

develop a certain dexterity of manipulation and to insist on each pupil taking care of the apparatus entrusted to him. Each group of pupils working at a particular experiment may reasonably be expected to return the apparatus in good condition and to keep their table and cup-board neat and tidy. By way of discouraging slovenly work the teacher may also insist on a level below which no pupil can fall with impunity. This neatness and cleanliness and skill in the handling of apparatus is particularly educative as it ensures a good result, so essential to the success of all scientific study. Anything beyond that degenerates into bottle-washing, soulless and insipid, and defeats the main aim of the work to make laboratory instruction a continuous and inspiring study of physical phenomena removed as far as possible from mere drill in physical manipulation.

In the absence of a trained Laboratory attendant, school teachers of Physics have been making excellent use of pupil assistants. Such a procedure although highly beneficial to the pupils themselves is quite inadequate for the fulfilment of the work to be done. There is no gainsaying the fact that the most judiciously framed time-table cannot make provision for all the purely manual part of the work of the Laboratory being done by the pupils themselves without detriment to their legitimate work. It would be reasonable to expect pupils to prepare their own solutions and to fit up their own apparatus. Keen senior pupils specialising in Science may be encouraged to set up and to adjust the apparatus got ready for demonstration at the lecture table by the Laboratory assistant. The preparation under expert guidance in fitting up apparatus for lecture-table experiments

which by reason of their expense, risk, or difficulty, cannot ordinarily be performed by boys, is very valuable to the boy demonstrators, although it taxes the patience of the teacher himself and consumes more of his time and energy than if he did the work himself. This lecture-table assistance is, it is, that can be dispensed with by the Science master.

Having thus briefly defined the role of the pupil in the physical laboratory, I shall proceed to give a brief statement of the duties of the Laboratory assistant. His primary duty is to be in charge of the apparatus and fittings, to set up diagrams; to set out, put away, and clean apparatus. He may reasonably be expected to prepare periodically an inventory of the apparatus—one copy for the master and one for his own use. He should maintain a "breakage book" and should enter therein all breakages and waste of chemicals to be scrutinized and countersigned by the teacher once a fortnight. He should be thoroughly conversant with the arrangement of apparatus in the Laboratory and should, from a reference to a card showing the course and the corresponding apparatus, be able to supply the right things to the pupils, and draw their attention, if need be, to minute details of manipulation. He will put ready the apparatus for new lecture-table experiments, and arrange the older well-worn ones. The preparation of stock standard solutions, and the testing of apparatus is no insignificant part of his work requiring little or no previous knowledge of the subject.

The Laboratory attendant shall also take a survey of the apparatus specially of that reserved to meet accidents. He may be allowed to look weeks and months ahead and give early notice of "refills" required for the follow-

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The practical teacher need not be told that the hardest part of his work is to get pupils of whatever age to describe any apparatus or operation faithfully and concisely. He should never expect perfection from pupils, but must be sparing in his demands, having in view the many circumstances that control the work—age, experience, and average ability of the class as a whole. In the earliest stages the chief problems on measurement of length, area, volume, density, and pressure should be cautiously introduced in narrative form, and it is only when the foundations have been well and truly laid, and the pupils have grown to the system adopted, should anything like completeness be expected. Unreasonable demands on the growing powers of the child will lead him to subordinate the notes to the spirit of experimental enquiry or to treat the experiment as an end in itself and not as a means to an end.

It must be recognised that there are two stages in the note-making exercise:— The Observation stage and the Essay stage, each of which requires separate notice. In each of these stages neatness and accuracy of expression should be imperatively demanded: At the same time the tendency to labour the record at the expense of more useful effort should be discouraged by keeping the practical work alive, and by getting the pupils to work at it with a motive. Outline drawings should be encouraged whenever the idea could be more quickly and clearly expressed in a drawing than in words. The records should be made in ink to discourage slovenly work. The real study of Physics should not be sacrificed to the study

of note-book form as the slavish conformity to any rigid mechanical form of arrangement—requirements, conditions, observations and conclusions—stifles the development of individuality. The notes should be more or less a brief running record of the pupil's laboratory performances, of what is seen felt or believed—"a plain tale to people who are not present when the record is made, or who, through lapse of time, have forgotten much of what the record sets forth." A useful spirit of detail and exactness should be fostered in the pupils by telling them that the book is to be got up in such a form as to be helpful to them in after life if they have to take a class through the work or that the book is intended for publication as a text-book or history.

THE WORKING NOTE-BOOK.

This note-book is intended for notes written at the time of the experiment. It should be a blank book of the separable leaf type of good paper about 8 or 9×7 or $6\frac{1}{2}$. This note-book should be taken to the Laboratory by the student and in it he should record the object of the work, observations, measurements in neat tabular form, devoting in general two pages to each problem,—one being exclusively devoted to sketches of the apparatus used and any points of special interest likely to be helpful in writing up the problem. These notes should be written up in ink, dated and submitted to the teacher for approval before a new problem is attempted. The record is made on “data” slips $3\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ in., provided for the purpose where the note-book is not of the separable leaf type or where the even folios of the permanent note-book are used for scratch book purposes, i.e., contain preliminary observations and computations. Sample records—working note-book stage.

THE CHEMICAL HYGROMETER.

Three U Tubes were taken :

Original weight of U tubes...	56.417 gr.
	67.181 gr.
	37.002 gr.

Increase in weight of U tubes...	.081 gr.
	.01 gr.

01 gr.
003 gr.

Total... .094 gr.

Weight of water displaced—4.470 litres.

Weight of moisture absorbed per 1000 litres
—94000/4470-21 gr.

Temperature 30° C.

Mass of aqueous vapour that ought to be present 30.04 gr.

Relative humidity—21/30.04 or, 69.8%.

DANIELL'S HYGROMETER.

Dew Point 24° C.—corresponding pressure
22.15 m.m.

Temperature of air 30°C.—Saturation pressure 31.51 m.m.

Relative humidity—22.15/31.51, or 79.1%.

WET AND DRY BULB THERMOMETER.

Wet bulb... 79 F—26 C.

Dry bulb... 86 F—30 C.

Difference $4^{\circ}\text{C}.$

From the tables Relative humidity—
22.5/31.6 or: 70.1%.

CO-EFFICIENT OF EXPANSION OF WATER.

Weight of Specific Gravity bottle... 6.7 gr.
do do " " " " " " " " 16.587 gr.

Do.	do.	with water	...	16.587 gr.
				0.887 gr.

Weight of water	...	...	9.887 gr.
			90°C.

Temperature of hot water ... 90°C.
27.4°C.

Do.	cold do.	...	27.4C.
			62.6C

Range of temperature ... 62.60.

Range of temp	...	...	272 gr
Increase in weight	...	...	$272/32.6 \times 0.515$

Co-efficient of expansion— $272/62.6 \times 9.515$
or .00045

All measurements recorded should be precisely in the terms given by the scale or scales of instruments and subsequently reduced to the form of denomination required. Unless the readings of the original instruments be in Vulgar Fractions the records should be in the Decimal Notation. All peculiarities of the apparatus tending to introduce errors into the work and the steps taken to eliminate such errors should invariably be noted.

THE PERMANENT NOTE-BOOK.

If, as is ordinarily recommended, the orderly part of the note-book work is to be done in the Laboratory, the observations would be hurried and unsatisfactory unless the time allowed for the work is exceptionally long or the pupil derives effective help either from the teacher or some one else. It is therefore desirable that the Laboratory be not devoted to writing discussions of experiments, nor to making computations except in so far as such calculations are needed for immediate use, but given solely to observational work and the collection of data necessary for the final report. This final report should be based on the data-slip prepared during the practical work and should present a detailed account of the whole work in historical order. One feature of the record is the statement in clear and concise form of the motive or motives that led to the experiment thus linking past work with the present and in a way compelling revision of past work. Then the object of the experiment described should be given a prominent place. Description of the apparatus used, method adopted, and sketches made of the apparatus as set up for action. In the case of senior pupils references to text-books studied incidentally as the result of their own labora-

that the masters may not all of them be compared to the equal or nearly equal players of an athletic team. I say again therefore that the relation between the Headmaster of a school and his Assistants is of a peculiar nature, and requires delicate and careful handling. The second point to be remembered is this. Ordinarily, the actions of a man affect him only, and if they affect other people at all, it is only indirectly and in a secondary way. The reverse, however, is the case in schools. The party chiefly and directly affected by the actions of the Headmaster or his staff is the student population. It is possible for the Headmaster and his Assistants not to act wisely or well, and yet not render themselves liable to censure or warning from the managers of their school. All the same, there is no doubt that during the time little misunderstandings exist between the Headmaster and the staff, the discipline of the school may gradually fall to pieces, and to that extent the pupils entrusted to their care may suffer. In the meanwhile, the masters of the school, both the Headmaster and his Assistants, may go on drawing their salaries and increments without any trouble whatever.

The delicacy and exceptional nature of the relation between the Headmaster and his Assistants that I have just referred to has, of late, been accentuated by the conditions obtaining in Secondary schools of the present day. Specialisation in studies having been introduced into schools, and the special subjects taught demanding special preparation on the part of those teaching them, the senior masters of the school have a tendency to regard themselves as self-sufficient, and in many cases find it difficult cheerfully to receive suggestions and act up to them. Time was when any teacher, provided he was a graduate, was thought equal to the teaching of any subject to the High School Forms. That state of things has now altered considerably, and with that must come also a re-adjustment of the relation between the Headmaster and the staff.

Another factor which has to do with the relation between the Headmaster and his Assistants is the nature of the school itself. We have now amongst us in this Presidency five classes of schools—*viz.*, Government, Board or Municipal schools and schools under the management of Mission bodies or indigenuous committees or single Managers. The number of Government schools being very small, only five or six, I do not propose to speak of them at all here. Next we come to Board and Municipal schools. Here the position of the Headmaster is in all conscience very difficult and trying. In the first place, the Headmaster has two masters to serve—the Inspector and the President of the Local or Municipal Board, and so both the Headmaster and his Assistants have here great need indeed 'to bear and forbear.' The Headmaster has little or no 'power' over his Assistants in the sense in which 'power' is ordinarily understood; and all concerned know it. If, at any time, any difference arises between the Headmaster and his staff and the matter goes up to the higher authorities, woe to the discipline of the school from that moment! Being only human, their differences get accentuated day after day, little acts done inadvertently or without any motive are invested with a significance much graver than their magnitude would warrant, reports and counter-reports follow, and before the matter is finally disposed of by the authorities concerned, which may take many months sometimes, school discipline is wrecked, and boys suffer.

