychologists. As for the methods the boy employs, I feel convinced that he discovered them *inductively*. For, in one of my interviews, when I questioned him how he obtained the formula for the sum of the first n natural numbers he said that he first found the sums of the first three, four, five and six natural numbers and then by comparing each sum with the corresponding number of terms he formulated a general method depending only on the number of terms taken.

On a subject of this nature, it is difficult to form anything like a complete judgment. Yet I trust that my attempt may be of some help in getting an insight into the prodigy's marvels. As for the boy's parentage and previous history I shall refer the reader to a paper read by the Hon. Mr. P. Arunachalam, M.A., C.C.S., Member of the Executive and Legislative Councils of Ceylon, at a meeting of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society held in September last. The boy is at present resident in Colombo and is under the patronage of the high officials there.

In conclusion I would add that the prodigy

should be made use of to enrich the mathematical literature. I am inclined to suggest among other plans, a compilation of a *ready calculator* containing (i) the products of all numbers of p digits by all numbers of $14 - p$ digits for all positive integral values of p less than 14; (ii) the squares, cubes, etc., of numbers up to a reasonable limit; (iii) the square root, cube root, etc., of numbers of not over 14 digits, etc. I feel assured that "a ready calculator" of the kind I suggest, which should prove as useful as the logarithmic tables of the present day, would not only fetch the lad a huge sum of money but would also find him a permanent place in the mathematical world.

HINTS ON THE FORMATION OF RURAL MUSEUMS AND LABORATORIES.

ACCORDING to the modern curriculum of studies for elementary schools, it is felt absolutely necessary that every school should be provided with a museum and a garden attached to it. The teacher and the pupil should take an active part and work hand in hand on the formation of a rural museum and laboratory. The various sources, from which collections of such objects can be made, are:—

1. By local excursions, the teacher and the taught should each, in turn, collect things found in the vicinity.

2. The teacher should get some of the things done locally with the aid of artisans of the place.

3. Some things may be collected through the influential men of the locality.

4. Some things may be got through men, who go on shooting excursions.

5. The teacher should have pleasure trips to the neighbouring district, during the vacation, holidays and observe some of the

museums there and collect informations from there.

6. Some of the things should be purchased from some of the firms in Madras and Bombay.

The following are some of the most important specimens and collections for the formation of a museum:—

1. Balance with weights, card-board coins, old coins, coins used in different countries and Native States. Measures of capacity, microscope, magnetic stone, mariner's compass. Foot-rule, measuring tape, thermometer.

2. *Geometrical models* such as cones, cubes, prisms, pyramid, card-board circles. Stamps used in different countries.

3. Postal rules, Postal forms, Railway maps, copies of revenue forms, manuscript specimens and old cadjan-writings.

4. *Specimens of metals*. Ores of some metals such as iron and copper: and pure metals such as gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, zinc, abrake, marble-stone, coral, iron oxide.

5. (a) *Food-stuffs* such as wheat, different kinds of paddy, ragi, millet, cholam, different kinds of beans, seeds, pulses.

(b) *Articles of clothing*. Cotton (Indian and American), wool, silk, flax and hemp.

(c) *Articles used in building*. Teakwood piece, blackwood and sandalwood, &c., and sundry articles such as oil-seeds.

(d) *Medicinal*. Cinchona and pepper.

(e) *Articles of dyeing* such as indigo, &c.

6. *Life-like stuffed specimens of animals and birds* to be had of Messrs. P. K. Swami and Co., Artistic Taxidermists, Madras.

Animals such as monkey, cat, &c.

Birds such as crow, calling mates, kingfisher, swallow sitting, different feet of birds such as wading, walking and swimming, &c.; parrot, doves, &c.; different kinds of eggs,

different kinds of birds' nests. Different kinds of insects and worms, different kinds of feathers, bones and fossils, teeth, beaks of birds, claws of different kinds of animals and birds.

Sea-products such as sponge, conches, shells, coral and pearl.

7. *Shapes of machines for handicraft work.* Ploughing instruments, tools such as saws, chisels, boring instruments and drilling instruments. Air-pump, water-pump, suction-pump and syphon tube.

8. (a) *Kindergarten materials and designs* to be had of Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co., Bombay.

(b) Coloured papers for sloyd-work, sticks for stick-laying, seeds for seed-laying occupations, mats, fans, pith-work, &c.

9. *Life-like clay models of animals such as tiger, bear, lion, elephant, &c.; of fruits such as plantains, grapes, &c.*

10. *Pictures on card-boards.*

With the above specimens, the village pedagogue should develop the faculty of observation and reasoning in children entrusted to his care and, by presenting objects before them, should render his teaching realistic.

A. AIYADURAI AIYAR.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

Mr. Daniel Jones, M.A., the special University Lecturer on Phonetics, delivered an interesting lecture on "Spelling Reform" at the Senate House on Wednesday evening, the 18th December, under the auspices of the South Indian Branch of the Simplified Spelling Society. He stated the case for a rational spelling in an able and closely reasoned speech, and commended the work of the Simplified Spelling Society in South India to the sympathy and support of the audience.

Mr. W. B. Hunter, the President of the Branch, was in the chair and made an introductory speech full of pith and humour. He pointed out that it was a sufficient condemnation of the modern spelling, that even after years of laborious training, most of them were not sure of their spelling without a dictionary. It was fitting that Mr. Jones should have come to lecture on Simplified Spelling in Madras, which was, in the matter of education, the most progressive Presidency in India. England as a commercial country, said the speaker, was not in favour of conscription because she felt it would cripple trade by withdrawing men from business for a certain period. But if boys were only allowed to spell in a rational and consistent way, from one to two years of their school time would be saved, and this could well be devoted later to compulsory military training. Mr. Hunter drew attention to the rapid spread of Dutch in South African schools, owing to its being a phonetic language and therefore easy to learn. Further, if Englishmen were to keep their place in commerce, either they should become better linguists or English become more universal for international use. He pointed out, finally, that a simplified and rational spelling would be a great boon to business men in India, for it would save the time of their employees, and thereby tend to improve their efficiency.

Mr. Jones began his lecture with a reference to the present state of English spelling, and showed how thoroughly unsatisfactory it was. Modern English was unphonetic for two reasons. After the introduction of printing into England, the spelling became fixed, while the pronunciation continued steadily to change. Secondly spelling was purposely changed either by ignorant printers who knew nothing of etymology or by scholars who also made mistakes. Dr. Johnson, the great lexicographer, was, for instance, responsible for many wrong spellings in English. The present spelling, therefore, had not behind it the recommendation of antiquity and the researches of

scholars as some people were inclined to think.

The lecturer then went on to speak of the serious consequences of the current spelling. The teaching of it was in direct conflict with the modern educational principle of making the child think for itself. The child could not ask the question why, but had blindly to accept the authority of the teacher. From another point of view, an English child was very much handicapped in comparison with foreign children, whose language was phonetic. Thus it had been computed that while English children spent 2300 school hours in learning to read and write English, German children spent only 1300 hours in learning their language. This meant that over a full year of the school life of English children was lost. Such a state of things could not be good for the Empire.

Mr. Jones next proceeded to consider the various objections to any change in the spelling and disposed of them effectually. He pointed out that it was as absurd to speak of a change in the spelling destroying the language as it was to say that a wash or a change of clothes would destroy the identity of a boy. Another objection was that much confusion would arise by spelling words with different meanings alike. We should, however, in most cases be able to distinguish the words from the context. Yet another objection was that owing to divergences of pronunciation there would be endless local and individual variation. But no system of spelling could be entirely phonetic and for practical purposes a simplified spelling would approximately represent standard English pronunciation.

Finally, Mr. Jones dealt with the etymological argument and rightly remarked that it was generally advanced by those who knew little or nothing of etymology. He pointed out that Professor Skeat, one of the greatest English etymologists was practically the founder of the Simplified Spelling Society. Spelling sometimes did tell a little about the history of words, but far more frequently it was an unsafe guide in matters

of derivation. And after all, to millions of English readers, etymology had no charm or interest.

The Simplified Spelling Society had put forward a tentative scheme of reform, which formed a good basis for discussion. He hoped that many in India would support the movement by joining the Indian Branch of which Mr. Mark Hunter was the Honorary Secretary.

THE PANJAB UNIVERSITY.

CONVOCATION ADDRESS.*

At the Convocation of the University of Panjab held on 7th instant, the following address was delivered by the Hon'ble Sir Louis W. Dane, G.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S., Chancellor of the Panjab University.

I desire first to thank the Syndicate for the signal honour which they have done to me by conferring upon me the honorary degree of D. O. L., the senior honour of the senior Faculty of the Panjab University. I am quite aware how unworthy I am to bear this title and wear these robes, but I can at least claim a very real and deep interest in Arabic and Persian, and some slight knowledge of these Classical and of some of the Vernacular languages of the Panjab. I have ever regretted that the unceasing calls made upon my time by one of the most interesting and absorbing services of the world have left me but little leisure to prosecute more fully my early studies, but I promise myself that opportunity in the time of leisure which soon opens for me. The policy of the Government of India has in the past been somewhat illiberal in the matter of the encouragement of the study of Oriental Classics, and the arbitrary time limits imposed often, as in my own case, prevented men interested in that study from going up for the Government Examinations. I am glad to think that my persistence through 20 years backed by others has at last induced the Government of India to allow Government servants to go up for the Degree of Honour in Classical Languages at any period in their service, though as is so often the case the reform here was too late to benefit the reformer. It is pretty obvious that no man can pass the Degree of Honour Examination at the end of his service unless he

* Reproduced from the University edition of the Address.

has continuously kept up his study of the languages throughout that service, and it is also obvious that it is much more to the advantage of Government that an officer should go in for such continuous study than that he should pass an examination in the early part of his career and then often forget all that he had learned.

I hope and believe that the more liberal policy now laid down may encourage more officers to take up the critical study of the Oriental Classics and so wipe out the reproach that, though we have more to do with Orientals than any nation, we are less well informed about the Oriental Classics than many nations. With brilliant exceptions such as Dewan Tek Chand, Captain Ferrar and Mr. Latifi very few Panjab officers, I am sorry to say, have taken any of the Government degrees of proficiency in these subjects. It is also a hopeful sign of the times that the Government of India should have decided to establish an Oriental Institute at Delhi for the encouragement of the study of Oriental Classics and that a similar institute for Oriental languages generally is being founded in London.

We of the Panjab University may well rejoice at these developments, as the University was founded with the primary and special object of promoting the diffusion of European Science as far as possible through the medium of the Vernacular languages of the Panjab, improving and extending Vernacular literature generally, affording encouragement to the enlightened study of the Eastern Classical languages and literature, and associating the learned and influential classes of the Province with the officers of Government in the promotion and supervision of popular education. From the very first, too, we have been a teaching University on the Oriental side, and, though up to the present Oriental research has not been so paying as studies in English, I decline to believe that the Senate will allow mere considerations of money-making to divert its interest unduly from the senior Faculty, though no doubt we should not neglect our secondary object, the study of the English language and literature with the use of the English language for subjects which cannot be completely taught in the Vernacular.

I am afraid that notwithstanding all the efforts of the University and the excellent translations into Panjab vernaculars which have appeared under the auspices of the Senate and the Text-Book Committee, few modern subjects can be completely taught in this country save in English, and consequently the study of the English language and literature bulks more largely in our syllabus than the founders of the University intended. There is

all the more reason, therefore, that we should concentrate on the encouragement of the study of the Eastern Classics, so that we may carry out the wishes of those pious founders so far as is practicable. Such a study is really essential for the men of this Province who wish to understand fully their own religions. It is almost equally necessary for those not of this country who wish to understand the mentality of the educated people with whom they have to deal and who may desire to commune with them on terms of equality and not as mere foreigners here for a day to make a living out of India and gone to-morrow without knowing anything of the inner life of India or having done anything to broaden that life or to benefit themselves by lessons drawn from that life.