I may here refer in particular to a class of Board schools known as Board Incomplete Secondary schools, teaching up to the Third Form. In a large number of cases, the Headmaster happens to be only a Matriculate or an F. A., and fails to command the amount of consideration that is his due. Frequent misunderstandings between him and the Assistants are common, and they even go the length of taking down written statements from their boys to adduce as evidence against one another. Owing

to the low standard of salaries obtaining in these schools, often many vacancies remain unfilled for months together, and add to the trouble and inconvenience of the staff. The authorities are too far away and too dilatory in their procedure to set matters right as soon as desirable. The town where the school is situated being very small, public opinion cannot assert itself strongly enough to act as a check on the vagaries of the masters. I know, and have heard of the work of a number of these Incomplete schools and regret I cannot give as satisfactory an account of them as one might wish.

In schools under the management of Mission bodies where there is often a resident Missionary as Manager, the Headmaster is invested with little or no responsibility. He has merely to receive suggestions from the Manager and see that they are carried out. In some of these schools it happens that the Headmaster is a Hindu. He has under him a number of Christian Assistants who may sometimes be inclined to take undue advantage of their being of the same religion as their Manager and make it difficult for the Headmaster to get on. Where, however, the Missionary gentleman himself is Headmaster or Principal, work goes on quite well indeed. Rules and regulations, however stringent or hard, are readily obeyed, differences of opinion are seldom or never expressed, any extra work, however heavy, is cheerfully borne and all this—because at any moment the masters may be asked to quit! I may here cite an instance of the impatience of a Missionary Principal to receive even reasonable suggestions from his Assistants. The European Principal of a Second-grade College held a meeting of the masters one afternoon and was speaking to them about awarding marks for class-work. There were three sections in the Fifth Form, and the grouping of boys in it was this. The best among them formed the A section, the next best the B, and the worst, the C section. Now the Principal propounded a

dictum that the master of each section should so frame his questions that the best boy therein might get 70 p. c. of the maximum. On this one of the masters concerned had the temerity to stand up and suggest that that was obviously impossible since the capacities of boys varied with each section, and that if the Principal's instructions should be carried out, the standard of questions set to the boys should vary with each section, and that, if at the end of the term, the marks obtained by all the pupils of the Form should be tabulated, the statement would not show the relative merits of the boys. I do not know if the European gentleman bestowed any thought on this aspect of the case. All that he did was immediately to say to the teacher, "Look here, Mr.—, you are here not to ask questions, but to listen and to obey." The poor teacher was confounded, and in two or three months' time left the school, having had the good fortune to secure a better job elsewhere.

Things, however, are quite different in schools under the management of indigenuous Committees. In a few of them the Headmaster has the good fortune to secure the good-will of the members of the Managing Board, and school-work goes on fairly smoothly, and without any detriment. In a large number of these schools, however, it is unhappily the case that the relation between the Headmaster and the management is not as it should be, and I believe the blame may not all be thrown on the Headmaster. It must also be confessed, and I regret to have to say it, that some Assistant Masters take advantage of this circumstance not only not to do their work well at school, but also to accentuate the ill-feeling between the Headmaster and the Managers. These gentlemen are, barring honourable exceptions, only too ready and willing to listen to all sorts of things told against the Headmaster or the Assistants. A stray remark let fall here, a casual statement made there, an observation perfectly innocuous in itself but cleverly handled

so that it might yield a meaning not at all intended by the speaker himself—all these are pressed into service and made to contribute their mite to the slow but sure work of bringing down a name or wrecking a popularity. Imagine a member of the Managing Committee in charge of one of the largest institutions in the Presidency bringing a proposition before his colleagues that the staff of the school should be notified that thenceforward every master, be he the Headmaster or the Assistant Master, should salute any member of the Managing Committee he might happen to meet with anywhere. The immediate cause of this gentleman's pressing such a proposition on the notice of the Committee was that one evening when he, most precious soul, was perambulating the streets of the town, an Assistant Master of the school met him, but passed him by without saluting him 'with bated breath and whispering humbleness'. With such Managers on one side, and with a number of Assistants on the other side who may not be quite willing to appreciate his difficulties and limitations, the Headmaster has not quite an easy time of it.

As regards single-Manager schools, they are either very good, or very bad, according as the Manager is good or bad himself. In those that are good, the masters get on nicely together, difficulties scarcely arise or are easily got over, and service is quite a pleasure indeed! As regards schools of the contrary type, the less said, the better.

Having thus in a manner defined the position of the Headmaster and the Assistants in these classes of schools, I proceed to enumerate the different activities of the school and state how and in what manner the Headmaster should adjust his relations with his Assistants.

First in order of importance come the timetable and the daily routine of work. I believe no Headmaster in these days is so old-fashioned as not to call a meeting of the masters before

he apportions work among them; and the task of apportioning too is not very difficult generally, since special subjects are being taught by specially qualified men. But there are one or two little troubles that are likely to crop up in this connection. Subjects like Vernacular Translation or Composition and those included in Group B of the School Leaving Certificate Scheme are not very much in favour with masters, and when, as often happens, specially qualified men are not available to teach these subjects, I venture to submit that such of the other masters as are called upon to teach them should realize the limitations of the school as regards its staffing, and readily and cheerfully undertake the work. After all, those subjects also should be taught to boys, and taught well too, and it is certainly undesirable that a teacher should begin to teach a subject reluctantly.

In the daily routine of work at school, the Headmaster and the Assistant Master are necessarily thrown together intimately, and the call made upon the patience and forbearance of both parties is indeed very great. Masters should all recognise that they are but human and liable to occasional failings of temper, and learn not to develop what we are only too apt to develop under the circumstances, that which we may term 'obliquity of judgment.' Once that you have distinctly made up your mind that another master is not well disposed towards you, from that moment you bid good-bye to peace and good-will. Perfectly straight and simple remarks are invested with a significance never intended by the speaker, *bona-fide* action or behaviour is distorted into hideous form by the glass of prejudice, and 'trifles light as straw' become transformed into fresh evidences of spite and ill-will. As days pass by, newer and fresher misunderstandings arise, for when you are determined to misunderstand, you have not long to wait for cause, and the relations get more and more strained, till at last you drive

the management to intervene and do something not quite pleasant or gratifying to your sense of your own importance. If I may venture a suggestion, I wish to say this to the Assistant Master: "Readily and scrupulously conform to the established rules and usages of the school. Here as elsewhere freedom consists in obeying law. If the Headmaster desires that a particular statement should be handed in to him before an appointed day, be sure to comply with the requisition in time. Do not put him to the necessity of constantly reminding you. You can imagine no surer means of vexing him and getting vexed yourself. If, for some special reasons, you find it difficult to get the work done before the prescribed time, go to your Headmaster and tell him, even before he reminds you, of your inconvenience, and I dare say all will be right. Resolutely set your face against grievance-mongering, and avoid, as far as possible, comparing notes with your brother-Assistants as regards one another's grievances, and indicting the Headmaster under a huge array of counts. It will conduce neither to your own peace of mind, nor to the happiness of the Headmaster, nor yet to the welfare of the school." At the same time, I would say to the Headmaster: "By virtue of your responsible office as Headmaster, you should be prepared for constant and insistent demands upon your patience. Learn by the perpetual sunshine of your presence to dispel the mist of prejudice. Do not be too ready to accuse or to condemn. If you have reasons to think that all is not well with a particular teacher, wait. Let go the first, the second, and the third opportunity. If even after this you find the undesirable course persisted in, speak to him—not in anger, nor in spite, nor as if your personal dignity has been wounded, but dispassionately and taking your stand on the higher considerations of discipline in school and welfare of boys. It may be that you meet with resentment first; but correct

understanding and loyal co-operation will not be long in coming."

I may here advert to a small matter of not much significance, no doubt, but often fruitful of not a little misunderstanding between the Headmaster and his Assistants—I mean the arrangement for the carrying on of the work of the absent masters. It is a matter of every day occurrence in a school that one or other of the masters goes on leave. If it is the case that this teacher is in entire charge of a section of a Form, the difficulty is solved by putting it with another section of the same Form. Where, however, this happens to be the only section or the absent teacher has to teach more than one Form or Class in the day, it becomes necessary for other Assistant Masters to sacrifice a portion of their leisure at school. Nothing is gained by being annoyed or getting vexed. The work of the absent master must be done in justice to the boys concerned, but if the teacher is not prepared to teach the particular subject fixed for the hour, he may give the boys a humorous or serious reading in English, or talk to them about some interesting event such as the present war, or ask the boys themselves to recite some passage of prose or poetry or relate a story. A number of ways of this kind will suggest themselves to the earnest teacher, whereby he may make the class not only interesting to the boys, but also a means of relaxation and amusement to himself. I may add that on these days the Headmaster too should cheerfully undertake a portion of the additional work, and not merely look on, while the Assistants are sweated.

In the matter of school regulations and rules of discipline a special responsibility devolves on the senior Assistants of the school. If all the members of an organization knew what is expected of them and did it unfailingly and in time, no need will arise at all for the making of rules. Experience, however, tells us that as a measure of practical expediency, the enforcement of certain rules of discipline is essential. All the same, masters

may so conduct themselves as to make it appear that their acts are the outcome, not so much of their anxiety to conform to rules as of their own sense of propriety in such matters. If only the senior masters of the school act with a view to this, if they are at their post of duty as soon as the bell rings, if they do not waste their time in the class, if they come previously prepared with the lessons they have to teach, if during their hour of leisure they do not go to a brother-master engaged in teaching and speak to him, if while going from one class to another they do not unnecessarily talk to one another and keep their classes waiting—if they would only see to these, the Headmaster's work would be considerably lightened, the task of administration would be a pleasure and he would be enabled to take upon himself more teaching work and thus give the Assistants more relief too. Public opinion among the Assistant Masters in favour of what is good and conducive to the best interests of the school will effect more than any number of disciplinary regulations. If, on the other hand, there is even one refractory member on the whole staff, and if it should unfortunately happen that he is among the senior Assistants, the work of the school may be wrecked, the Headmaster thwarted at every step, and all his actions rendered nugatory. At the same time let the Headmaster keep in mind the old adage: "An ounce of practice is better than a ton of theory." Let him take care that he obeys the school-rules himself, let him freely exchange views with his Assistants, take them into his confidence, explain to them his own difficulties and limitations, for after all he has not a free hand in matters of administration and we know what many Managers are like, and see to it that he does not consciously or deliberately do anything likely to impress others as the outcome of a sour temper or vexed spirit. So doing, so acting, he will make impossible much of the acerbity and bitterness of feeling that often mars cordial relations between the Headmaster and other masters. One other

suggestion also I may make, and it is this: Where in a minor matter of detail two courses of action are possible, and the Headmaster holds to one of them and the Assistant to the other, the voice of the former should, in my opinion, prevail in the end. Also in matters of mere personal opinion, such as the retention or removal of a particular question in a question paper set for examination, the Headmaster should be allowed full discretion.

Shall Assistant Masters have anything to do with Managers on school matters independently of their Headmasters? I am inclined to answer this question with an emphatic 'no,' and I say so in the best interests of the Assistant Masters themselves. Constituted as most Managing Committees are at present, and knowing, as we do, what regard they have for the teaching profession as such, it is to my mind most essential that there is a strong unanimity of feeling and solidarity of opinion among the masters of the school including the Headmaster. In view to this, I should suggest that they sink minor differences among themselves. As I have already said Headmasters will do well at the meetings of the masters and in their talks with individual masters to discuss with them school matters before they make up their minds about the recommendations to be presented for consideration by the Managing Committee. In the matter of increments to masters, the Headmaster should always be liberal and generous and plead earnestly on their behalf, and except in well-known cases of neglect of duty or gross disobedience, should not withhold his recommendations. In such cases, the Headmaster should call the teachers concerned, and tell them plainly and dispassionately what he has done. I must also warn Assistant Masters to remember that it is not always the case that the Headmaster's recommendations are approved *in toto*, and that if they desire that his representations to the Managing Committee should not fail of their

effect, they should strengthen his hands by making it appear that he has at his back the unanimous and loyal support of his Assistants. 'Divide et empire' may perhaps be good for the rulers, but never has the policy been of any advantage to the ruled. Assistant Masters again should see to it that they never drive the Headmaster to the necessity of making constant references to the Managing Committee. It is a well-accepted principle of school administration that in the internal management of the school the Headmaster shall be supreme. At the same time it is notorious how several managements interfere with their Headmasters in their own province, and dictate to them how they should frame their time-tables and allot work among their Assistants, what text-books alone they should prescribe, what periodical examinations they should hold, and when. You will, I feel sure, grant that it is a humiliation indeed that the staff of a school should be put to such galling restrictions, but if you examine the causes that have led up to them, you will find that it is not the management that is at fault. The blame will have to be thrown on the Headmaster or the Assistants or both. Either the Headmaster should have attempted to thrust more work on the Assistants than they can reasonably be expected to do, or the Assistants should have refused to take upon themselves any work other than what may *strictly* be termed their duty. In either case an appeal to the Managers should have been rendered necessary and the result is that both the Headmaster and the Assistants are subjected to unpleasant and distasteful restrictions. As a rule, you may be sure that Managers will only be too ready to sanction the Headmaster's recommendations as regards additional work to be done by his Assistants, if he chooses to make such. Wisdom therefore should suggest that as far as possible masters manage to get on with one another without hitch and never resort to the undesirable practice of an appeal to the management. Ten to one, they will find to

their regret in the end that the remedy is worse than the disease.

Gentlemen, have you ever asked yourselves why it is that there is better discipline in schools under European Principals or Managers, than in others? Is it not a fact that in such schools extra-school activities, such as games, special drill, boys' associations, theatricals, gardens, museums or excursions are better organized and better attended to by masters than in others? Would you wholly deny the statement that whereas in these schools any new subjects such as Phonetics that the Principal may wish to introduce are quickly learnt and taught, proposals of the same nature emanating from Headmasters of other schools are received by their Assistants with anything but warmth or enthusiasm? Am I not generally right in saying that even though the European Principal may come late to school, the Indian Assistants are very punctual and never lay themselves open to the charge of late-coming, while in a school under Board or indigeneous management, if the Headmaster comes late to school *occasionally*, it is taken advantage of by some at least of the other masters to come late *systematically*? If questioned, will not these masters reply at once, 'What about the Headmaster? Does he not come late too?' Is it not true that in a few of these last-named schools, masters go away from school during their hours of leisure in the day, and do not care even to let their Headmasters know of it? If in the examination hall, does it not happen that frequently masters are seen quitting their places and talking to one another in a group, leaving the boys to help themselves and one another, as best they may? Gentlemen, I request you to pause, and consider these questions.

Brother masters, it is certainly not flattering to our sense of dignity to be told that generally we as a class have to be *driven*, and cannot be trusted to act rightly out of our own free-will and sense of propriety. It is at the same time

a melancholy fact that in many of the schools under Indian management masters do not act as well in co-operation with one another as they ought to. The School Anniversary has to be celebrated, sports competition has to be conducted, the distribution of prizes should take place, or the Governor or some other high-placed official has to be welcomed and entertained in a suitable manner. On occasions of this kind it is the clear duty of Assistant Masters to offer their services voluntarily to the Headmaster and say which portion of the work they will do. One will take charge of the recitations and theatricals to be got up, another will look to the decorations, a third will receive visitors, and so on. Often, however, as a matter of fact what obtains is just the reverse. The Headmaster requests the Assistants to take upon themselves each some share of the responsibility; some excuse themselves perhaps, and most of the others do their work half-heartedly and, may be, look with envy on those who go scot-free, and when the right moment comes, very few indeed are found at their post of duty. The Headmaster regards himself as fortunate if out of fifteen or twenty masters in the school, he secures the co-operation of two or three. Some even go the length of saying, 'Why should we trouble ourselves since the credit of it all goes to the Headmaster?' Gentlemen, it is not the fault of the Headmaster if others give him credit for securing the good-will of his Assistants, but I would certainly convict him of neglect of duty if at the close of the functions referred to above, he does not acknowledge in very handsome terms the willing co-operation extended to him, and good work done, by his Assistants. Thus while it is the duty of the Assistant Masters to heartily and cheerfully work with the Headmaster in all the activities of the school, it is also the duty of the latter to acknowledge in ample measure the services done by the Assistants and thank them in public whenever and wherever possible.

Gentlemen, I have done. I repeat what I said

at the beginning, viz., that the relation between the Headmaster and his Assistants in a school is of a peculiar nature, and it is further complicated by the consideration that the party most directly affected by the nature of the relation is neither the Headmaster, nor the Assistants, but the boys. It is always necessary to remember that the Manager, the Headmaster, or the Assistant Master is there, not for himself or one another, but for the boys. It is the boys that contribute to the credit that the Manager takes to himself for running the school, and it is the boys that make it possible for the Headmaster and the Assistant Master to keep the hearth burning at home. And if only this is kept in mind, the Manager will learn to be less autocratic, the Headmaster less disposed to find fault, and the Assistant Master, less sour and less discontented. So disciplining our minds and so acting, let us all, Headmasters and Assistant Masters, see to it that we cease our wrangling; let us resolve not to do anything likely to place in jeopardy the best interests of the boys committed to our care; let us not by any words or acts of ours bring into contempt or disrepute a profession that admittedly ranks among the noblest, and let us prove ourselves worthy of our descent from the mighty Rishis and Acharyas of old who caring naught for glory or reward or personal gain gave of their wisdom and learning freely and unreservedly to all that sought them.

'Once upon a time,' says the Talmud, 'when there was a great drought in the land, the greatest Rabbis prayed and wept for rain, and the rain came not. At last a common-looking person got up and prayed to Him who causeth the wind to blow and the rain to descend, and instantly the heavens began to cover themselves with clouds and the rain began to fall. Thereat the Rabbis all marvelled and cried, 'Who art thou, whose prayers have alone prevailed?' And he answered, 'I am a teacher of little children.'

EXAMINATIONS—HOW TO REDUCE THEIR PRESSURE.

IT is a notorious fact that the students not only look confused and confounded during the examination days, but they actually lose in weight. Often students fall seriously ill after appearing at examinations. They hardly enjoy the news of their success. This state of affairs is far from being satisfactory. We keenly feel on the point and make the following humble suggestions to better the situation.

One general defect of our system is that we have come to attach undue importance to intellectual education. We give pass to a student if he satisfies us in an intellectual test only. No numbers are granted for good physique. No marks for good morals. In theory we hold that education aims at making a perfect man, at developing to the fullest, all the faculties of the individual. But when we come to practice, we forget our theory and decide everything by a nominal intellectual test. Absolutely no consideration is shown to the other two factors of education. If in some cases physique and morals happen to command some attention, the whole healthy influence is lost by reducing the thing to a mere test of knowledge. A man gets marks with us because he can write on a piece of paper 'cleanliness is next to godliness,' and not because he shows in life that he is clean. One who can remember a few verses of a moral text-book gets marks, even medals, in preference to another who remembers not verses but having written them on the tablet of his heart follows them sincerely in life. From the above it is clear that we preach one thing and practise another. We are cut down by contradictions. As long as this system lasts, there is little hope that the pressure of

examinations would be reduced. Students are shrewd enough to see what pays them and they devote themselves to it. The first suggestion, that we wish to make, is to take into consideration the body and the morals of the students. In our opinion no student should be admitted to a degree or granted a certificate unless he has a minimum of intellectual, moral and physical education. It is possible to devise tests for the latter two. A record to show how often a student falls ill, at what rate he adds to his weight, height and the size of his muscles, what interest he takes in games, at what rate he progresses in games—a record of all this should be kept in the case of every student. Similarly such moral virtues as can be easily marked should get their due numbers. The student who is regular, punctual, truthful, serving in his nature should get his dues. This would create a diversion and thus lessen the undue importance now attached to examinations.