Our older Universities in England still cling to the study of the dead classical languages of the West, and I am old fashioned enough to believe that this study is one of the best mental and moral tonics which education can provide. I can only speak for Arabic and Persian, but I confidently assert that these classics are in no way inferior to Greek and Latin as excellent exercises for the mind and as storehouses of the concentrated wisdom and learning of the past, while they are more suitable to the conditions of this country. Sanskrit, the mother of Aryan tongues, is no doubt even more valuable in India.

I have feared in the past that mere modernity with its bleared and short-sighted vision fixed only on the main chance would lead even this University to throw cold water upon Oriental studies, and there was a time when the danger was real. I am glad to think that a wiser and more far-sighted view now prevails and that the University is devoting the sum of Rs. 12,000 a year to augment the salaries of the professors of the Oriental College and so to secure the services of men who, while deeply versed in the traditional learning of the East, have turned the light of Western criticism upon Oriental methods and are in a position to impart to their students what is best of both systems. Government is also alive to the necessities of the case and has created scholarships in Sanskrit and Arabic for men who really mean to study in Europe Western methods of Oriental learning and teaching. We had secured one such returned student who, however has been spirited away to an even more important Chair in Calcutta. Let us hope that our future scholars will be more constant to their Oriental studies and to their Alma Mater. We have also created Assistant Professorships at the Government College in Arabic and Sanskrit, in the hope that they will attract and inspire students with a proper love for their own classics, and

that they in turn will feed our Oriental College, which in future will probably devote itself to teaching for the B. A. in Honours and the M. A. Degrees and more fully to the higher study of the classics, while maintaining the present classes for Oriental titles which are still valued. Thus we shall still retain the good fame of honouring and serving the great mother tongues of the East and do our best to act up to our proud motto "*ex oriente lux*," for if there be a light of learning from the East it shines forth at present from the pages of the Oriental Classics.

If I have devoted some time to the consideration of the Oriental Faculty first, I am sure that in the special circumstances of our University and of this occasion you will bear with me.

I would now turn to some other features of the educational life of our University and Province. First, I must congratulate the University on the acceptance by the Government of India of the scheme proposed by the Syndicate for the expenditure of the Government special grant. This is as follows, and when it is fully carried out, it should result in a greatly improved University life. In addition to the annual grant of Rs. 12,000 to the Oriental College, it is proposed to spend Rs. 20,000 per annum of the sum available on the establishment of special University lecturers during the cold weather. These special lectures should be most valuable adjuncts to our teaching, as those given by Dr. Henderson recently have proved. The permanent improvements contemplated are—

- (1) the construction of the Oriental College on the site adjoining the University Library at a cost of Rs. 50,000 excluding the building already there;
- (2) the acquisition of land for hostels for the Oriental and Law Colleges at a cost of Rs. 1,76,000, a much needed improvement;
- (3) the removal of the out-buildings from the University quadrangle at a cost of Rs. 12,000;
- (4) the construction of a residence for the Assistant Registrar, Rs. 12,000;
- (5) improvements to the Athletic ground, Rs. 10,000.

I have said that the study of English has outgrown the ideas of our founders. I for one do not regret this. Indeed I go further and rejoice in the wider and wider spreading of my native tongue with its flexibility and adaptability to all purposes of Learning, Science and Commerce. I am confident that before many years are over, the Roman script, used practically by all nations now for general and extra-national purposes, will, as being the vehicle for teaching English, become the common script

of India in which all the peoples of this Continent, while keeping their own special scripts for their own special use, will be able freely to communicate with others outside their special language limits. I also believe that in this way, and perhaps in this way only, will a knowledge of the Indian vernaculars be maintained and spread. No man can expect to learn all the scripts in use in India but most can learn a spoken language if presented to him in a garb with which he is already familiar. I am glad to see that at the last Sikh Educational Conference the Roman script was put forward for use in Panjabi where the special Sikh script of Gurmukhi might not be readily accepted. At a recent meeting of Linguists in Europe the same conclusion was arrived at by that great scholar Dr. Sir G. Grierson. I trust that as old controversies and rivalries die down the advantages of an Empire script may be recognised in theory as well as they already are in practice, and its use will, I am confident, do much finally to terminate those controversies and still those rivalries, which, however interesting and even creditable in their origin, undoubtedly do much here to check and retard our common progress and even lead to deplorable strife.

Last year and in 1911 our Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Ewing, in his addresses touched upon some features of University life. He reminded us of what we had done to fit men for the battle of the world and he counselled our students with all the loving knowledge of the head of a great College on the choice of a profession. He also examined the type and character of the education given in this country and the means used to test the extent to which students have benefited by that education. He further suggested methods by which that education and the tests might be improved. I cannot add to his remarks with advantage, and would only say here that I am in full accord with his idea that, though Government cannot well intervene directly in the direction of religious instruction in its schools and colleges, it can and should facilitate such instruction in hostels. That is the present policy of the Panjab Government in all educational institutions, and we are only too ready to provide facilities for donors to construct separate hostels for separate creeds, where religious instruction can be given to supplement and vivify the purely moral and ethical teaching which is all that we can give during class hours. I have repeatedly voiced my full belief in the feasibility and desirability of this measure, and I hope that our hostels will more and more be organised on these lines.

We may well congratulate ourselves that hostels have ever been a leading feature in the Collegiate and School life

of the Province, and that our University has always laid great stress on the provision of such in its affiliated Colleges. It is perhaps, this feature which has mainly conduced to the fact that Lahore with its five great residential Arts Colleges which have attracted 81 per cent. of the students of the Panjab, is now one of the greatest University centres outside Calcutta and Bombay, and it is largely to this corporate life of our Colleges with their tutorial groups that I attribute the healthy interest of our students in physical culture as well as their generally satisfactory conduct, to which I am glad to have this opportunity of testifying.

I am glad to see that during the quinquennium ending in 1911-12 the numbers of students in hostels in Secondary schools rose from 3,322 to 12,213.

We have also always been a teaching University as far as the Oriental College is concerned, and in our Law College we have set an example to several of the older Universities. I am glad to think that I have been able to help towards the suitable housing of these two University Colleges by providing an appropriate site for the Oriental College and by securing adequate funds for starting hostels for both Colleges. We also hope that we may soon obtain an excellent site for this purpose close to the University buildings. Those buildings themselves are being improved and completed by the construction of the Library and Oriental College, and the clearing out of the old out-houses from the University quadrangle, and they will now with the addition of the new King Edward Memorial Medical College and the extensions of the Government College form an educational centre of which any capital may well be proud.

Up to three years ago the Province was practically bankrupt and there were barely funds to pay the fixed establishments, so an active educational policy, such as we are now pushing, was impossible. It is all the more satisfactory to find that six out of the ten English Arts Colleges have in recent years provided new main buildings and nine out of the ten have provided new Science laboratories. In most of these cases the University and Government have been able to assist by grants-in-aid. This brings into a clear light another feature of our educational policy, which is to help those who help themselves. The policy has been very successful in the past by acting as a stimulus to private liberality and to the spread of private institutions, where moral and secular education can be supplemented by religious teaching.

The same policy is followed in all other educational institutions. During the past years 1911-12 and 1912-13

Government has provided a sum of Rs. 18,21,201 for educational buildings and for grants-in-aid for High Schools and Hostels. The expenditure on tuition in Government High Schools has in the past three years averaged five lakhs a year and in training institutions about Rs. 1,70,000. It is our policy to have one well-equipped Government High School in each district to act as a model and to help the others by grants-in-aid. At the same time by fixing reasonable fees we try to make collegiate and secondary education more self-supporting than it has been, so that we may be able to extend our operations. The result is that, though the total cost of Colleges and Secondary Schools has gone up from Rs. 17,79,486 in 1906-07 to Rs. 25,59,292 in 1911-12, our income from fees in the same period has risen from Rs. 7,19,028 to Rs. 11,86,231. It is a fairly satisfactory record, but not doubt in the more plentiful times in which we live, and which may I trust long continue, these figures will be greatly exceeded. In addition to providing, or helping to provide buildings we assist in other ways. Thus we hope to pay the salaries of three European Professors for the Khalsa College until fully qualified men suited to that College are available in this country. I am considering a request that we should pay for an extra European Professor in the Islamia College. The Government College we try to maintain as a model of what a College should be in staff and equipment. Four years ago there were 13 Professors and Assistant Professors on the staff and the cost was Rs. 78,019. Now the staff numbers 19 and the cost is Rs. 1,68,180. The Lahore Medical College, thanks to the liberality of the public who contributed 16 lakhs and the Government of India who gave 10 lakhs, is being enlarged and improved as the King Edward Memorial at a total cost of approximately 50 lakhs including the value of the sites, and the cost of removal, enlargement and improvement of the Veterinary College as a Degree-granting College. In the enlarged College we shall be able to teach all branches of Medicine and Hygiene, and to provide for the grant of the very necessary degree of D. P. H. and for post-graduate courses of Bacteriology and other advanced studies in the attached Research Institute. We have spent Rs. 1,23,876 in providing a home for the Engineering School, which I recently opened at Rasul and which, we all hope, will soon develop into a regular Engineering College capable of granting degrees, when no doubt it will be fully affiliated to the University. Quite recently we have decided to pay the cost of the secondary classes in English-teaching schools maintained by District Boards and Municipal Committees, so that these local authorities

may be better able to devote their funds to primary education.

In technical education we still await the views of the Committee appointed at the Industrial Education Conference of last year on the report of Colonel Atkinson and Mr. Dawson which affords much food for reflection. It would appear that in the present state of the Province mere technical or industrial education is not likely to be of much value unless it can be supplemented by practical work in workshops and factories. This I trust that we shall stipulate for in connection with the Engineering School. It is already part of the course of the Railway Technical School. It is also obvious that technical education generally can hardly attain its full development in this Province until our capitalists have embarked more boldly upon the industrialisation of the Panjab. At the same time we have strengthened the staff of, and we have given Rs. 53,758 for enlarging the workshops attached to the Mayo School of Art here in Lahore, which has created a world-wide reputation for its wood-carving and plaster decorative work under its Principals, Mr. Kipling and Sardar Bahadur Bhai Ram Singh. It is proposed to re-introduce the manufacture of the decorative tiles which are so beautiful and conspicuous a feature of our old Lahore buildings and to work up our metal and enamel work and cotton printing amongst other handicrafts. The Delhi Reformatory School was also being developed as a great Industrial School, but owing to the territorial changes it has been necessary to mark time. Possibly we may have to start a new and larger Reformatory at Amritsar on the old jail site, where there is ample space and such an institution in the sister capital of the Province should have a wide and very useful career before it.

A very special feature of educational life in the Panjab is the Central Training College, which turns out teachers for Secondary Schools and also for Colleges. The men from this College are already making a great mark and it is certainly not the least efficient amongst our educational institutions. Its general aim is to substitute the inductive and vital method of the living teacher for the deductive and formal method of the text-book, an object which should ever be before us in this country.

Female education has not been neglected, and it is most satisfactory to find that during the past quinquennium the number of girl students rose by 55 per cent., while the increase in Secondary Schools was no less than 100 per cent. Expenditure on girls' schools rose by 75 per cent, and excellent buildings have been provided for the two great girls' schools at Jullundur and Ferozepore.

There is now a keen desire for education in all parts of the Province amongst girls of the middle classes and private enterprise is playing a very real and earnest part in affording facilities. Government is also doing its best to help, and, in addition to many grants-in-aid we have just opened the Queen Mary's College for girls of good family which, excluding the value of the site and the furnishing, has cost Rs. 1,76,246, of which the public contributed Rs. 80,272. This is to be supplemented by a preparatory school for the Aitchison College for boys under nine, which is to be under the same management but in a separate building and site.

I am glad to be able to say that the Kinnaird High School, which has been freely helped by Government, now proposes to seek affiliation up to the B.A. standard in Arts, and so at last we shall have a first grade Women College in the Province.

This may help us over one great difficulty—the supply of qualified female teachers.

I venture to contend therefore that, though it is but a beginning, so far as collegiate and secondary and special forms of education go, we can show a very creditable activity, in which we have always been helped and guided, and I may add sometimes forcibly stimulated by the Panjab University.

The results are decidedly satisfactory, and I have no hesitation in repeating here the facts and figures which were compiled in response to questions elsewhere, and which show our actual progress in higher and secondary education, as compared with our own record of five years back, as calculated by the number of students per million of population:—

Colleges.	1906-07.	1911-12.
Arts	78	183
Professional	32	44
Secondary Schools	3,315	4,927
Primary Schools	7,946	10,447

There remains the great field of primary education and though it is not, perhaps, an ordinary University question, the conspectus of our position would be woefully incomplete without some reference to it. At first sight the returns of the recent census of literates are rather disappointing, and it would appear that notwithstanding an increase of over 1100 schools and some 90,000 scholars in the decennium there had not been much increase in literacy. The reason is that there has been a change in the definition of literate. In 1901 any one who could sign his name was returned as literate, but in 1911 only those were so shown who could write a letter and read the reply. As a fact there has been a very great and real increase in literacy, though it is not nearly so great

as it might have been but for our special difficulties in this province. Now I would first premise that the population of the Panjab naturally divides itself into rural and urban or agricultural and non-agricultural. No less than 89 per cent. falls under the former head. It is under this head only that we are lacking in educational equipment. The Census tables show that of the higher Hindu non-agricultural castes including about one and a half million persons no less than 22 per cent. are literate, that is, are able to write a letter, and the proportion of literate males is as high as 38 per cent. It cannot be said that there is any great educational deficiency here. The result is in accordance with what we know in actual life. The Panjab trading classes are, as a rule, men of great shrewdness and enterprise and require but little in the way of inducement or facilities to send their children to school. The case unfortunately is very different when we come to deal with the cultivating and artisan classes. Many of these are actively opposed to all education as tending to unfit boys for their parents' calling. It must be admitted that they have much truth on their side. A school-taught boy is generally too soft to tend the cattle and follow the plough or work at the forge or bench. Clerical posts are comparatively few and the competition for these, as in England, is terribly severe. It is the old question how are we to educate the people and yet leave them contented with their lot. Many nostrums have been propounded—such as agricultural and petty industrial schools and special courses and times of work. All of these have a great fascination and glamour, and *prima facie* should meet the case. Unfortunately so far they have not. The people concerned, or those of the people concerned who can voice their opinions, will have none of them. If they send their children to school they want them to go to an ordinary school from which they can rise by ordinary stages to secondary and collegiate training. The case came up at the Agricultural Conference at Lyallpur the other day, and this as usual was the answer. I have no doubt that it is the answer of the intelligent members of the class, but for the present it is pretty conclusive. Still we must keep on moving and thanks to the enlightened policy of the Government of India and their overflowing treasury, we are at last provided with funds sufficient to enable us to make a real attempt at the education of the masses. We propose to do this through the agency of the people most affected, the District Boards and Municipal Committees. Hitherto these bodies have rather stood aside and said that they could not be expected to take an

interest in schools which were run mainly by a centralised Department. It was never a very well founded complaint but to render it palpably baseless we have for some time past convened Educational Conferences to which non-officials and officials interested in education though not in the Department have been invited. At these Conferences all the burning educational questions are freely discussed and so far as may be decided. In this way and through the resolutions of the various denominational Educational Conferences we are brought into very close touch with public opinion and can shape our course where possible in accordance with it. Besides we have altered the old system and have decentralised on Commissioners. The Inspector of Schools now has the same circle as the Commissioner's Division and is really an expert adviser to the Commissioner in educational matters. The grants-in-aid for building new schools are now made in bulk to the Commissioner who, after considering the applications and requirements of the various districts in his division as voiced by the local authorities, distributes the grants over those districts. Under our new system stipendiary grants are based upon salaries paid by the local authorities, and the Commissioner with the advice of the Inspector watches their proceedings and can interfere as may be necessary. In this way the District officers are brought into the closest touch with their educational requirements, and under the guidance of an experienced officer like the Commissioner, advised by an expert in education, they cannot go far astray, while all friction is minimised. I have great hopes from the working of this system. We are distributing without trouble or complaint Rs. 7,07,609 in grants for Vernacular Primary education during the current year and much trouble to all concerned has been obviated.

Under this system too local wants have a full and fair hearing, and it should not be long before all villages except in hill districts should be served by a Primary School within walking distance of each village.

A detailed scheme has been worked out for each district for future advance, and the total cost of the schools required with their staff and equipment under that scheme will be Rs. 82,30,000 capital and Rs. 20,00,000 recurring.

These are very large figures, and a few years back they would have been considered impossible. We live in happier times and, if the present system of educational grants is only continued, there is no reason at all why in time the scheme should not be brought into full play and the education even of the agricultural masses rendered possible. It may then be desirable to shorten hours and have special curricula, and in time we may get up to

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

"The Quality in Teaching," by His
Excellency Sir George Clarke.

The following is the summary of a speech by His Excellency Sir George Clarke at a meeting of the Bombay Teachers' Association:—

When quality in teaching comes to be appreciated adequately the hands of the Government will be strengthened. Education can be judged only by its results and not by the highly artificial standards of examination alone. It has been my particular wish to improve the position of the teacher and I am thankful that it has been possible to move in this direction. In the Government Secondary schools as you know, considerable improvement in the salaries of the headmasters and subordinate staff has been recently effected. A further rise of minimum and maximum rates is in contemplation. In the Aided schools the raising of fees has already enabled some advance to be made and I hope that the managers of these schools will realize the great advantage of sending their teachers to the Training College, or that they will at least direct these teachers to obtain the secondary teachers' certificate. I believe that all teachers who take a real interest in their profession will find no difficulty in securing this certificate. The Government will further develop the Training College and while no special training can confer all the qualities which the Bishop rightly demands it must be a gain to secure practice in teaching under supervision, to learn method and to fill in some gaps in the preliminary education of the teacher. By the help of the Training College it will be possible in time to build up your profession and to secure for it the public appreciation which it deserves.

We have responded liberally to the natural demand for an increase of primary education by adding immensely to the total number of schools in the past five years but further advances must be regulated by the supply of competent teachers and we shall not create schools which would serve only to swell our statistics without contributing anything to education. I firmly believe that as time goes on the position of teachers in India will rise markedly in public regard and that the profession will attract more and more earnest men who will see in it the best means of rendering real service to their country. The old "Gurus" of India may won and held the affectionate reverence of their pupils. We have to take what was best in their methods and apply it to the exigencies of our day.

compulsory education. But that time is not yet, and I have little hesitation in opposing any such suggestion at present, as in the present attitude of the agricultural and artisan classes it would require armed force to compel fathers to send their children to school, even if we had sufficient schools to which to send them. A generation hence, when the present sons are fathers, things may be very different. The great block to the spread of education is the want of teachers. I have explained what we are doing for higher and secondary education in this respect. For Primary School teachers we have opened 25 temporary training classes and are starting these where we have a good Vernacular Middle School. We have also five Normal Schools and are considering three or four new ones. Both sets of institutions are well attended, and as we have raised the minimum pay of teachers from Rs. 8 or Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 or Rs. 15, there is no lack of candidates now and the want of trained teachers should soon be met. This raising pay of the teachers has been a great and much needed reform. I desire to thank local authorities for the manner in which they have met the wishes of Government. The rates are minima rates and teachers often draw higher salaries and in some cases receive allowances as postmasters.

I am afraid that this has been a very matter of fact and unconventional Convocation address, and I have dealt largely with humbler forms of education than are usually considered here. But *raiyaat oho bekh and o sultan darakht*—all education, that is, all true education depends upon the foundation and grounding, and without good and sound primary and secondary education no University could flourish, while it is not at all so certain that a country with such educational foundations could not flourish materially without a University, though its life would be maimed mentally and its outlook very circumscribed. The true intellectual life of a nation is attained where the educational grounding is good and the corporate mentality of the people can pass on stage by stage through well considered phases of instruction until it attains at last full intellectual manhood in a University of learning, deeply and closely concerned in the working of all the stages of intellectual life and training below it and keenly interested in providing for the future of its sons and daughters, yet true to that higher learning which is sought for itself alone, as benefiting not merely the acquirer but all mankind.

Such a University is, I believe, our Panjab University, and such may it ever be, and I am proud, indeed, of having been your Chancellor for five years and prouder still of the great and signal honour which you have conferred upon me to-day.

Advice to Students, by His Excellency Lord Carmichael.

His Excellency Lord Carmichael recently presided over the annual prize distribution of the Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, when he addressed the students in the following words of advice:—

Collegiate institutions in Calcutta are different from those to which I have been accustomed. The number of students are great nearly 1,100 in this one college and I am told that the students live in scattered homes. In your college greater progress has been made than in some others in bringing the students together into hostels and I hope some day to visit you in your rooms at the Dundas Hostel, the Wann Hostel and the Duff Hostel. I am glad too to hear that you hope shortly to add two more houses. There is nothing like the corporate life to develop character. Your hostels are as near as you can get in Calcutta to the college to which I have been accustomed and in whose merits I believe. It is there that life-long friendships are made and it is there that you are able to meet and rub shoulders with your compeers. It is there we get the nonsense knocked out of us and learn what to admire in others and what to avoid in ourselves.

But remember always that you must have a sound body if you are going to make the best use of your brains. The battle of life is hard: and a weak body is a severe handicap. I have seen many men go under because they forgot their health while they remembered their studies and I would urge you all to take a real interest in the athletic side of your college life. I am very sorry to hear that you have no athletic ground of your own. Had I a magic wand, I would give every college in Calcutta an athletic ground; but the situation of the colleges is such that I fear this is impossible and you will have to go on with Marcus Square till such time as the city of Calcutta can provide more of those lungs which are so essential for health in a great city. I hear from Dr. Watt that you have cricket, football, tennis and other games. Competition will help to keep up your *esprit de corps* and I shall gladly give you a Challenge Cup to be held by the hostel which has the best record in athletics or in whatever way Mr. Cameron and the Athletic Committee think best.

I wish you all success in your labours throughout the year. I feel I cannot do better than commend to you the example of the life and work of your illustrious founder Dr. Alexander Duff who did act up to the advice "Trust in God and do the right. Be honest, kind and brave."

H. H. The Gaekwar and Education. Views on Public Libraries.

A meeting of the Baroda Library Club was held on the 26th ultimo, in the Baroda Central Library, when Mr. Clarke, the Principal of the Baroda College, read an interesting paper on 'Library and Higher Education.' The occasion was graced by the presence of H. H. the Gaekwar, who spoke on the usefulness of public libraries.

When I came to the meeting, I had no intention of being more than a passive listener; but what the lecturer and the Chairman said has induced me to venture a few words in support of the lecturer's suggestion of forming a post-graduate course in library economy in Baroda College, of which institution the lecturer is the distinguished head. Such a course is badly needed in India; and the intense library activity of the Baroda State makes this college the fittest institution to offer such a course to the Indian graduate. There will soon be a demand for trained library workers. Many States are about to follow the example set by our State in founding systems of free public libraries, and some of them have already written to me asking me to recommend competent persons for such work. This of course, I have not been able to do, as I know that Mr. Borden is too zealous in work for the Baroda libraries to spare any of the trained assistants for work in other States, however important that work might be. But his zeal is great, and he might train others to the work who would extend that work throughout India. If his ability to train men in his own special line could be combined with the like ability in allied lines possessed by the faculty of Baroda College, an institution could be established that would work incalculable good to India. An institution like the one that was established thirty years ago in America, in which Mr. Borden was even then a lecturer, and which has since been the largest element in putting America in the lead in library work. But this idea of a general library course for India is not new. When Mr. Borden began his work in Baroda, information was sent to every corner of India that the State was willing, without charging any fees, to train people in library science. How that call was answered we all know. But few came forward to take advantage of what was offered. That is a pity. Enough came forward for Baroda; but not enough for India. It shows that the persons who failed to respond to the call are not far-sighted and intelligent enough to realize the importance of library work.

"The Human Side of Literature," by Prof. E. A. Wodehouse, M.A.