Here we would anticipate an objection to our proposal. Some one might say it is cruelty to assign marks for one's physique. A boy who is born sickly, who has inherited disease from his forefathers, shall suffer in this case. Our reply is that exactly because a boy has been born in a diseased family, he should not be given a certificate which would make people take him for a healthy and useful citizen. Besides we enquire why should a man's intellectual powers be marked since they too are inherited. A dull student in this case suffers because it is his misfortune to be born of a dull father. Should on that account intellectual tests be altogether abolished? Certainly not. The fact is that a man has two parts—the natural and the unnatural—the hereditary and the acquired. In giving diplomas both of these should be taken into

consideration. The sum total of the two should be marked.

The next suggestion that we would make regarding the decrease of the pressure of examinations is to devise a scheme to test all the mental powers of a student. In our present system we only test memory. Even that power is not properly tested. In case we wished to test memory we should call the students, recite before them some poem and then ask them to reproduce. The one who is able to recite first should be given highest marks for sharp memory. There would be another test for retentive memory. A poem would be recited, or some story told, and when the students have apparently forgotten everything regarding it, they would be asked to reproduce it. The one whose reproduction resembles the original most closely will be regarded to have the most tenacious memory. These tests are not used in our present day examinations. The result is that only those, who can cram up all sense and nonsense and who can vomit out that sense and nonsense, get the best of it. So long as this unnatural system lasts, there is little hope for the betterment of the situation. Under this system, examinations will continue to terrify our young men, to sap their life-blood and to leave them weak both in mind and body.

To remove the above defects, in the first place, real tests of memory should be devised. Secondly, the other two powers of the mind—imagination and judgment—should also be tested. In testing the former it is necessary to ask students to make their own stories illustrating some theme. They may also be asked to make analogies and similes. For instance, a class may be asked to look at the rising or the setting sun and then required to describe the rising and the setting by means

of some suggestive simile. This would considerably develop their imagination and free them from slavery to words whose significance they often do not understand. Tests for judgment too can be devised very easily; and, it is a hopeful sign of the times to see that a change is coming over examination papers, though unfortunately the examiner of the old school now and then lapses back into the old grooves, and, to a certain extent, destroys the good effect of the new system. On this account the headmaster of every school should be required to sit as a moderator in the papers drawn up by the youthful teachers, and to see that the papers properly test imagination and reason. Frequent conferences should also be held. Here the teachers and inspectors should meet together and frame ideal question papers. This would greatly help in inculcating new ideas and driving away the old ones. Another and an effective way of checking the present fatal tendency is to criticize publicly all the question papers set at the various University and Departmental examinations. This criticism should find place in the Educational Journal. To make the criticism real and hence weighty, only experts should be asked to do this work. They may be specially paid for this work. Besides this destructive, constructive work may also be done. Good types of test papers in different subjects should be published in the Educational Journal from time to time.

Having thus arranged for the examination of all faculties and having devised means to make the examination effective, we would suggest that the pressure of examinations should be distributed over long periods of time. In the first place, holding examination in all the various subjects in the short compass of 3 or 4 days should be avoided. Let the Terminal

Examination or the Annual Examination be distributed over a month or so. Let one subject be examined to-day and another a week after and so on. The regular lessons should, of course, continue, but with only a little change so as to give a short time to the students to arrange their thoughts and to systematize the facts that they have learnt.

Another suggestion to the same effect is to make weekly and fortnightly examinations more useful. They should form an integral part of the considerations on which the question of promotion is to be decided. A student should not be promoted simply because he passes at the annual examination. The marks obtained at the various examinations throughout the year should be added together and then the best students only promoted.

One more device to secure the same end is to take into consideration the everyday work of the student. The master should test the ability of his class from day to day and record in his notebook the impression that each boy succeeds in producing upon him. These impressions should be added up and the numbers that the student gets on that account, should form another very important factor in the matter of promotion. Home-work also should be marked for that purpose. If a student writes good essays throughout the year and happens to write a bad essay at the time of examination, he should not on that account be detained in the same class for one year more, nor should any disgrace attach to him on that account. Same should be the case with other kind of home-work. Home-work notebooks should have some value as the journals of experiments in the case of a student of science.

The latter two devices, we know, are being tried at that far-famed indigenous

Indian institution, the Gurukula at Kangri. The workers there, so far as our knowledge goes, appear to be satisfied with the results and think this as a step in the right direction.

One suggestion more we might make. We wish the powers of observation of the students were well trained by means of some interesting device. The more attention is paid to this, the more would the present unnatural test go out of vogue. The only way to get rid of the present system is to employ as many various plans as possible to divert the attention of the students from fixed grooves to new and more attractive methods.

We conclude with a hope that the educational authorities will direct their immediate attention to this important subject and try to remove the evils of examinations by adopting the methods suggested in this article or any others which may be calculated to achieve the same end.

A PROFESSOR.

TAMIL STUDIES.*

UNDER the above heading Mr. M. Srinivasa Aiyangar, M.A., of the Central Records Office, Egmore, has published a series of essays on the history, language, religion and literature of the Tamil peoples. The book is a handy and well-printed volume of 425 pages and is a veritable store-house of close study and research of years. There are twelve essays on the whole, the first three of which concern the Tamil people and the next two the Tamil castes. Essay VI is devoted to the history and development of the Tamil alphabet, and Essay VII to the place of Tamil in philology. The next three essays

* By Mr. M. Srinivasa Aiyangar, M.A. Price Re. 1-8-0. (Students' Edition.)

(VIII, IX and X) give an excellent resume of Tamil literary history, the first dealing with the various periods of Tamil literature, the second with the age and achievements of the Tamil academies, and the next with the Ten Tens. Essay XI is a bold and scholarly attempt at fixing the age of the Vaishnava Saints or Alvars. The last in the series is a dissertation on the history of Malayalam. These, together with a conclusive chapter of summary and four appendices, dealing respectively with the early Pandyan Kings, Agastya's Grammar, the Age of Manickavachakar and the word Tiyan, form a fine, scholarly and indispensable volume of research for which the student of Indian History will feel highly indebted. The introduction which Prof. Rangacharya contributes and the copious index constructed by the author singularly enhance the value of the book. The conclusions of Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar, based as they invariably are on a close reasoning of facts and inferences, will always command respect even when they do not gain converts; and however hard it may be to accept his views regarding the chronology of certain facts in South Indian History, none can doubt the great love and labour he has bestowed on the subject, the patience with which he has investigated the social, religious and literary history of the land, and the fine way in which he occasionally summarises past research in the themes with which he himself deals with such authoritative knowledge and scholarship.

It is obviously impossible to enter into a criticism, either constructive or destructive, of the scores of controversial conclusions which the author has reached. South Indian History is still in the process of construction.

All the original materials of History have not yet been brought to light, the records are growing daily and the conclusions of to-day, based on certain facts, have to be superseded or at least modified by the acquisition of other materials the next day. Every research scholar is thus, to a certain extent, on very dangerous ground; and unless he bases his conclusions on facts or phenomena which are not likely to be controverted or denied by later discoveries, his attempt may after all be a mere attempt and his achievement nil. Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar has, in my opinion, saved himself to an appreciable degree from this difficulty. His conclusions will indeed start criticisms and controversies from many a quarter; but it cannot be denied that he has fastened his arguments on evidences which have a permanent value of their own and which are not likely to be exploded by later discoveries.

A brief resume of his conclusions may be useful to the general reader. In his first three essays on the Tamil peoples and castes he discusses the term *Dravidian* and the ethnology of the Tamilians. He summarises the views of Wilson, Mouier Williams, Caldwell, Kanakasabai Pillai, Grierson and others, and gives a masterly summary of the various theories of Dravidian origin,—the early Aryan, the Lemurian, the Hunterian, the Mongolian, and so on. His own opinion is that the Dravidians must be emigrants from Western Asia. "The original home of these people should have been Assyria and Asia Minor and they should have lived with the ancient Accadians and other Turanian races before they migrated to India through the north-western passes." And he gives linguistic, archaeological and literary evidences to prove his theory. The date of the immigration

he attributes to about 1200 p. c. In the next two essays on the Indian castes, the author gives a highly ingenious and rational view of the early Dravidian tribes and their formation into castes after the Aryan invasion. Which were the early tribes? What were the castes into which they were constituted? Why was it so? These and other questions are treated in an eminently original and interesting manner. The author's theory, that the right and left hand factions came into existence in the 11th century on account of the Chola animosity towards the neighbouring kings, the social aspirations of the lower castes and the rival activities of Jainism and Hinduism, is very original.

In Essays VI and VII the development of the Tamil alphabet and the place of Tamil in philology are discussed. The author points out the early existence of the Vatteluttu alphabet and the later formation of the Grantha-Tamil in consequence of Aryan immigration. The date of the introduction of the former he assigns to 4th or 5th century B. C., as it was prior to Tolkapya, whose date, he argues, must have been in the 4th century B. C. Regarding the question whether the Vatteluttu alphabet was derived from the Brahmi alphabet of Asoka or whether it was independent in its development, Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar favours the theory of independence, advocated by Thomas, Rhys Davids and Burnell, as against the Aryan theory of Caldwell, Grierson and Buhler. The essay on the place of Tamil in philology is an excellent account of the mutual influences of Tamil, Sanskrit and, to some extent, the dialects of the former.

In the three essays dealing with Tamil literature, the author shows his usual erudition. He makes a review of the writ-

ings of Damodaram Pillai, Suryanarayana Sastri, Dr. Caldwell, Hunter, Jules Vinsin and others, and himself proposes a new classification,—academic (600 B. C.—150 A. D.), classic (150—500 A. D.), hymnal (500—950), translational (950—1200), exegetical (1200—1450), and miscellaneous (1400—1850). *Tolkapya* and *Kural* he would attribute to the first period; the classic works *S'ilappadikaram*, *Manimekalai*, etc., to the second; the *Tevaram*, *Tiruvoyimoli*, etc., to the third; the works of Kamba, Kacchiyappa, etc., to the 4th; Nacchinarkiniar, Adiyarkunallar, etc., to the 5th period. In the next essay he deals with the Tamil academies. The upper limit of this age, i.e., the formation of the traditional First Sangam, he places "somewhere between the sixth and fourth centuries before the Christian era." The second academy, he points out, is a continuation of the first, and on account of the apparent imitation, by some writers, of Gunādhyā (1st century A. D.), the reference to Dittan or Dathiya of the Singhalese annals (B. C. 90), and other causes, he fixes it on the centuries immediately preceding and following the Christian era. Tiruvalluvar he places therefore in the 2nd academy and dismisses all the traditions connecting him with the third academy as fictions. The 3rd academy the learned author attributes to a period anterior to the 2nd half of the 6th century. The chapter on the Ten Tens is exceedingly interesting for the glimpses it gives of the social, linguistic and political history of the Tamil land.