The fourteenth anniversary of the Central Hindu College, Benares, was celebrated on the 11th and 12th instants. Mr. E. A. Wodehouse, M.A., (Oxon.), the senior Professor of English, delivered his lecture on 'The Human Side of Literature.' The following is a summary of his very interesting and instructive lecture:—

We are often so much pre-occupied with books that we forget the man behind the books. Great authors are just as human as ourselves; they have their joys and sorrows, their struggles and successes, just as we have and it makes our appreciation of the literature keener if we can remember this human side of it.

If we pass from the books to the writers behind, we find ourselves in a world of tragedies, comedies and incongruities as striking as we can find anywhere in life. All this draws us nearer to the writer and we realise that the maker of books is after all a partner and a brother in our life and not some august figure austere remote from the world of men to be treated only with cold and distant reverence. Great writers, particularly great poets, articulate for us that ever-living and moving world of ideas which ever encircles and presses in upon our everyday world of facts. He is, in this way, a true creator, since ideas alone are created and no idea can become operative in life until it inspires articulate expression.

Our true link with the writer is that all of us, whether we realise it or not, are engaged in creating our own worlds, beautiful or ugly, happy or unhappy, according to the thread which we weave into that. All that the writer does is to embody in words that which with us goes no further than a thought or a feeling. The true art of reading depends upon a recognition of this common creative activity which links both the writer and the reader together.

The Hon'ble Sir Louis Dane on the Study of Oriental Classics.

Presiding at the annual Convocation of the Punjab University, The Hon'ble Sir Louis Dane, Chancellor, made a strong plea for Oriental languages as follows:—

The study of English bulks more largely in the syllabus than the founders of the University intended. This is not to be regretted, but it is a greater reason why we should concentrate on the study of Oriental classics. Personally I could speak for Arabic and Persian and confidently assert that these classics are in no way inferior to Greek and Latin, as excellent exercises for the mind and store-houses of concentrated wisdom of the past. I have no doubt that Sanskrit, the mother of Aryan tongues, is even more valuable in India. Mere modernity with its blurred and short-sighted vision fixed only on the main chance has threatened to lead the University to throw cold water upon Oriental studies. I am glad therefore that a more far-sighted view now prevails and the University is devoting money to augment the salaries of Professors of the Oriental College and secure men who, while deeply versed in traditional learning of the East, are trained in the critical methods of the West. Regarding Indian vernaculars, I believe that the adoption of the Roman script is the best means of promoting their general diffusion. Referring to technical education, mere industrial education is not likely to be of much value until capitalists embark more boldly upon industrial enterprises and supply workshops and factories for practical work. Regarding primary education, there is not much to be regretted among the urban population and business classes, but the case is bad with the cultivating and artisan classes. Many of these are actively opposed to education as tending to unfit boys for the parents' calling. Still, we must keep on moving and, thanks to the enlightened policy of the Government of India and their overflowing treasury, we are at last provided with funds sufficient to make possible a real attempt at the education of the masses.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

Special Meeting of the Senate.

A special meeting of the Senate was held on the 4th instant for the confirmation of the resolutions passed by the Senate in Committee on the 25th and 26th October and the assignation of newly-elected Ordinary Fellows. The Vice-Chancellor called upon the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundara Aiyar to move that the resolutions passed by the Senate be confirmed. The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sundara Aiyar in moving that the resolutions be confirmed, said that he had much pleasure in moving that the resolutions passed by the Senate in Committee at their meetings on October 25th and 26th be confirmed. There had been some criticism on these resolutions, but he had not seen any criticism of a suggestive character. There had been some remarks that more provision should be made for science studies, but as far as he had been able to judge, the resolutions as passed had met with general approval. The motion being seconded by the Rev. J. D. W. Sewell, S. J., was then put to the vote and carried by 37 votes to 6, a majority of 31.

Assignment of Fellows.

The Rev. Father Sewell, S. J., then moved:—That the following newly-elected Ordinary Fellows may be assigned to the Faculties as follows:—

FACULTY OF ARTS:—Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar, M.A., and Mr. G. A. Natesan, B.A.

FACULTY OF MEDICINE.—Mr. P. Chandrasekhar, B.A., M.D., and Major Miller, M.B., I. M. S.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., F.R.H.S., seconded, and the motion was carried unanimously.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

The new Professorships.

A meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate House, College Square, on the 30th ultimo. The Hon. Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, Vice-Chancellor, presided and there was a fair attendance of Fellows.

The Vice-Chancellor moved that the following recommendations of the Syndicate be confirmed:—

(a) That the University Chair of Indian History be named "The Carmichael Chair of Ancient Indian History and Civilization."

(b) That Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., D.Sc., C.I.E., be appointed to the Carmichael Chair.

(c) That the appointment be for a term of seven years and that the salary be Rs. 12,000 per annum.

(d) That Professor R. M. Frechet be appointed to "The Hardinge Chair of Higher Mathematics."

(e) That the appointment be for a period of three years, and that the salary be Rs. 12,000 a year, plus Rs. 3,000 as house allowance.

University Readers.

(a) That Dr. A. R. Forsyth be appointed Reader to the University for 1912-13 and that the subject of his lectures be "The theory of functions of two complex variables."

(b) That Prof. H. Oldenberg be appointed Reader to the University for 1912-13 and that the subject of his lectures be "The Method of Western Scholarship in the field of Ancient Indian Research."

Mr. Palit's Munificent Gift.

That the Syndicate record their feelings of gratitude towards Mr. Palit and their high appreciation of his munificent gift which will materially help to further the cause of scientific education within the jurisdiction of this University.

That the princely gift of Mr. Palit be reported to the Senate with a recommendation that a deputation of the Senate do wait on Mr. Palit to express their sense of gratitude towards him.

That steps be taken to have a life-size portrait of Mr. Palit in oil to be placed in some conspicuous place in the Senate Hall.

That steps be also taken to provide a marble statue of Mr. Palit to be placed in front of the proposed College of Science.

The above recommendations were all seconded and confirmed.

THE DACCA UNIVERSITY.

Government Resolution.

The Government resolution accompanying the Dacca University Committee's Report is very short, announcing that in accordance with the promise made at the appointment of a Committee the Report is now published and circulated for comment and advice. Copies will be forwarded to subscribers to the *Gazette*, newspapers, leading Provincial Associations and men. A cheap edition will be available for the public at four annas, shortly after the new year. The Governor-in-Council will take the Report into consideration on the 15th

February and criticisms and comments should be sent before that date.

Further Details.

The Report of the Dacca University Committee issued recently is an exhaustive and voluminous work describing the details with great elaboration and extending to two hundred and seventy pages with appendices. It is illustrated with thirty-six maps, plans and photographs. It is proposed that the University which is to be residential shall consist of seven departments, Arts, Sciences, Islamic Studies, Law, Engineering, Medicine and Teaching. In Law, students will read for the Calcutta degree. There will be a Women's College for forty students and a College for the well-to-do classes for one hundred and twenty, the total number of students provided for under all heads being two thousand eight hundred and ninety, including the present Dacca and Jagannath Colleges. The individuality of each College will be carefully preserved and each will be allowed to develop in its own way. The Calcutta Matriculation will remain the sole general entrance qualification. Particular attention will be paid to Research. The teaching staff in Arts will number seventy-six and in Science forty-seven, twenty-two in all belonging to the Indian Educational and forty-three to the Provincial Educational services. Respecting the residential system direct accommodation will be provided for fifteen hundred, until special lower caste and Namasudra Hospital be established. General religious instruction will not be given unless spontaneous demand arises except in the Mahomedan College. Physical training and social life will receive careful attention, elaborate arrangements for playing fields, gymnastic equipment and staff being provided in the former. The estimated capital cost of the scheme totals Rs. 5,291,000 of which buildings amount to 32½ lakhs and equipment nearly eight lakhs. Proceeds from the sale of College Rs. 688,000, unclaimed landlords' fees (608,000), etc., reduce the total capital cost to Rs. 30,845,000. This sum is remarkably small but the site for large buildings and many residencies are already available. The recurring charges will total Rs. 1,298,716, the teaching staff representing 8½ lakhs. The fees will bring in Rs. 3½ lakhs, provincial grants to Sibpur, Dacca and Jagannath Colleges nearly 3 lakhs and the net annual cost will be Rs. 86,000.

Reviews and Notices.

JUNIOR SOUND AND LIGHT, BY R. W. STEWART, D. SC., LONDON, AND JOHN SATTERLY, D. SC., M.A.

PUBLISHERS: W. B. CLIVE, UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LTD., LONDON. 2s. 6d.

In this handy treatise, the authors have successfully sought to present an account of the elementary principles of *Sound and Light*. The treatment is, throughout, very satisfactory and will enable beginners to have a clear grasp of the fundamental ideas; the subject-matter is well-chosen and illustrated and developed by means of suitable and simple experiments that require no costly or elaborate apparatus, but are easily procurable or cheaply made; the explanations are clear and couched in simple and scientific language, so as to impress the ideas well in the minds of learners. The illustrations are carefully prepared and most of the diagrams are drawn in plan and tend to greatly increase the value of the book.

There is no denying the fact that, for scientific instruction to be useful and effective, the student should experiment for himself and know the facts at first-hand, and much scope should be left for the exercise of his *thinking faculty*, so that he might see the fundamental laws behind the facts. This need for the student's practical work has been realised by the authors, and possible provision has been made in this direction. Of course, the scope for practical work and its usefulness cannot be so wide in such text-books as in a course of practical exercises; the results which the student is expected to gather from experimenting for himself are often anticipated in the development of the *theory* portion or in the instructions given for experimental manipulations; yet, whatever can be done, in a treatise like this, for making practical work fruitful, has been attempted.

The mechanical use of formulæ in solving problems is rightly discouraged and the problems appended at the end of each chapter serve to exercise the student's memory and to lead him to a clear grasp of the principles. The method of exposition is clear, simple and intelligent; especially so, in the portions bearing on *Vibratory motion*, *Wave motion*, *Lenses*, and *Spherical mirrors*. There seems to be a slight confusion regarding the wave lengths of red and violet lights, *vide* p. 213.

The printing and the get-up of the book leave nothing to be desired and are as excellent as the publications of the University Tutorial Press have been. It is priced at 2s. 6d. We heartily congratulate the authors and the publishers for the production of this excellent treatise which will prove a very useful guide in the hands of pupils for comprehending the elementary ideas on the subject.

THE TREE OF EMPIRE, EDWARD ARNOLD, LONDON.
1s. 6d.

This is a book of readings in prose and verse illustrating the history and development of the British Empire. There is a freshness about the selections contained in this book. The pieces are all from modern authors—the opening poem being the well-known "Britons beyond the Seas" by Harold Begbie and the closing poem being "A Hymn for Empire Day" by the famous ex-master of Eton, Mr. A. C. Benson. We expect that books like these will form the necessary equipment of our school libraries.

INTERMEDIATE PHYSICS, BY W. WATSON, A.R.C.S.,
D.Sc. (London), F.R.S. (LONGMANS, GREEN
& Co.) Price 6s. net.

The author evidently intends this present volume to meet the requirements of students taking an intermediate course in the subject, besides serving as a useful publication for the engineering, medical and other students as well. From the point of view of the author, the book cannot be said to have scored a distinct success, though by his exclusive attention to the first of these objects, he would have made it eminently suited as a text-book for the intermediate students of this or any other University. The subject has now become so vast as to render it impossible to treat even the more important sections within reasonable limits of space and we confess naturally to a feeling that the subject has suffered from compression—the section on 'current electricity' seriously.

There are portions in the book which have been treated in an admirably clear and concise manner and are well arranged. Among other features of the present volume may be mentioned:—(i) the introduction of friction dynamometer under friction machines, Watt's indicator diagram in the chapter on work and its measurement, optical lever among instruments

for measurement of length and other subjects in their appropriate places; (ii) the insertion of two chapters at the end on radio-activity, electrical oscillations and waves which are subjects of modern importance.

It is unfortunate for the students that a few of the subjects should have been dismissed with merely a passing notice or given an inadequate treatment. It is also regrettable that a few typographical and other errors have crept in.