Chapter XI on the Vaishnava Saints or Alvars attempts at the solution of one of the vexed questions of South Indian History—the date of the Alvars. The author first of all points out that both the Saiva and Vaishnava saints, probably with the exception of one of

two, flourished during the Paranic period, i.e., between 500 and 950 A.D. The first three Alvars, according to our author, lived in the latter half of the 7th century A.D., as Poygai refers to a place named Vinnagaram which the author identifies with Paramesvara Vinnagaram, built by the Pallava King Paramesvara Varman. Tirumalisai he also attributes to the latter half of the 7th century, the age of fierce rivalry between the three main religions of S. India. Kulasekhara he assigns to the period between 780 and 890, Tirumangai to about 770 A.D. and Perialvar to between 840 and 915 A.D. Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar gives a formidable series of arguments to prove that Nammalvar was the last of the Alvars, that he lived full two centuries after Tirumangai Mannan, that he belonged to the first half of the 10th century.

In his essay on the origin of Malayalam, Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar endeavours to prove that Malayam, as a distinct dialect, developed only after the 14th century. His arguments deserve a deep and close study. Appendix I gives a very good summary of early Pandyan History. Appendix III deals with the age of Manickavachakar. The author gives elaborate arguments to prove that the saint "must have been an elder contemporary of Perialvar and Andal of the Vaishnava sect and lived in the reign of the Pandya King Varaguna II (A.D. 870), that is, two centuries later than Appar and Tirugnana Sambandar, half a century later than Sundarar and about one generation earlier than Nammalvar." The note on Kallada Deva Nayanar fixes his age between A. D. 850 and 950.

From this brief bird's-eye view of Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar's treatise, it will be seen what a wide range it covers, how patiently the author has studied all the original

materials in order to arrive at satisfactory conclusions. As I have already said, some of his views can be criticised, and many scholars may hold other views. His ideas about the chronology of the Alvars for instance do not appeal to me. It seems to me that he ignores the dates of the later Acharyas as given in traditions which have been found to be calendrically correct, and in consequence places Nammalvar in the 10th century. It seems to me that he must have been at least half a century earlier than Nathamuni and as the latter was born in 823 A. D., Nammalvar must have lived in the 8th century. But such criticisms are out of place here. And however different may be the views of other scholars in regard to some of the numerous topics treated of by our author, all will agree that he has displayed a great fund of research, deep erudition, and a wonderful power of marshalling arguments and placing them in an easy, direct and appealing style. It is a very valuable publication and will, I believe, attract the attention and liberality of the University so that it will be largely studied by advanced students of Indian History.

One piece of advice I should like to make to the author, and that is that, in the second edition of the book which, I trust, will very soon take place, he will adopt a good system of transliteration and give a true representation of Indian proper names by proper diacritical marks. The absence of this may seem, in the eyes of many, a real defect.

V. RANGACHARI.

VERVE IN OUR VOCATION.

EDUCATION in the schools and colleges of this country does not seem to be improving in quality. Experts have told us wherein lies the defect; we too perceive the cause of all our deficiencies. Still the old complaint continues that the Indian boy does not get satisfactory instruction at school. No doubt, we have been increasing our material equipments. Laboratories are much better furnished now than a decade back they were. Pupils fearlessly hold test-tubes over the spirit lamp and conduct experiments even without the master's aid. Every student of mathematics has an instrument box, every student of geography a colour box. Even history has its own apparatus of charts and gaily painted maps. It is again a relief to see children seated on benches with backs, though now and then they may be uncomfortably huddled together in a mass. The school walls are not bare; they are decorated with pictures of poets and warriors or one finds good copy-book maxims painted on them. The lumber-room is filled with rows of dumb-bells to be lifted up and swung about the head by urchins at eventide. Surely such things must indicate that education is making good progress in our schools. Yet this does not seem to be the case. Our young men that receive the most modern sort of training in colleges do not seem to imbibe the spirit of the great geniuses that made education a living reality, such as Herbert, Froebel and Montessori: perhaps they are not to blame. Many a teachers' college is manned by easy-going men who self-complacently say that the true teacher is born, not made and thus shirk their sacred duty. This should not be. All over India there is heard a cry for more and

more of solid instruction on western lines. Meeting this one-voiced national demand means an adequate supply of efficient teachers. How can such men be forthcoming if our training colleges persist in old grooves and go on in their sleepy, stereotyped manner without being affected by the currents of thought that convulse the educational world abroad? But it is not the purpose of the present article to dilate on training institutions. I intend stating briefly how, within the school itself, any teacher can easily make his lessons more effective than perhaps it has been possible for him hitherto.

It is a truism in pedagogics to say that boys understand what you say best if it is connected with practical life. The oak is incomprehensible to the Indian lad; speak to him of the cocoanut or banyan and drive the idea into his head by analogies. Finally the picture of that alien tree as found in the dictionary will help him to grasp the meaning. The poet says:—

"Yet who in Indian bowers has stood,
But thought on England's good greenwood
And blessed, beneath the palmy shade,
Her hazel and her hawthorn glade;
And breathed a prayer (how oft in vain)
To gaze upon her oaks again?"

Even as Eliza Cook sings, "there is a magical tie to the land of our home which the heart cannot break though the foot-steps may roam." So the oak, hazel and hawthorn, awaken sweet memories in the English mind. But when the school-boy in Ind has to study such things, he is perfectly bewildered. Murray's Dictionary has to be looked into and the words it gives are the only help for the boy to form in his mind reasonable images of these strange trees. I am afraid many teachers do not go even so far; they are content with saying that the poet refers to certain

English trees. Such a summary disposal of the matter is not solid teaching. The boys call it dull and exhibit an inclination to go to sleep. The task of the Indian educator is very difficult here, indeed. He must draw fairly accurate diagrams of the oak on the black-board; or, better, he may name some Indian tree similar to it, ask the boy to imagine himself in England and then tell him how in the shade of an oak tree there, he would bless the banyan or coconut palm of his motherland. Heber's idea in the above lines is to appeal to the patriotic feelings of his English reader; his commentator by the above method achieves that object with an Indian reader also equally well.

The above instance is not however such a good representation of our difficulty as the one I quote below, a passage from Ruskin on flowers in the Jura region. "There spring up, year by year, such company of joyful flowers as I know not the like of among all the blessings of the earth. . . . There was the wood anemone, star after star, closing every now and then into nebulae; and there was the *oxalis*, troop by troop, like virginal processions of the *Mois de Marie*, the dark vertical clefts in the limestone choked up with them as with heavy snow, and touched with ivy on the edges—ivy as light and lovely as the vine; and, ever and anon, a blue gush of *violets*, and *cowslip bells* in sunny places; and in the more open ground, the *vetch*, and *comfrey*, and *mezereon*, and the small sapphire buds of the *Polygala Alpina*, and the wild *strawberry*, just a blossom or two, all showered amidst the golden softness of deep, warm, amber-coloured moss." Ruskin says that he enjoyed the sight of these beauties so much that he "looks back with peculiar gratitude to those hours of his life, as having been marked

by more than ordinary fulness of joy or clearness of teaching." It is such a rapturous piece of composition that the Indian teacher has to interpret; the effect it has on him cannot be half as much as what it would be on a European mind. He has not seen *comfres* and *vetches*; what does he know of *oxalis* or *Polygala Alpina*? He simply says that this flower is red and that flower is blue. Is this enough to make the pupil visualize these strange blossoms? Teacher and taught alike are handicapped. The impact of the West on the East has had one undesirable effect, that of destroying the importance of rural life. Villages are practically deserted, the folk therein having all bundled up their goods and emigrated to towns. Humanity is choking itself within "brick walls and bustling streets." The charms of natural scenery pall upon the modern civilized man. The wonders of electricity have greater fascination for him. Of those that flock to the town, only a few can afford to live in houses surrounded by gardens. Even there trees and shrubs have a sickly growth. The dust destroys the freshness of the green leaf and worms drill holes all over the stem. The majority have nothing like natural scenery to see and enjoy. The leaden sky overhead is the only object that ever gives them an idea of the immensity of Things Unseen. Living in such an atmosphere as most of our Indian schoolboys do, they are unable to appreciate flowers. I know boys that have not seen the lotus on which many a Sanskrit bard has lavished all the wealth of his poetic imagination. In fact, many do not know the names of more than half-a-dozen flowers. The rose, jasmine, *champak*, *karavir*, etc., are their chief acquaintances; the rest they freely designate "some sort of a flower." It

is to such children that one has to expound the joyous writings of John Ruskin. I confess that this is an extremely puzzling task. Rarely has the little lad seen "such company of joyful flowers." Tax his imagination, that is my answer. *Jasmines*, *lotuses*, *roses* and *champak*s must fill his fancy; they must appear in myriads before his mental eye. Let him think that he is roving in some fine meadow lined with blue hills and that his pathway is sprinkled with these delightful blossoms. Or you may ask him to recall to his memory any ramble he might have had in such beautiful valleys or fields. This means a lot of strain, the exercise of the teacher's utmost skill. If no such endeavour is made, the English lesson becomes a bore; the juvenile mind has to feed on dead words, mere husks that choke without nourishing the intellect. Progress cannot be rapid if one is to invest words with interest; but it will be real. If such care is not taken, the grown-up man simply mouths words without feeling their meaning; mental energy runs to waste.

Words are like leaves and where they most abound
Much fruit of sense beneath is not to be found.

Arithmetic is another subject which must be made practical if it is to be useful and interesting. Modern books exhibit reform in this direction but most of them are suited to English conditions of life. Mr. Seshu Aiyar's recent volume is eminently fitted for teaching elementary mathematics on modern lines. But one treatise will not do. Being the first attempt of the kind, it has taxed all the energy of its authors; they have had to invent almost every sum in it in the light of the statistics on the prevalent industrial state of the motherland. The tram-car, railway train, bazaar transactions, Marwari money-

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lenders, marriage pavilions—in fact a host of Indian topics of current interest has been made to yield the problems of their book. They have carried into practice the rule that mathematics has not as much value in the abstract as it would have if it is applied to the concerns of daily human existence. More volumes of that kind must be forthcoming and before long we shall be able to withhold our unqualified allegiance to English publications. My experience at present is that many teachers stick to the old method of dictating *sams verbatim* and bodily from some text-book without changing them to suit the juvenile Indian's tastes. There are questions on steam-roller, coal-mining, foot-pounds, plumbing the sea, rowing boats, etc.; before we ask our boys to work out their answers, it is our duty to explain to them what those strange terms mean. Else they feel amazed and stunned; the intelligent among them arrive at the result by mechanically applying the formula. Some may object by saying that in describing the steam-engine or steam-ship we don't teach arithmetic to our boys but while away our time with breezy dissertations on subjects entirely alien. Herein I beg to submit that such a conclusion is entirely wrong. The most recent theory in education is that all branches of knowledge should be correlated, their inter-relation explained and thereby a certain solidity of learning secured. Hence we see that arithmetic and algebra are no longer kept apart but embrace each other in friendly cordiality. Science has also joined this brotherhood; for it is there that mathematics finds ample room for practical application. So neither the teacher that makes excursions into mathematics while handling science nor the brother that encroaches on his territory in teaching

mathematics, is in the least to blame. The only caution to be observed is that each must preserve the integrity of his subject. The science man that teaches the pendulum has to appeal to mensuration for showing that the length of an arc is equal to $\frac{\text{central angle}}{360^\circ} \times$ circumference; the mathematician that teaches this formula has certainly to invoke the pendulum to justify the existence of the identity. A certain amount of inter-dependence is necessary. We must not stand severely apart, saying with a frown "Thus far shalt thou come and no further." This exclusive policy has not entirely vanished from among us; the sooner it is let go, the better for our schools and colleges. Another salutary change in arithmetic would be the construction of problems, now and then, by the boys themselves. They have such a lot of material to draw upon; their household expenses would surely supply them with many a tortuous question. Therein may crop up sums on average, percentage, profit or loss, interest, and ever so many other things. Then we have the details of the district revenues published by the Government. They afford excellent political knowledge besides mere arithmetical matter. All this surely means exertion; the teacher cannot have an easy time of it. His hands must be full; his brains must be ever active. Such work is in addition to the strain caused by the correction of the note-book piles that ever surround him like a grim range of rugged hills. He cannot expect any pecuniary return for such labour; simple love of the work itself must be his chief incentive. "He will hardly fail in bringing some part of his labours to a prosperous issue, provided he devotes all his strength to that one enterprise, postponing to it every other object of ambi-

tion, and sacrificing to it many interests which men hold dear. Some of the most pleasurable incentives to action he must disregard. Not for him, are those rewards, which, in other pursuits, the same energy would have earned; not for him, the sweets of popular applause; not for him, the luxury of power; not for him, a share in the councils of his country; not for him, a conspicuous and honoured place before the public eye.

"Albeit conscious of what he could do, he may not compete in the great contest; he cannot hope to win the prize; he cannot even enjoy the excitement of the struggle. To him, the arena is closed. His recompense lies within himself, and he must learn to care little for the sympathy of his fellow-creatures, or for such honours as they are able to bestow." Thus says Henry Thomas Buckle though in another context. Surely we, teachers, have enormous original work to do. Newspapers will not advertise our labours, for our purses are not long, our influence but limited. We may not obtain much public recognition but at best be tolerated by big men as indispensable for their school-going children. Let us not despise ourselves, because high-placed folk do not deign to smile on us. We are not a whit behind any in our capacity for work; perhaps in blowing loud blasts on the trumpet we may be far inferior to other men. But that is not a very profitable occupation. The press and the platform may taboo us; we must learn to do without them. Our boys shall be our wealth; we should give them the best that is in us. Even if the best in us is not sufficient, let us cull the choicest flowers and herbs from fresh fields and pastures new, and thus strain every nerve to benefit the children. For, are we not their spiritual parents? Is not

the nourishment we give them more substantial and permanent? If such noble thoughts dominate our minds, our achievement would be great, though our attainments be little. More than any one else, the school-master has to take care that he does not get superannuated. He must be abreast of the times and have his finger constantly on the pulse of throbbing humanity. He has to form his own ideas on the changing conditions of life and adapt himself to the altered environment. He must import the new spirit into his daily teaching and see that it inspires healthy activity among the pupils. Above all, he needs to be a diligent student himself. The *Educational Review* is the only medium for the free ventilation of our ideas; we are not taking sufficient advantage of it. Is such an apathy quite commendable?

A TEACHER.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE IN INDIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

INTRODUCTORY.

WE propose in the course of this article to briefly review the methods of teaching English literature in the secondary schools of this country. But before we attempt this, it is obvious for us to enter into a discussion of some general principles which teachers ought to keep in view, and which ought to be the governing factors of their method. The questions, which arise at the very outset and which require a clear and definite answer before we pass on to further details, are, why we should teach English literature or anything approaching it in our secondary schools, and how far it is possible for us to handle it

successfully here. The conditions of our work are so various and varying, and the problems, which the teaching of a subject like this must present to the child-mind, are so complex that some teachers are often tempted to consider that labouring at it in our institutions must be futile, and must result in a huge waste of time and energy, which might be applied with advantage to the teaching of other subjects which are less onerous and exacting. We confess we do not share this pessimistic view, and we go further and say that it is not only possible to teach it in our country, but also any teaching without this end in view must entirely vitiate the whole superstructure of the edifice we are attempting to construct in the child-mind.

THE AIMS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING.

Our reasons for the position we have taken up will become perfectly clear, if we consider the essential aims of language teaching. They are, as Professor Laurie says, to enable the pupils to convey the substance of their thoughts to others and to comprehend the thoughts of others as embodied in literature, to appreciate, and to feel a delight in, the great thoughts of the immortals—the quintessence of the wisdom of past ages, and to exercise a certain discipline on the mind so as to stimulate thought and develop the logical faculty in the pupils. If these aims are to be realized, and there ought to be scope for their realization in every secondary school worthy of the name, then we contend that the intellectual food, we place before our children at present, cannot help us in the attainment of our goal. We must then aim not only at qualitative, but also quantitative results. Literature should be studied both intensively and extensively by our pupils, and we must so

teach the subject in our schools, that they are able to appreciate its beauties and thereby develop their innate æsthetic faculty.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHING OF LITERATURE.

The question still remains how far it is possible for us to teach the literature of a foreign language successfully in our schools. This depends on the books chosen for study at the different stages and the methods we adopt in their teaching. We ought to bear in mind that every stage of mental life has its own literature, and we need not therefore suppose that, if we do not teach the works of the great masters at a particular stage, we are not teaching our pupils literature as such. We need not now stop to inquire what methods we should adopt in teaching the subject in the different stages of the school course, and we shall here content ourselves with the remark that we should always try to present a good model to our pupils, so that we may cultivate in them a good literary taste.

LITERATURE: PRIMARY STAGE.

Having indicated at some length the aims of language teaching and the possibilities of the successful handling of literature in our secondary schools, it will now be necessary for us to offer some suggestions as regards its teaching in the different stages of the school course. We begin the teaching of English in our schools in the third standard, and up to the second form the pupil has mostly to grapple with the difficulties of expression. He has therefore hardly any time for comprehending the beauties of language as such. These facts are sufficient to enable us to formulate our aim, which must be at this stage, to make him express his thoughts in a clear and connected form.

Words, it has been well remarked, are the fortresses of thought; and our teaching should be of such a nature as to enable him to understand the significance of the words, he is using, to a tolerable degree of accuracy. It need hardly be stated that such accurate significations as are aimed at, should not be the result of any laborious working at a dictionary by the pupil at home, but that of systematic teaching in the class guiding his self-development and co-operating with it. We see at once, that the realisation of this aim requires that the reading matter placed before the pupils should be restricted in scope, and our energies should not be frittered away in trying to pump into their minds new words and expressions, whose exact import they are hardly able to grasp and assimilate. The text-book then should be the essential basis of our teaching, and all lessons—oral and written—should radiate from it. Pupils may be encouraged to get by heart easy and rhythmical pieces, for it has been well said that a child has a greater perception of rhythm than a grown-up man. Further they may be asked to read books written in the simplest possible style and to narrate the stories contained in them in the class. This aspect of the problem has barely received attention at present, as most teachers are under the impression that it is rather chimerical. We have in these days many such story readers published by Messrs. Macmillan and Co. and other firms, and it is a pity that the facilities thus afforded are not utilised to the fullest possible extent. There is an unfortunate tendency noticeable in every secondary school to lay more emphasis on description of the objects which pupils can see and touch, than on narration of stories—real or fictitious—in the

teaching of English generally. This "appeal to the senses" has been carried so far that it seems desirable for us here to enter an emphatic protest. The creative genius and imagination of children have been entirely thrown into the background, and no wonder then that the pupils, when they come up to the higher classes, are absolutely bereft of their creative faculty. The narration by pupils of stories of the kind, we have above indicated, unconsciously reveals to them the necessity for plan and sequence in all written and oral work, and forms a real basis for connected thought.

LITERATURE IN THE LOWER SECONDARY STAGE.