ESSENTIALS OF PSYCHOLOGY, BY S. RADHAKRISHNAN, M.A., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR IN
LOGIC, PRESIDENCY COLLEGE, MADRAS
(HENRY FROUDE, OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS.)
Re. 1.

This little book is an outline of psychology. It is obviously intended for beginners. The author has made an attempt to present, in a short compass, the fundamental principles of psychology, omitting all unnecessary and perplexing details. His views are sound and up-to-date; and in the treatment of psychological problems, he has invariably followed the best and the most recent authorities in the subject. We are glad that the subject has been dealt with in so simple and lucid a manner as to be easily intelligible to young minds. But the amount of information contained in the book appears to be too insufficient to make it serve as a text-book in psychology. A few more chapters on habit, growth of self-consciousness, etc., would have increased its size and usefulness. However, we believe, that the book, though brief, will prove a stimulating introduction to the study of psychology. We, therefore, recommend it to students who have taken philosophy as their special subject in the college classes.

HARISCHANDRA, BY A. SRINIVASACHARI, WALAJA-
NAGAR. Price Re. 1.

With great pleasure we draw the attention of our readers to this drama on Harischandra, the ideal speaker of truth whose image has for centuries stimulated the ethical imagination of Hindus and has taught them the supreme lesson *satyam eva jayati*. The book is furnished with an introduction from the accomplished pen of Mr. P. Seshadri, who is so very well-known to our readers. The details of the story of Harischandra is well-known to every man, woman

DURBAR DAY CELEBRATIONS.

BOARD HIGH SCHOOL, DEARAPURAM.

The school was closed on Thursday, the 12th December 1912, for celebrating the Durbar Day of His Imperial Majesty George V in a befitting manner. The students were asked to assemble in their respective classes by 3-30 P.M. Then each teacher explained to his class, the importance of the occasion, the benefits of the benign British Rule, and the debt of gratitude we owe as loyal subjects of His Majesty. After this, the pupils had some light refreshments. At 4-30 P.M., the football and badminton matches, specially arranged for the occasion, commenced. The staff also took part in the matches. Some of the old students of the school were also present. The matches came to a close by 6 P.M., and the gathering was dispersed after the singing of the National Anthem, in the midst of loud cheers of "Long Live the King and Queen."

MAHAJANA HIGH SCHOOL, ERODE.

The celebration of the school-day for the year 1912 took place on Thursday, the 12th December 1912, in the school compound. The school premises were tastefully decorated with flags, festoons and evergreens. The proceedings began early in the morning with a breakfast at which all the past and present students of the school were present. The guests were treated to a sumptuous dinner at 11 A.M. and were served with light refreshments at 2 P.M. At 5 P.M., the meeting of the students took place under the presidency of M.R. Ry. M. G. Arogyaswami Pillai Ayl., B.A., of Coimbatore. After an introductory speech from the Chair the following interesting programme was gone through:—

1. Recitations and Dialogues.
2. 'Loyalty to the British Throne,' by Mr. B. V. Ramaswami Sastriar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster.
3. Welcome Address, by Mr. E. S. Ganapati Aiyer Ayl., B.A., B.L. (a past student).
4. Toasts.
5. Presentation of books to the School Library by the past and present students (about 150 in number).
6. Chairman's speech.
7. Vote of thanks.
8. National Anthem.

The Chairman, in his concluding speech, congratulated the students of the institution on the splendid success of their Durbar Day celebration, and the proceedings were brought to a close.

THE SOURASHTRA HIGH SCHOOL, MADURA.

On the 12th December 1912, the Durbar Day was celebrated with great *eclat* in the Sourashtra High School Hall by the members of the teaching staff as well as the pupils of the Institution. The school

and child in India and the author could not, of course, alter it much in his rendering, except by judicious omission of details that could not fit in with an artistic presentment. The book is written in good English and we are glad it will enable English people in India to see what high moral ideals have animated India and what dramatic talent exists in this country, ready to bloom forth when opportunity affords itself.

THE S. P. G. HIGH SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

Very few of our secondary schools have magazines of their own and Mr. S. K. Daivasikamany; B.A., L.T., the Headmaster of the S. P. G. High School, deserves to be congratulated on the high class illustrated quarterly he is editing. The third number of this journal is before us and contains several valuable contributions intended for the special benefit of our young men. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar has contributed an exceedingly able article on "Marriage Reform and how young men might help it." The get-up of the journal and illustrations are very good and we have no doubt the students of our high schools will find much that is interesting and instructive in this journal.

We have received the following books from the Secretary, Christian Literature Society for India, Madras:—

	English.	RS. A. P.
1. Old Testament Life and Times, by Helen Macgregor ...	...	0 8 0
2. Old Testament Stories, Pupils' Edition.	...	0 4 0
3. " " Teachers' " ...	...	0 8 0
4. The Firm Foundation of the Christian Faith ...	...	0 4 0
5. Outlines of the Harmony of the Gospels ...	...	0 1 0
6. The Key of Mystery, by Tisdall ...	...	1 4 0
7. Story Lessons for the III Standard ...	...	0 4 0
8. The Islām Series, Babāism, by the Rev. Canon Sell ...	...	0 6 0
9. Permanent Lessons of the Gita ...	...	0 2 0
<i>Tamil.</i>		
10. The Life of Service, by Rev. D. G. Fleming ...	...	0 3 0
11. Thirty Parables, by C. Arumai-nayagam ...	...	0 1 0
<i>Telugu.</i>		
12. Alexander the Great ...	...	0 1 0
13. Our Indian Sunday School ...	...	0 8 0
14. Zoology ...	...	0 8 0
15. Commentary on Romans ...	...	1 4 0

building was tastefully decorated with flags, evergreens and festoons. The proceedings commenced with a prayer. Then a senior student of the 6th Form read out in Tamil an address on "Loyalty." After this the Headmaster, who took the chair on the occasion, delivered an impressive address on "The Benefits of British Rule." Then fruits and sweets which were kindly supplied by Mr. J. Ramaiyar, B.A., B.L., Manager of the Institution, were distributed among the students. The celebration came to a close by a choir of little boys singing the National Anthem, to the accompaniment of harmonium.

THE SETHUPATHI HIGH SCHOOL, MADURA.

The Victoria Historical Association attached to the above Institution celebrated the Durbar Day in a most interesting manner. The proceedings began at 4 P.M. on Thursday, the 12th instant. After music and exhibition of athletic feats by the students of the Institution, Mr. T. O. Hodges, M.A., Inspector of Schools, 7th Circle, who presided on the occasion, called upon Mr. A. Govindaraja Mudaliar, B.A., L.T., to deliver his address on "The Significance of the Durbar Day." Mr. Mudaliar then delivered an eloquent and stirring address, which was listened to with rapt attention. Mr. Mudaliar, in the course of his address, referred in felicitous terms to the condescension of His Majesty the King-Emperor, who thought of his Indian subjects immediately after his exciting Coronation in London, and came to India and delivered unto us his noble and high-souled Message of Hope in his own sweet voice. Then Dr. Marsden, M.Sc., delivered a very impressive and eloquent address on "Loyalty." The Chairman, Mr. Hodges, then rose amidst deafening cheers, and in a few well-chosen words appreciated the loyal services rendered by Mr. Mudaliar and Dr. Marsden by the learned lectures delivered by them, and also highly commended their work as educationists to the people of Madura. With the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman and the lecturers, the interesting function came to a close.

BOYS' LITERARY ASSOCIATION, KARUR.

The anniversary of the Association, synchronising with the Coronation Durbar Day, was celebrated on Thursday, the 12th inst., with great *eclat* when Mr. T. M. Venkataragavachariar, B.A., B.L., District Munsiff, Karur, took the chair. The school was tastefully decorated with festoons and garlands of artistic flowers. There was a large gathering of official and non-official members including European gentlemen and ladies. An interesting programme comprising recitations in English, Tamil, Sanskrit and Hindustani, scenic expositions from renowned standard works, action songs, and the dramatisation of a comic piece from Aesop's Fables, was gone through to the satisfaction of the public. The Chairman after dilating at some length on the advantages of such societies in engendering a

spirit of co-operation extolled the conduct of the school children towards the spontaneous outbursts of feelings of loyalty inborn in them. The singing of the National Anthem and loud cheers for the long life and prosperity of His Majesty The King-Emperor George V and His Royal consort brought the day's proceedings to a close. Mr. V. C. Sundaresaiyer, B.A., L.T., the Secretary of the Club, read the report from which we give the following extracts:—

It is obligatory on all the boys of the higher classes, viz., the IV, V and VI Forms to be members of the Boys' Association. The Association counted 95 among its members in the short term and is now in the long term 115 strong. The attendance of members in the meetings has been quite satisfactory.

The Association is divided into two branches, the Literary branch and the Athletic or Sports branch. On the literary side meetings are held almost every Friday of the week. The weekly programme includes lectures by gentlemen, or papers and discussions or debates by pupils, prefaced by recitations in various languages, English, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu, etc. There were 11 meetings held during the long term. Papers were read or debates held on the following subjects:—

1. The Sivasamudram Waterfalls; 2. The Advantages of Single Life or Married Life; 3. Home Education; 4. Curiosity; 5. Rule by Love; 6. Industry and Idleness; 7. Which is mightier, the Pen or the Sword; 8. A Vernacular Essay on 'Tamil'; 9. Manual Training and two themes from Longfellow's "Song of Hiawatha," viz., Half is mine, although I follow; and Star-light, Moon-light, Fire-light.

The literary side is promoted by the maintenance of a Boys' Reading Room where the following journals are subscribed for:—'The Illustrated London News'; 'The Chamber's Journal'; 'The School World'; 'The Indian Review'; 'Sendamil,' 'Vidya Viharini' and 'செழக்கூம்பழி.' It is satisfactory to note that boys spend their leisure time usefully in the Reading Room.

The athletic side includes badminton and football clubs divided into various groups comprising juniors and seniors. It is a happy sign that boys now take to athletics with greater zeal than formerly.

The income from subscription at the rate of 12 as. a term per pupil was Rs 69 in January and Rs. 85-8 in July making up a total of Rs. 159-3-5 including the opening balance of Rs. 4-11-5. The expenses of subscribing for journals mentioned above were Rs. 46-13-0. The expenses in connection with the athletic branch came up to Rs. 73-7-7, thus leaving a closing balance of Rs. 38-14-10. The subscriptions are collected in the form of special fees and the fund is controlled entirely by the Municipal Council.

CHINGLEPUT ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

Under the auspices of the Chingleput Elementary Teachers' Association, the Durbar Day was celebrated loyally on the 12th instant at the U.F.C.M. High School compound which was beautifully decorated with flags, festoons and bunting. At 7 A.M. sports were held amongst the elementary school pupils with F. W. Stewart, Esq., I.C.S., Acting Sub-Collector in the chair. At 3 P.M. a public meeting was held under the presidency of P. A. Booty, Esq., I.C.S., Ag. District and Sessions Judge at the same place and in the presence of all the gentry, managers, teachers and pupils of various schools, Their Imperial Majesties' picture decorated with flowers being placed prominently on a table. The girls of the Hindu Balika Patasala began the proceedings with their sweet prayer and loyal songs and kolattam. Mr. A. Govindarajulu Mudaliar, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, delivered a lecture on the greatness and importance of the Durbar Day when His Imperial Majesty laid the foundation for the permanency of the British rule in the heart of hearts of the Indians, united India and England in bonds of love and affection and showed to the world what a great affection he has for India which is one of the brightest jewels in the diadem of the mighty British Empire on whose shores the sun never sets. Mr. S. Srinivasa Sastry, the Supervisor of Elementary Schools, read a paper on the life of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor and Miss A. Govindarajulu Mudaliar, a pupil of the U.F.C.M. 'Town Girls' School, read a paper on the life of Her Majesty the Queen-Empress.

The President distributed the prizes and the pictures of Their Imperial Majesties to the winners, and delivered a short and interesting speech. D. A. Holday, Esq., Asst. Inspector of Schools Chingleput District, proposed a hearty vote of thanks to the President and three hearty cheers for Their Imperial Majesties. A grand long procession with a beautiful picture of Their Imperial Majesties started from the U. F. C. M. High School and ended at the Native High School, impressing on the public minds the importance and magnificence of the Durbar Day.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The Madras Teachers' Conference.—The following are the resolutions passed at the Madras Teachers' Conference which had five sittings under the auspices of the Madras Teachers' Guild. We hope to publish the various papers read during the Conference in the next issue:—

(1) That this Conference strongly urges on the Madras Government the desirability of giving effect to clauses (a) and (b) of the resolution relating to teaching grants to secondary schools adopted at the meeting of the Local Legislative Council on the 15th February 1912.

(2) That this Conference while recognising a broad distinction from the point of view of literary criticism between literary and popular styles in Telugu now named *Classical* and *Modern* styles, considers it impracticable to require schools to choose one only of these styles as though they were capable of precise definition and therefore this Conference prays that the School Leaving Certificate Board be requested to withdraw its circular relating to the subject as it is too premature.

(3) That this Conference notes with disappointment that no master of a complete secondary school under indigenous management is a member of the newly constituted School Leaving Certificate Board and prays that the above defect be remedied at the earliest opportunity.

(4) That this Conference regrets that the recommendation of the Board of School Leaving Certificate scheme with regard to the marking has been followed in some schools too closely and urges that all those concerned in working the scheme will follow the spirit of the recommendation and not the letter.

(5) That this Conference is strongly of opinion that a certain proportion of the higher inspecting staff should be recruited from among teachers of established reputation engaged on the staff of recognised institutions.

(6) That the Government be requested to make a provision for exemption in the School Final rules for the admission to the public examination of those who failed in the Matriculation examination up to the first year of the operation of the scheme and of those who had completed the Fifth or the Sixth form course in any year previous to that year on the production of two terms attendance certificate with the necessary entries made in the School Final Certificate.

(7) That the Government be requested for exemption in the School Final rules for admission of the pupils coming from schools in Native States into the classes for which they are shown fit for admission in their transfer certificates, if at the time of their taking the transfer certificates the School Final scheme was not introduced in those States.

(8) That the Government be requested to empower the Board to grant exemption to deserving candidates in cases where there is deficiency in the attendance required.

The Madras Christian College.—The annual distribution of prizes to the successful pupils of the Madras Christian College came off recently in the Anderson Hall. H. E. Lord Pentland presided and distributed the prizes. There was a large and distinguished gathering present, including Sir Arnold White, Sir Ralph Benson, Mr. Justice P. R. Sundara Iyer, the Hon'ble the Raja of Kurupam, the Hon'ble Surgeon-General W. B. Bannerman, Rev. Mr. J. Thompson, Dr., Mrs. and Miss Henderson, Mr. James Short, Mr. C. P. Ramasami Iyer, Mr. C. and Mrs. Morrison, Mrs. Macphail, Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatharthihara Iyer, Mr. C. Thanikachalam Chetty, Rao Sahib T. Ramakrishna Pillay, Mr. J. Krishna Rao and the Professors and Assistants of the College and High School in their academical robes, besides a large number of admirers of the institution, too numerous to mention.

The proceedings began with a prayer offered by Rev. Mr. J. Thompson.

Rev. G. Pittendrigh read the report of the institution.

His Excellency then distributed the prizes to the successful pupils and made an interesting speech. Sir Ralph Benson proposed a vote of thanks to the President for his kindness in presiding and distributing the prizes. The vote was carried amidst loud applause and the proceedings came to a close.

Un-official members of the S. S. L. C.—His Excellency the Governor-in-Council is pleased to appoint the following gentlemen to be un-official members of the Board for the award of the Secondary School Leaving Certificates:—The Rev. Henry Huizinga, Principal, Cole's Memorial High School, Kurnool; M.R.Ry. I. Srinivasa Aiyar, Principal, Hindu College, Tinnevely; M.R.Ry. K. Ganapati Aiyar, Kallikota College, Berhampur; the Rev. C. Pollard, Principal, Wesley College, Madras.

Official Members of the S. S. L. C.—Under paragraph III of the scheme for the award of Secondary School Leaving Certificates, His Excellency the Governor-in-Council is pleased to appoint the following four officers of Government to be members of the Board for the award of the certificates:—Mr. E. W. Middlemast, Acting Principal, Presidency College; Mr. R. G. Griove, Acting Deputy Director of Public Instruction; Mr. T. O. Hodges, Acting Inspector of Schools, VII Circle; Mr. C. Ransford, Acting Inspector of Schools, I Circle.

A Government Grant.—* * * The Government are pleased, as a special case, to condone the non-compliance by the management of the Hindu

High School, Ambasamudram, with the provisions of clause (1) of article 51 of the Grant-in-Aid Code, and to sanction a grant not exceeding Rs. 11,670 or one-third of the actual expenditure, whichever is less, towards the cost of construction of a building for the school subject to the following conditions:—(1) that in carrying out the work the suggestions of the Chief Engineer * * * are adopted; and (2) that all the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code have been duly complied with.

2. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

S. P. G. High School, Vepery.—The seventy-fourth annual distribution of prizes of the S. P. G. High School, Vepery, was held recently, at the Museum Theatre, the Hon'ble Mr. A. G. Cardew presiding. The proceedings opened with a hymn and this was followed by a prayer by the Rev. H. J. Edmonds. Recitations and a gymnastic display by the students followed and were received with loud applause by those present. The students also enacted a short play entitled "King Robert of Sicily," which was cordially received by all present. The Rev. H. J. Edmonds then read the report of the working of the school during the past year. After the reading of the report Mrs. A. G. Cardew distributed the prizes and the Chairman gave an interesting speech. A vote of thanks was then passed to Mrs. Cardew and the Chairman, and the gathering dispersed.

Muthialpet High School Literary Association.—Under the auspices of the Muthialpet High School Literary Association, a variety entertainment was recently given at the School Hall, by the members of the Association; Mr. A. C. Pranatharthihara Aiyar, Inspector of Schools, was in the chair.

The first item on the programme was the enactment of "The Lost Ring" (Shakuntala), in which every one played his part very well. This was followed by a comic dialogue, which elicited much laughter from the audience. The last item they put on the board was the enactment of "Mock Doctor." The first and the last items were in English. Much credit is due to Mr. Sundaravaradachari, a teacher of the school, for training the boys and for the successful termination of the proceedings of the evening.

Madras Economic Association.—Mr. M. R. Sundara Aiyar, B.A., B.L., Joint Honorary Secretary, writes:—At a meeting held at the residence of Sir Harold Stuart, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., I.C.S., attended by Sir John Wallace, Kt., Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., Rev. E. M. Macphail, M.A., Mr. H. Dodwell, M.A., Mr. S. Sreenivasa Aiyangar, B.A., B.L., and Mr. M. R. Sundaram Aiyar, it was resolved to form an Association to be called the Madras Economic Asso-

ciation. The Association will hold periodical meetings at which papers previously circulated will be read and discussed. They also hope to form in the course of time a statistical library relating to South India as a means of encouraging the development of economic study with special reference to South Indian conditions. His Excellency Lord Pentland has kindly consented to be the President of the Association. The following are the Vice-Presidents of the Association:—The Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Aiyer, C.S.I., C.I.E., Sir Harold Stuart, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., I.C.S., Sir Sankaran Nair. Further information can be obtained from the Honorary Secretaries, Messrs. S. Sreenivasa Aiyangar, B.A., B.L., and M. R. Sundaram Aiyar, B.A., B.L.

Mahajana High School, Erode.—The annual sports of the school were held in the spacious school grounds near the Railway premises on Saturday, the 14th December 1912. The grounds presented a gay appearance and the arrangements made for the various items of the sports-programme were very much appreciated by the spectators present.

The distribution of prizes to the students of the school took place in the school premises on Monday, the 16th December 1912, when M.R.Ry. P. S. Subramania Aiyer A.V.L., B.A., B.L., the local District Munsiff, took the chair and distributed the prizes to the successful pupils of the school. Special mention must, however, be made of special prizes for proficiency in religious instruction, such as Vedic, Koran and Thevaram which is a special characteristic of the school. The following gentlemen, Messrs. Kalyana Sundara Naickar and Ramaswami Naickar instituted silver medals—the former for good character and the latter for proficiency in sports.

Vikravandi Elementary School.—We are exceedingly glad to hear that at Vikravandi (S.I.R.), a village in the Villupuram Taluq, a grand distribution of prizes for general education and sports in the Board Elementary School, took place on the 23rd instant under the presidentship of the local Sub-Registrar, M.R.Ry. K. Soundararaja Aiyangar Avergall, B.A. This is the first instance of an occasion of this kind celebrated in a village of this stamp where apathy for realistic secular education is generally prevailing. It is worthy of note that some of the literate villagers who came voluntarily with a helping hand took a real interest in the affair.

BOMBAY.

Bombay Teachers' Association.—His Excellency Sir George Clarke, Governor of Bombay, was to have presided at a meeting held recently in Bombay under the auspices of the Bombay Teachers' Association for the purpose of hearing an address by the Bishop of Bombay on the personality of the teacher but was prevented from being present by a slight indisposition.

In his absence, the Hon'ble Mr. Claude Hill, Member for Education on the Bombay Council, presided and read the Governor's speech of which a summary appears in our "Education in the Magazines."

Prize-distribution to pupils.—At the prize-distribution to pupils of the Society for Promotion of Education among the Masses, the President, His Highness the Maharaja Sahab Holkar, delivered a very interesting speech in the course of which he said:—

"One can hardly, I think, escape drawing a parallel between the attitude we take up at home towards our own sons, daughters and relatives and that we adopt, or have so far usually adopted, towards our poorer brethren among the masses of the people. We should consider it criminal to abstain from educating the members of our own circle so as to equip them for success and the proper use of life. Yet when it comes to those whom fate has placed in walks of life inferior to our own we are apt to leave them to stagger along the road as best they may without stopping to hold them out a helping hand, or what is worse even denying them, at times, those chances of rising which as human beings and fellow-countrymen it is our duty to offer them."

Your Society has done and is doing noble work, and even if the general awakening to the educational needs of the masses throws your pioneer efforts into the shade I trust that your bold step into the breach and your share in awakening the public conscience will never be forgotten."

CALCUTTA.

Scottish Churches College.—The annual prize-distribution of the Scottish Churches College came off recently. His Excellency the Governor presided on the occasion and Lady Carmichael distributed the prizes. The ceremony was held in the open air on the eastern lawn which was prettily decorated. There was a large gathering of Indian and European educationists and leading men, besides the students of the College. There were present the Hon. Mr. P. C. Lyon, the Hon. Mr. J. G. Cuming, Sir Guru Das Banerjee, Raja Peary Mohun Mookerjee, Dr. P. K. Roy and Babu Heramba Chunder Mitra. His Excellency addressed the meeting in a lengthy interesting speech of which we give an extract on another page.

The Sanskrit College.—Lord Carmichael, Governor of Bengal, accompanied by Captain Roberts, Aide-de-Camp, visited the Calcutta Sanskrit College. Dr. Vidyabhushan conducted His Excellency to the pure Sanskrit department. There, seated on a carpet spread on the floor, he saw students taking lessons in the various schools of Sanskrit philosophy, literature, rhetoric, grammar, astrology and astronomy. As His Excellency approached the

classes, the Professors expressed their gratification in Sanskrit verse or prose on seeing His Excellency in person, though, as they said, "his reputation had already induced their veneration, love and loyalty." The Governor made courteous enquiries about each of the classes and the Professors. A Japanese young man, in English costume, among the students of philosophy, aroused His Excellency's curiosity, who asked the Principal about the student. Dr. Vidyabhusan informed him that though it was strictly the rule that no student unless he is a Hindu would be admitted to the College, permission was sought and granted by His Excellency to admit the student, who is a Japanese. He was an earnest student of philosophy and feeling a strong thirst for philosophical knowledge, he thought Japan was not able to help him much. So he came to India, the home of Sanskrit learning, and obtained admission.