The aim we should keep in view in the teaching of literature at this stage is more or less the same as that indicated above with a few modifications due to the expansion of the mental horizon of the pupil and his greater ease of expression. The text-book should still be the pivot around which the whole teaching should revolve, but time may be found for a greater variety in the reading work of the pupil at home and in the class room. The questions on the portions done should always be directed to the main outlines or salient facts, and they should never demand from him any detailed descriptions of the leading incidents or characters. We must now consciously attempt at enabling the pupil to understand the plan of the stories or descriptions he is reading, and to test this we may occasionally ask him to write them down in his note-book under suitable headings. Professor Laurie also suggests that the pupils after reading a piece should be asked to select the most beautiful lines there after a few minutes of thought, and the teacher should in the end

explain them. We are not quite sure of the success of this experiment under the conditions of our work here, but we have no hesitation in saying that it is well worthy of trial at any rate in the higher forms of our secondary schools.

LITERATURE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

Our aims at this stage may be stated in the words of the eminent Professor to whose work—"Language and Linguistic Method," reference has already been made. "The pupil must be so instructed that he shall attain a grasp of the sweep, characteristics, and genius of the language and a general acquaintance with its literature and history of the people. We must continue this instruction in more advanced works so as to cultivate the æsthetic and art perceptions of the pupil." The result of such continued and sustained instruction must necessarily be, what Professor Hortog so happily puts it, the creation of an "intellectual conscience." Such a work depends for its success on the books chosen for study—detailed or otherwise, and the methods adopted in their teaching. We need hardly go over the ground covered by Mr. Chubb's in his admirable chapter on "English Literature in the High School" (*vide* his volume on the "Teaching of English") in order to realise the governing principles in the selection of reading matter for the pupils, and we shall therefore here content ourselves with simply stating that the books chosen for study should satisfy the natural and reasonable cravings of the human organism, as it approaches adolescence. Good passages from prose and poetry should be selected for detailed study, and the teacher should direct his effort towards enabling the pupils to understand their beauties. The

appropriateness of the epithets used should be clearly brought home to the pupils, and every effort should be made to enable them to grasp the necessity for clearness and conciseness of expression and to reject all verbose and frothy rhetoric. This latter may be further understood by pupils sitting silently at work in the analysis of the plan of an essay by some distinguished author, comparing the treatment of the same topic by different authors, and criticising essays or descriptions of literary men read by the teacher in the class room. The writing of summaries in non-detailed study is also a very valuable exercise making the pupil realise the necessity for brevity of expression. Incidentally we may note that the books chosen for non-detailed study should be such as would throw a flood of light on the manners and customs of the people, whose language the pupils are studying. There is only one other topic on which English writers lay some emphasis, and that is the teaching of a good style of writing to our pupils. We are in entire accord with Professor Laurie, when he says that that which matters most in literature is idea and coherency of statement and not style. We are therefore disposed to think that if literature is taught on the lines suggested above, there is absolutely no necessity for the special teaching of style in the class room.

CONCLUSION.

We shall now conclude. Our only object in writing on this subject here is to draw the attention of teachers to one aspect of language teaching, whose importance has not as yet been clearly recognised. If this humble attempt of ours results in the creation of anything like interest in the subject in the profession, and if teachers come forward

with more practical suggestions due to their greater experience and knowledge than those we have here advanced, we shall feel ourselves amply satisfied.

E. S. VENKATARAMANAYER.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION AND THE COMMERCIAL TEACHER.

THE object of this article is to offer a few general remarks on the Commercial Teacher and his profession without any reference to its technical or special aspect. Much has been said and written on the subject; yet, the present state of Commercial Education in this Presidency offers room for more to be said.

It is a known fact that the twentieth century is the greatest we have had in the annals of Modern Commerce. Commerce has long ceased to be an ignorant profession, a fact, perhaps, new to many. Commerce includes everything that civilization implies. "The History of Commerce," says Gibbins in his History of Europe, "is the history of civilization." In fact, it is the very life of civilization. The commercial world requires the best man, the best intellect, the best skill and the best initiative. Commerce has been well said to be a battle nobly fought and honourably won in a time of perfect, undisturbed and unmolested peace.

With this introduction I shall step into the subject, and in doing so, it will be my aim to make pointing reference to the state of commercial education and the position of the commercial teacher as we find them to-day.

The foregoing evidently emphasises that the commercial teacher of to-day should be much more than an ordinary teacher. These are days of up-to-dateness, the most impres-

sive, the shortest and the most intelligent ways of teaching; and so I think it may even be superfluous on my part to make any remarks about the teachers' profession here, as not a day passes now-a-days, without some interesting information appearing in one of our journals on the subject. But the question "Who is a teacher?" is one of those few questions that cannot be answered too many times, and as its answer has a direct bearing on the subject of this note, I shall try to put it in a single sentence.

A teacher is one who can guide himself in the world honourably, with credit to all concerned and himself, who can understand others rightly and well, and who can trace the most improved way of doing things from the caprice of nature. "To err is human" cannot but establish that man by birth is tempted to do what is wrong; it is the object of education to keep away this tendency, and create in him that spirit to change his nature and do things as they would be called "rightly done" by the world. I think that the above includes in brief all that is meant and understood by the term "teacher."

The commercial teacher, with all this meaning of *commerce* and *teacher*, is sometimes, nay, very often, considered by some to be an unintelligent, uncultured man who has not been able to place himself within the pale of the so-called learned professions; and those who do so are not generally without University degrees. Many a friend has been telling me boldly but innocently "I shall send some of my boys to the Commercial School. I find them to be very poor in their classes. They are especially backward in English. Let them study Shorthand and Typewriting." I can only express my deep regret at the ignorance of these friends. They are, perhaps, by their

so-called education, as they pretend to be, above any advice on the subject, and so, do not condescend to put in a word to the man in the field and understand the true nature of things. They think that Shorthand, Typewriting and other commercial subjects will come to any man who wants them. They call them "technical subjects" thereby understanding in most cases that they are subjects far below the range of the highly educated man and capable of being picked up by any one. The word "technical" is thus miserably understood by many, and naturally enough, even subjects like Accountancy, Business Organization, Banking, Commercial Law, and Economic History share the same fate. Alas, can ignorance go further?

At this stage it may not be out of place to say a few words about the meaning and scope of what is meant by a "good general education." A great many people are under the impression that only a study of Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth or Tennyson combined with an examination in them constitutes what is called a good general education. This is really a mistaken notion. I do not mean that this will not contribute to higher education; but what I mean is that a thorough detailed study of these and similar works is in itself a good education, examinations being of no importance or even unnecessary. In this strain, a feeling, or I may say a dogma, has taken root in the minds of many that only graduation in arts means higher education. This evidently leads to the fact that, to have sound education, one must have passed a particular grade of examination. I admit that this is true for all practical purposes, since only some such credential is to be relied upon for ordinary Government appointments, a condition prescribed only to

avoid the sifting process of separating the worthy from the incompetent.

But there is another aspect of the question. Education really means only the training and culture of the intellect, to polish and brighten it, so as to enable its possessor to acquit himself well on the stage of the world. With this as the basis, it is not a little wrong to say that an under-graduate is necessarily a poorly educated man. One who cannot afford, or is not somehow able, to continue his University career cannot be considered to be necessarily behind in the matter of education, general, pure and simple. The University, as many seem to think, is not the sole custodian of *higher general education*, but simply an aid even to those who continue in it. In the matter of special education the fact is otherwise, and so any man of ordinary intelligence can acquire as much as he wants for himself in the shape of general education by his own exertions, if only he has once entered the pale of the University. As soon as one enters the University, the field of specialisation is open to him, and the very fact that specialisation begins there shows that the individual concerned has had a necessary amount of substantial education worthy of the name, with which to work on and on which he may erect his future edifice; for, *every scientific specialisation is and should be a superstructure to be built on a firm and broad base of good general education*. In this connection I may say a word regarding the much-talked-of School Final system of specialisation. The C group gives a list of optional subjects, and not to speak of others, I may say with confidence that the specialisation provided in the scheme in commercial subjects has been little less than a thorough failure. This practically shows that commercial subjects require not only as

broad and sound a basis of general education as the other subjects, but something more, for their proper grasp and understanding.

Now comes the turn to give some idea of the commercial subjects taught in schools here. To put it plainly, the commercial school is considered by many, to be an asylum for the failed students of the Upper Secondary Forms. The word "Technical" itself seems to be Greek to many. It is generally taken to mean *mechanical or automatic*, even by educated men and Headmasters of High Schools who say "You have failed this year in the Fourth Form. You may not be able to complete your School-Final Certificate for 5 or 6 years more. It is better that you go and join the Commercial School and study Shorthand, Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence." Imagine what should be the condition of the boy whose parent or guardian says that he cannot complete his certificate even if he spends two years in each of the three classes. A nice guardian! An excellent Headmaster! All this turns on a wrong impression and understanding, to remove which perhaps he thinks himself to be too high to approach any sensible unprejudiced friend of his. To these and to others who may require guidance in the line my remarks here will be specially directed.

The field of commercial education is wider than any other if only properly examined and understood. There is nothing which the commercial man does not want; there is nothing that the commercial man need not know; and nothing in this world is outside the scope of a commercial graduate. He must have a working knowledge of everything that a man may have to do with in his life-time; he must be all things to all men, over and above being a specialist in his own line of

business. Higher commercial education is not Book-keeping or Commercial Correspondence, although they form the steppingstones thereto. Even these are not properly understood. To speak of Shorthand, this important subject touches at so many points in the world that nothing is alien to the practitioner of the art: and its relation to literature in general, more than any other thing, is worthy of special attention. Keen memory, sound common-sense, excellent education, great tact and practical adaptability are the qualities requisite for all branches of commercial work. Business organization, Secretarial Practice, Organization of Industry and Commerce, and Economic Geography and History are subjects for years' study. Type-writing is a subject in respect of which there exists the grossest misconception. In fact, it is no part of commercial education at all. It is very badly understood in this country, and its educative value completely ignored, the chief aim being to type a letter or some such thing, and the goal is reached. In short, a good practical knowledge of the subject includes almost everything that can be committed to writing, so that it may be put to the wide and extended use which it so well deserves. And I think it is mainly this subject, wrongly viewed and thoroughly misunderstood, that is responsible for the popular misunderstanding of commercial education.