His Excellency was much interested in the grammar class. The Principal introduced the Professor, who is a Sastri from Benares, explaining that the Professor devoted his whole life to the study and teaching of grammar. Lord Carmichael wished to know how grammar could be the life-study of a scholar. Dr. Vidyabhusan explained that it was Panini, which the Professor taught. It is the most elaborate and most perfect grammar in Sanskrit. It took a student 15 years to go through it once. It was the only grammar that opens an avenue to the study of the Vedas.

PUNJAB.

Secondary Education in the Punjab.—The following resolution is published in the *Punjab Gazette*:—The question of relieving District Boards and Municipal Committees of part of the expenditure now incurred by them on the maintenance of secondary schools has recently engaged the attention of the Punjab Government. The principle which Sir Louis Dane wishes to be followed in regard to the educational expenditure of District Boards is that such funds as these bodies are in a position to devote to educational objects should be mainly spent on the extension of primary education, and that the maintenance of English-teaching secondary schools should not be undertaken except in rare instances. Municipal Committees maintain a number of English-teaching secondary schools and it is not desired to fetter their discretion in this respect, but the Lieutenant-Governor considers, that these bodies should be enabled to make more systematic provision than has been possible hitherto for the extension of elementary education within their respective jurisdictions. With a view, therefore, to placing more funds at the disposal of local bodies for the improvement of primary education, and also introducing a more systematic apportionment of liability in the matter of aiding schools generally, the Lieutenant-Governor is pleased to direct that from the beginning of the financial year 1913-14 all grants for the secondary classes of

English-teaching schools shall be paid from provincial revenues until the finances of the local bodies concerned are such that they can meet the charges themselves, grants for primary schools and departments being defrayed by the Boards or Committees within whose jurisdictions the schools are situated. It is hoped that this arrangement, the continuance of which partly depended upon the amount of assistance received from the Government of India for educational objects, will be of material help to the progress of elementary education in Municipal as well as rural areas. The necessary alteration will be made in the Punjab Education Code.

ALLAHABAD.

The Central Hindu College Anniversary.—The fourteenth anniversary of the Central Hindu College was celebrated on the 11th and 12th instants. Mrs. Besant opened the proceedings in a short speech and Prof. Wodehouse gave an interesting speech on "The Human Side of Literature."

The second item on the programme was the sitting of the Central Hindu College Parliament, an institution started some six years ago by the Principal of the College, Mr. G. S. Arundale. For the last four years the meeting of the Parliament has been an important feature of the anniversary celebrations, and the discussions, speeches and interpellations all contributed to the intellectual amusement of the audience.

The second day's proceedings commenced at 8-30 in the morning. Pandit Ramlal Misra, Pandit Ramyatra Ojha and Pandit Padmanabh Shashtri, Professors of the Ranavira Sanskrit Pathshala, delivered lectures in Sanskrit and Hindi on various subjects.

The annual meeting came off at 3 in the afternoon. The occasion was graced by the presence of His Highness the Maharaja of Benares whose speech was read by the Kunwar Sahib. This was followed by a Sanskrit recitation. Mr. G. S. Arundale, the Principal, then addressed the audience in an eloquent speech.

After a Hindi and a Bengali recitation His Highness called upon Mrs. Besant, the President of the Board of Trustees and the Managing Committee of the College, to deliver her address. There was prolonged appreciation of Mrs. Besant's speech.

The distribution of a large number of prizes and medals to the students of the College, School and Pathshala department came next. Light refreshments were served to the guests in the College balcony and the celebrations came to a close.

Education of Women.—We are glad to learn that the Raja of Mahmudabad has made a grant of Rs. 600 a month for starting a school for Mahomedan girls at Lucknow. To the funds of this institution,

we understand, Mr. Syed Karamat Husain, who was till recently the Secretary of the Crosthwaite Girls' High School at Allahabad, is also going to contribute very substantially. Mr. Syed Karamat Husain has for the time being severed his connection with the Allahabad School and gone to Lucknow to organise and manage the new school there. We congratulate the Mahomedan community on these contributions.

MYSORE.

The Baldwin Girls' School.—The yearly prize-giving ceremony of the Baldwin Girls' School was remarkable for a notable speech on Anglo-Indian Education by Bishop J. E. Robinson, D.D., of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Southern Asia, who was in the chair. The function was largely attended. Those present included the Rev. J. B. and Mrs. Buttrick and the Rev. A. B. Coales. There was a school closing entertainment after the Principal's Report and the Chairman's Address, which was very enjoyable, consisting of glees, illustrated nursery rhymes, fairy tales and some rather smart skipping-drill.

St. Joseph's College.—The popularity of the annual prize-giving function of St. Joseph's College is usually marked by an enormous attendance of parents and friends, and in the past the college theatre has always been filled to overflowing. The ceremony was therefore held this year in the Volunteer theatre; but, even here, the overflow was remarkable, although the boys mainly occupied the great gallery. Mr. A. R. Cox presided and proceedings were initiated by the Rev. L. Froger, M.A., Principal of the College, who delivered a commendably succinct and satisfactory report. The Chairman then distributed the prizes and gave an interesting speech. Father Froger then called on the boys to give three cheers for Mr. Cox and the proceedings came to a close.

Foreign Notes.

GREAT BRITAIN

The late Prof. Sidney James Owen, M.A.—Professor Sidney James Owen, M.A., who at the time of his death was Reader in Indian History at Oxford University, has held that position since 1872, just forty years. Born in 1827 he was educated at Repton School, and from there went to Worcester College, Oxford, where he took his degree. He was Professor of History at the Elphinstone College, Bombay, from 1856 to 1860. Three years later he became Tutor in Law and Modern History at Magdalen College, Oxford, which position he held until 1880. In 1864 he became Examiner in the Law and History School, the Honour School of Modern History, and the Oriental School, Oxford, and Reader in Indian Law, Oxford. He became a Barrister of Lincoln's Inn in 1871. As would be expected from such a man he was engaged in the preparation of many works, among which were "Occasional Notes on Indian Subjects,"

which he had printed for private circulation in 1868. The following year saw the publication of two lectures delivered by him under the title of "The Mussalman, the Mahratta, and the European." In 1872 his work on "India on the Eve of the British Conquest" was published, and four years later "A Lecture on Anglo-Indian Rule Historically Considered." This was followed in 1877 by "A Selection from the Despatches, Treaties, and other Papers of the Marquess Wellesley, K.G., during his government of India." A publication on similar lines appeared three years later entitled "A Selection from the Despatches, and Memoranda relating to India of the Duke of Wellington."

Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, M.A.—Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of New College, Oxford, who is a Member of the Royal Commission on the Public Services in India, has been offered the appointment of Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University, vacant through the resignation of Sir Charles Eliot. Mr. Fisher was born in 1865, educated at Winchester and New College, and also at Paris and Göttingen. He has a high reputation as an historian, and is the author of "The Mediaeval Empire," "A Political History of England," "The Republican Tradition in Europe," and other works. He has been Chichele Lecturer in Foreign History at Oxford. He married the eldest daughter of Sir Courtenay Ilbert. Mr. Fisher was described by Dr. Franklin, Pro-Chancellor, as one of the most distinguished men at Oxford. He was a remarkable man with the highest possible attainments and the highest ideals, but with a practical side that would make him a first-rate Vice-Chancellor. Mr. Fisher, says an account in the *Times*, is one of the most distinguished of English students of history, and his work is remarkable both for its range and for its powers of exposition and of criticism. He is best known as an authority on the Napoleonic period, and he has added much to our knowledge of Napoleon's legislative achievements in Germany, but he first won distinction by a brilliant book on "The Mediaeval Empire." He has written a learned and illuminating history of the reigns of Henry VII and Henry VIII, and he has edited the posthumous works of his brother-in-law, Professor Maitland. For over 20 years he has been a strength to the Oxford School of Modern History, and his departure will be felt as a great loss to the History School and to the University generally, as well as to New College, of which he has been a member, as scholar and Fellow, for over a quarter of a century. His eminence has been recognized outside Oxford; in 1908 he delivered a series of lectures in South Africa, in 1909 he was Lowell Lecturer in America, and in 1907 he was elected a Fellow of the British Academy. He has also shown an interest in administration, as a Fellow of New College, as a Fellow of Winchester College, as a delegate of the Common University Fund, and as President of the Council of Somerville College.

The Educational Review.

We share in the universal indignation and detestation at the dastardly attempt made on the life of our Viceroy, and offer our respectful sympathy to Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Hardinge. We cannot help feeling ashamed that in this land of Aryavarta, the people of which are taught by their religion to look upon the King as the vicegerent of God himself, there should be any one harbouring a feeling of hostility against a representative of His Majesty, the Emperor, who has endeared himself to the people by his many gracious acts for the uplift of India. It is all the more painful to us that a murderous attempt should have been made upon the life of a Viceroy who has been instrumental from the very beginning of his administration in introducing so many liberal reforms and in encouraging with singular zeal the growth of education in the country. We therefore feel sure that the diabolical act which has happily failed in its object is the work of a crazy individual of the anarchist persuasion with which no class of people of India as a class, has any sympathy. We hope that the evil counsels of the enemies of the Indian people to set back the hand of the clock of Indian progress on account of the existence of one or a few individuals of this kind will never prevail. We may set down his or their murderous mania to the principles of anarchism imbibed in foreign lands or to any other cause, personal or otherwise, but certainly not to the educational policy pursued by Government in this country. There may still be a few discontented individuals among the educated in India, but their discontent is of

a healthy character and must find its remedy not in the withdrawal of any political privileges already granted or in the stoppage of the work of education, but in the granting of educational facilities for useful employment for all classes of people, and in the avoiding of every appearance of differential treatment of one class over another. We fully believe it is only the free spread of education and knowledge throughout the length and breadth of the land that will help to stamp out the feeling of disaffection that may still be lurking in a few evil hearts. Our Gracious Majesty the King said in January 1912, in reply to the Calcutta University address:—

* * * It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a net-work of schools and colleges from which will go forth loyal and manly and useful citizens able to hold their own in industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life and it is my wish too that the homes of my Indian subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge, with all that follows in its train, a higher level of thought, of comfort and of health. It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart. * * *

Every true and patriotic Indian will endeavour his best by the spread of good influence over the people to prevent any similar occurrence in the future.

We rejoice to hear our noble Viceroy is fast improving and we fervently pray for His Excellency's speedy and full recovery.

In conclusion we are encouraged by the past policy of H. E. Lord Hardinge in the hope that this personal injury to himself, independent, as we believe it is, of all political or other sane motive, will not diminish the faith which His Excellency has "in India, her future, and her people."

Mr. W. B. Hunter, presiding over a public meeting the other day in the Senate House remarked that we in Madras were more up-to-date in matters educational than the rest of India. This is so especially in the study of Phonetics. In Bombay, which in sundry aspects of educational activity is nearly as advanced as Madras, the seeking of the aid of Phonetics to smoothen the path of the learner of English in its earlier or later stages is, we believe, discouraged. In the Punjab alone of the other provinces, are modern methods of teaching to some extent adopted. It is therefore in the fitness of things that Mr. Daniel Jones, Lecturer in Phonetics, University College, London, should be invited to deliver lectures on Phonetics at Madras and Lahore. The Madras lectures consisted of a general course of ten lectures accompanied with a course of practical work and a special one of six lectures. The general lectures dealt with the speech-sounds of English, how they are made and how they ought not to be made, exercises for the organs of articulation, stress and intonation. The exposition and illustration of speech-sounds by Mr. Jones revealed the marvellous control he had acquired over the organs of speech and the skill with which he could pass from one sound to another of English or of any other language. Similarly in the practical class, one could readily note the ease with which his well-trained ear detected slightest deviations of pronunciation from the norm and the ingenuity which he displayed in devising methods of training the voice with a view to avoid such defects. The subjects of stress and intonation, however, were rushed through in "indecent haste"; stress, in South Indian languages is quite as wanting in vigour as is

the plosion of plosives and voicing of the voiced consonants and the speech of South Indian speakers of English is often rendered obscure by their half-hearted stressing of stressed syllables and words. Intonation, too, and the world of suggestion it carries in the expression of ideas by speech is a fascinating subject and we regret that Mr. Jones did not allow himself enough time to speak more fully of stress and intonation.

In one of our recent numbers we drew the attention of our readers to the value of the great help which Phonetics to the Indian students. Phonetics can render in the earlier stages of English teaching. We believe that the bulk of our teachers, of our Inspectors and of the heads of the Department of Public Instruction are sufficiently behind the times as not to appreciate the benefits of substituting the systematic teaching of sound-production for the haphazard method now in vogue. The lectures of Mr. Jones have, we are sure, brought home even to the cavillers and the never-will-move-from-old-grooves, of whom there were many among his audience, the value of voice-training not only in learning foreign tongues but in speaking one's own language. Mr. Jones has not the gift of oratory; he lectured quite like any other schoolmaster but did not orate from the rather high platform that he sat on; but every one in the lecture-room heard everything that he said, and this notwithstanding he was an absolute stranger to India. We all know how difficult it is to follow an Englishman when he speaks, even though he has been in this country for years. The ease with which his audience could follow Mr. Jones proves that the training in voice-production is very valuable in learning to speak clearly one's own language. Much more so should

it be in trying to acquire a foreign tongue. We invite our teachers of English to boldly experiment on the lines teachers of foreign languages have been doing in Europe and America for the last quarter of a century and more. We need not dilate on this aspect of the question as it formed the subject of one of the lectures delivered by Mr. Jones. The use of Phonetics to the students of the history of the English language was the subject of the special course of lectures, which, we suppose, were chiefly intended to supplement the instruction which our Honours students of English receive in our colleges. All the same the readings from Chaucer and Shakespeare which Mr. Jones gave were much appreciated by the assembled English masters. But few, we believe, realized that the history of the vernaculars could also be investigated with the aid of Phonetics if we could emancipate ourselves from the blinding veil of convention imposed on them by pandits who would have us believe that the vernaculars were fixed for all time in the past and are therefore dead languages without ever undergoing the change that is life.

But behind the ashes of convention in which our vernaculars as they are written are buried, lives the glowing fire of life. The language that we speak, which alone is language, the other one that we are compelled to use when we write being but the ghost of a dead tongue haunting us and deserving of being exorcised as soon as possible, the language that lives about our lips is changing under the influence of phonetic laws that can be discovered. Thus to take up the question of sandhi or *liaison* between words, the laws of which are sup-

posed to be as unchangeable as the laws of the Medes and Persians. When *kaṭṭi* is followed by *irwkkiradw* (*w* being used as a sign of the unstressed *u* of Tamil, called குற்றியலகரம் in Tamil Grammars), pandits would have us write and read *kaṭṭiyirwkkiradw*, whereas the modern form which we all say is *kaṭṭirwkkiradw*; so in the corresponding modern Telugu *kaṭṭinadi*, the *i* after *ṭ* as well the vowel before receives a special modification, suggestive of the fact that the *u* of the second part of the compound has disappeared in the pronunciation after having slightly modified the *i*. A trained ear detects the phonetic change which comes naturally to the untrained voice of the man when he speaks his vernacular. Here is one instance of the innumerable changes of the so-called unchangeable laws of Euphonic change that occurs when word is linked with word in the vernaculars. This opens up a vast vista of investigation, at the other of which glimmers the hypothetic proto-Dravidian tongue from which the modern languages of Southern India are derived. But the absurd convention that the living tongue should not be written, and the written representation should always be enveloped with the ashes of a dead past bars this vista from the vision of would-be students of the vernaculars. In this connection we should draw the attention of the English masters that heard Mr. Jones that he spoke spoken English; if any of his audience had been in his place, would they have dared to speak spoken Tamil or spoken Telugu? After all each man's language is his own individual property. Mr. Jones always appealed to his way of speaking, his idiom, his pronunciation, for what each man naturally speaks is correct for him. This we must all learn to realize and besides to have more trust

in ourselves. Man is the measure of the universe in linguistic as in philosophical matters. But it seems to be a very difficult problem to make educated people understand that all written dialects are dead languages, dead beyond chance of revivification. Apparently even in England, the "intelligent outsider" finds it as hard to assimilate this truth as people in India. Says the late Dr. Skeat in his recently published book, *The Science of Etymology*: "It is hardly too much to say that more has been discovered about the laws of etymology during the last fifty years than during the thousands that preceded them; and this has been done mainly by the application of a new principle, viz., that of strict attention to the exact pronunciation of languages as spoken, a matter which had previously been condemned as needless, or else left wholly unconsidered. It has come upon modern scholars with the force of a great and real discovery (the italics are ours)—for practically it is little less—that after all the only true living languages are the spoken ones."

"Free composition" as opposed to "set composition" has come to the front in England. The new Regulations for the London Matriculation examination as well as for the London Senior School examination provide that the paper in French should contain (1) passages for translation from French; (2) a fairly easy and a more difficult passage for translation into, and a fairly easy and a more difficult subject for free composition, in French. Candidates are allowed the option of doing either the more easy translation and the more difficult free composition, or the more difficult translation and the more easy

free composition. But the most remarkable thing noticed is this, that the grammar section has entirely disappeared from the examination, 'leaving not a wrack behind.' We draw the attention of our high school teachers to this, because there is still a hankering, especially among the more elderly among our teachers, for the days of grammar, of explanatory notes, and other unholy dissection of lovely pieces of poetry. The same pill, but gilded with the mask of higher teaching, æsthetic teaching and other phrases of more "fury" than sense, seems to furnish matter for other grumblers. How fatally easy is it to deceive oneself with mouth-filling phrases, shining bladders full of saw dust.

Under the auspices of the Teachers' Guild a number of meetings of schoolmasters was held during the month. It is a pity the meetings were poorly attended; but all the same it is encouraging that teachers have begun to speak out on what they conceive to be defects in the management of matters educational. In the days of the old Matriculation examination, the yearly Christmas 'Massacre of the Innocents' was accepted with scarcely a groan, but schoolmasters have begun to give articulate expression to their wants. We hail this as the first fruits of the S. S. L. C. scheme, which first taught that the schoolmaster was not to be an eternally suspect individual, but was one who could form judgments about the result of his teaching efforts, judgments that were entitled to be heard and perhaps accepted. It only remains for schoolmasters to organize themselves into a body, to train themselves to see things in proper proportion and, guided by leaders of sane views, to influence the course of educational growth in this country,

But to be able to reach this desirable consummation, they must follow high educational ideals. The average Indian schoolmaster likes to be eternally in leading strings. He requires syllabuses to be drawn up for him, text-books to be prescribed for him, mode of questioning and marking adopted at examination indicated to him, and all sorts of "hints and suggestions" given to him. He will not think for himself, he will not experiment for himself, he will not, as in other countries, discover new methods and force them on the notice of the authorities and compel them to recognize his supreme competence to do his work as well as he can. On the contrary, he collapses before parents, if they object to his experiments in teaching; nay, he collapses before his pupils, for if they use cram books and flaunt them in his face, he cannot put his foot on it but tells the world that facts should be recognized and that he has no control over his pupils.

Some of the resolutions of the conference are sure to rouse criticism.

The resolutions of the conference. With regard to the second resolution, our Telugu

friends may justly ask, "what has a meeting containing more than 90 per cent. of Tamil men to do with a question that has been agitating the Telugu world for some time." The Teachers' Guild might as well pass a resolution that High Dutch and not Taal should be spoken in South African schools and Kuran Arabic and not modern Arabic should be used in Egyptian schools, that Sanskrit and not Hindi should be the language of composition in North Indian schools! The wording of the resolution, much altered during its discussion, is very unsatisfactory. It admits that literary Telugu is different from popular Telugu and requires that school boys should be allowed to

mix up the two styles and write a bastard jargon. In one and the same sentence the nouns may be declined in accordance with the literary dialect and the verbs in accordance with the popular dialect. The sandhi of the first half of a sentence may be the sandhi of the grammar text-books, i.e., the sandhi of a thousand years ago and the latter half that of modern speech. As a matter of fact, this is *exactly* the kind of horrid language which pupils write, a hotch-potch of old and new; this is a state of affairs that requires immediate attention as every examiner of Telugu, whatever side he takes in this controversy, has recognized and a body of about thirty Tamil teachers now decide that no one should attempt to try to change this most unsatisfactory state of affairs. With most other resolutions of the conference we are in perfect sympathy, especially the one in which it demands that one at least of the members of the S. S. L. C. Board should be the Headmaster of what used to be called a Hindu High School, but is now denominated a complete secondary school under indigenous management.

Madame Montessori is the modern successor of Plato, Locke, Pestalozzi and others of the long line of educational prophets.

The Montessori Method.

The "Montessori method" will have the same history that other methods have had, a period of ridicule, one of extraordinary adulation, the crystallization of the underlying principle in the hands of the systematizers of the Normal schools and consequent death, till a new prophet arises on the educational horizon and restates in a higher, revived form. The fundamental idea of the Montessori method is the truth that the study of child psychology

has so well brought out, that no child is a born fool, that many, nay, most children are turned into fools by the schoolmaster who tries to confine the mental life of the child in an *inelastic* system of teaching applicable perhaps to one per cent. of the children committed to his charge. The Montessori method asserts the right of each child to live and grow in suitable surroundings. Now children, like plants, like languages, like everything else living, require freedom that they may grow. Repression, constant repression by a cast-iron method of education, like physical restraints on plants, like conventional restraints on languages, hamper growth. Children become troublesome, naughty, obstinate when suitable materials and opportunities are not provided for their natural activities. The teacher can do so only if he observes the natural tendencies of each child; this cannot be done in a "well-disciplined" school; "one might as well ask an entomologist to study the habits of a case of pinned butterflies as ask an observer to study the habits of children seated at desks and under 'discipline.'" Children are not little imps possessing a bundle of bad impulses to be caned out of them or starved out by mechanically drilling them into habits of blind obedience to the master's authority. The preaching of this gospel of freedom and its practice in this country will be possible only if our schoolmasters possess a greater sense of self-respect and self-confidence than, we fear, they have. Dread of the Inspector, on the one hand, born of consciousness of ignorance of up-to-date methods or aversion to change, dread of parents caused by the biting poverty of the average schoolmaster has half killed his soul. He is unwilling to follow new ideas, to strike out new paths for himself. Will this dead-lock be ever lifted?

The schoolmaster in modern India is not the successor of the Gurni of mediæval India, revered and almost worshipped as a demi-god, but of the pial schoolmaster who was paid one bundle of firewood and one measure of gingelly per month. The salary of the average schoolmaster to-day is about equal to that of a cook all told and the Government have not yet been able to see their way to supplement it by pension or provident fund. The best intellects are attracted to more paying professions and thus the educational profession is without power or prestige. The educationist, too, is absolutely without *esprit de corps*. He will not combine like the National Union of Teachers in England which possesses a power of pressure quite understood by ministers, but effaces himself before his pushful brethren—Vakils, merchants and the like. The public calls him school-vādyār (upādhyāya), and regards him as being a variety of the species of animal to which belongs the other kind of vādyār, he who helps us to perform śrāddham and earns half-a-rupee. All this is because he will not combine, he will not hang together, he will not respect himself. The Vakils' Association, the Chamber of Commerce and other such bodies wield immense power, because other professions have learnt the value of combination and self-assertion; the schoolmaster, alone, is like dumb-driven cattle, the Teachers' Guild, of all professional societies, the most powerful. This will continue to be so, unless the secondary school teachers cultivate independence, combine into a powerful union and learn, in the words of Dr. Fry, Dean of Lincoln, "to put the screw upon people who, it was consoling to know, were quite accustomed to have the screw put on." Then alone will school-

masters be really respected, schemes for the organization of provident funds ever go beyond the stage of pious wishes.

We are glad to announce that Mr. T. V.

The representation of the University in the Legislative Council.

Seshagiri Aiyer, B.A., B.L., has been re-elected by the Fellows of the University as the University repre-

sentative in the Legislative Council. The re-election is a sufficient proof of the good work he has done during his first term. We have no doubt he will do more work during his second term. But all the same, we maintain on principle that an educationist alone is a proper representation of the University in the Legislative Council.

Just Ready.

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