Let me now return to the position of the commercial teacher. At present his choice receives little careful attention, although it is something that can never receive too much of it. The selection of teachers is one to be made after careful and deep consideration, as they are entrusted with the care and culture of little ones who are to make up the future generation. In them we are to place

all our hopes for the betterment of our country, and in them we are to find our future welfare. For reasons already pointed out, the commercial teacher generally deserves much more attention; and no mere examinations should go to make or mar the teacher of commercial subjects. It is evidently far easier to get little ones away from their evil ways than to bring round grown-up men with deep-rooted vices in them. Apart from the actual teaching work, the latter mainly forms the charge of the commercial teacher. He should be an ideal in respect of character more than other teachers should be, and a good character generally implies good manners. His charge is a responsible one, and feeling so, he should discharge it accordingly. Now-a-days, it has become the rule that every body who has studied a few commercial subjects is qualified to be a teacher of them. This is a mistake that requires more than immediate rectification. This state of things has been occasioned by the absolute ignorance of the requirements of a qualified commercial teacher and the work that lies before him.

To speak of his qualifications and the scope of his work, many things should go to decide whether an individual can be a successful commercial teacher. He should himself be business-like, honest, sympathetic and readily adaptable to every circumstance. His educational qualifications comprise a good general education, and a sound broad-based structure in his own special line. His command of language should be reliable, and his expression pure, chaste and simple. Here it should be clearly borne in mind that examinations *do not always* mark out the man of practical ability and resourcefulness. Nobody who is well up in less than three sub-

jects is fit to be a teacher of any commercial subject. Commerce includes practically every thing and each of these subjects is only a particular aspect of it; and one who is not all-round is sure to break down sooner or later. The reserve of knowledge at his back is a more important desideratum than in the case of other teachers. Outside the range of his subjects, he must have a personal knowledge of the world at large for all practical purposes. In this connection I may point out a wrong notion on the part of employers generally: Many think that only graduates in arts are fit to become commercial teachers. I do not say any thing more than to emphasize that this is a fallacy. I must ask the indulgence of my readers not to misunderstand me here. I only transform that statement into "only graduates in Commerce are fit to become commercial teachers." Commerce requires generally the best intelligence and adaptability which are not necessarily present only in them. It also requires a good and reliable general education which is not also solely monopolised by them as already stated. And why, then, should this impression exist any longer? It has been clearly proved that graduates of our Universities, who are generally specialists in their own way, with a smattering of the subjects, (because they don't specialise further) are not always able to make good teachers of commercial subjects, and that under-graduates, who may even be with superior general attainments, have stood ahead of them in the line, if not some of the best of commercial instructors. This is a matter in respect of which there is room for a change in the right direction, and let us all hope for it in the near future. This question is also one for the consideration of the University when the time would come for

it to institute a degree in commerce which is being urged by many now. Having successfully entered the University is in itself a good general education, and that should be sufficient generally for all ordinary specialisations.

The work of the commercial teacher ought to have something to do with his choice itself. Employers must take into serious consideration the nature of his subjects, the mode of teaching them, and the ultimate object of his instruction. The commercial teacher should be more practical than any other preceptor that I can think of. His subjects of instruction constitute the actual experience of the commercial or the civilized world, and his productions should mean thoroughly practical men of business ready to launch themselves into the field soon after their course. There is another argument in relation to this, generally advanced by some, that commercial subjects can be successfully taught only by those actually engaged in business. This is not thoroughly untrue; but that this is not a necessary rule to be insisted on was very ably pointed out by Mr. Cherry, a leading commercial educationist, in his excellent paper on "The Commercial Education of To-morrow" recently read before the Incorporated Society of Short-hand Teachers in England.

Reference has already been made as to the futility of the system of specialisation now adopted which has only confirmed the wrong belief entertained by people in general in an unrecognised way. Broadly speaking, the commercial teacher's materials—I mean his pupils—are not at all good at the present day. Everybody is under the impression that a boy who has entered a High School is fit for a commercial course. Perhaps, he means

the lower ladders of it. Even here, he is far from correct. To speak the truth, experience has shown that an average School-Final boy of to-day is not quite fit for a commercial career, even of the lower grade; and to save space and time here, it can only be strongly remarked that the stage of specialisation in this direction should be decidedly higher than it is now, of course, individual cases of exceptions remaining to be carefully looked into and considered. The remuneration of the commercial teacher should also have our consideration. The wrong notions as to his choice have gone a long way to make his services far less valuable than they really are. Employers are quite satisfied if they get graduates in arts styling themselves as commercial teachers with no adequate qualifications for the work, and are ready to pay them Rs. 100 or 125, saying "He is a graduate;" thereby meaning only a graduate in arts, and never a graduate in commerce as it should be. At the other end, we find poorly-educated school-boys, with a broken knowledge of the subjects and stray pieces of information, coming forward offering their services for Rs. 15, 20 or 25; and they are readily entertained, with the satisfaction "He has passed Book-keeping, Correspondence and Banking—all Intermediate Grade! That is a good qualification!" The fact that examinations are never a guarantee of teaching capacity and never imply the necessary resources of a successful teacher is yet to be realised and acted up to. Employers may use better discretion in the choice of teachers by looking to the capacity of the individual in its various aspects, bearing in mind the purpose of their scheme. In special institutions, in institutions of specialisation in a subject or subjects, it should never be the

principle to give a graduate Rs. 100 or 150 and an under-graduate Rs. 30 or 40; but on the other hand, it should be the guiding principle to give a first class qualified specialist Rs. 100 or more and for anything less, a little less and so on, individual merits alone being the deciding factor in each case.

A few words more will conclude this paper. The few remarks herein contained on the subject of commercial education and the commercial teacher have been made, I must candidly admit, with due provision for honourable exceptions here and there, to whom this will only be an old and even uninteresting story. Many a time has it been emphasised that technical education includes everything other than pure literary education, and can only successfully begin at a stage of good general education which is to be a firm base for it to stand upon and develop, and unless and until this is properly remembered and carried out, and well-qualified instructors appointed, this important branch of education is sure to continue in this sad and miserable state of abuse and misconception.

In rooting out these evils, the real aim should be a good preliminary training without any regard to examinations for examination's sake, which can play only a subordinate part in practical life, and they should never be meaninglessly insisted upon as a necessary element of requirement in the case of the man in the field of specialisation; in such cases, high special qualifications with ability to make proper use of them in actual practice should always be the predominant factor. This principle is clearly illustrated by instances everywhere, in Bombay, the Punjab, and the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, and even the greatest business training institution in the world, the Pitman's Metropolitan School, London, is not without instances.

N. SUBRAMANIA Aiyar.

UNVEILING THE BUST OF SIR ASHUTOSH MUKHERJEE.

A very pleasant ceremony was performed on Tuesday, the 12th instant, at Darbhanga Buildings, Senate House, when His Excellency the Governor in the presence of a large and distinguished gathering unveiled the marble bust of Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee. His Excellency on arrival was received at the portico of the buildings by the Hon'ble Dr. Deva Prasad Sarbadhikari, Vice-Chancellor of the University, who presented to His Excellency Dr. S. C. Bagchi, President, Messrs. Jyotiprosad Sarbadhikari and J. N. Das Gupta, Vice-Presidents, Mr. A. Pal, Secretary, and Mr. Stayendra Nath Banerjee, Treasurer. His Excellency was then conducted by the Hon'ble the Vice-Chancellor to his chair in the hall.

His Excellency having taken his seat, Dr. S. C. Bagchi, President of the Committee, addressing His Excellency said:—

PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

Your Excellency and Gentlemen:—A most pleasant withal onerous duty has fallen upon me this afternoon—it is to recapitulate the great services which have been rendered to the cause of learning by Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee, the late Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University. But before coming to my immediate task, I may be permitted to state shortly the history of the Committee that has brought us together in this Hall and to express its sense of indebtedness to many gentlemen, among them—Mr. Percy Brown, Mr. Abanindra Nath Tagore, C.I.E., Mr. Jaladhi Charan Mukherjee, Mr. Jamini Prokash Ganguli, who have helped the Committee with valuable suggestions on several occasions. The highly interesting feature of the meeting this afternoon is that owes its origin mainly to the students of the Law College who have been most eager, if I may say so rightly, to embody their feelings of gratitude to our ex-Vice-Chancellor in some permanent and enduring shape. Some two years ago,

I was approached by the students with a proposal to do fitting honour to Sir Ashutosh, the then Vice-Chancellor, and I really greeted with delight the proposal which they put before me, namely, to present a marble bust to the University. Having received my hearty support, they formed a Committee to consider the ways and means of realization of their scheme. The enthusiastic reception accorded by the Professors and the Post-graduate students of the University at once insured its success. But as the scheme advanced towards its maturity and completion we suddenly found ourselves face to face with a difficulty almost insurmountable. Sir Ashutosh peremptorily declined to have any honour done to him and only after insistent pressure of the students and Professors alike that he was induced to give his consent with the condition attached that the bust was not to be unveiled until after his retirement. Associated, as I have been, with Sir Ashutosh in various capacities, it is, indeed, a great honour to me to stand before you as the spokesman of the Students' Committee and to take part in this function which does honour to us all, since it represents the Western love of culture on the one hand and the Eastern sense of devotion on the other.

The services rendered by Sir Ashutosh to this University are only too well-known. He has impressed his personality on the remodelled University, and the history of the Calcutta University for the first few years since the passing of the new Universities Act is nothing but the history of the continued march of its distinguished chief towards a higher goal in matters educational. The motion of our University, as you are well aware, is "Advancement of Learning." But for a considerable period it was doubtful how far this noble profession was actually carried out in practice. Some, whose opinion cannot hastily be discarded, maintained that the Indian Universities were "actuated by a narrow ambition—that of examining students and of determining by the examinations the course of high school and college instruction,

The colleges which train for the University degrees are scattered over the country and have no organic connection with one another except by the fact that they are affiliated to the University. The Indian Universities are in fact examining Boards." Like all generalisations it is too broad and sweeping to be wholly correct and yet I am not prepared to say that it does not contain some element of truth not altogether to be ignored. The Calcutta University, like its sister institutions in other parts of India, was for long pre-eminently an examining Board. And an examining Board cannot do much for the advancement of learning. But this reproach was removed quickly enough, under the regime of our bold and vigilant Vice-Chancellor whose warmth and zeal in the cause of learning never suffered the least abatement under adverse and discouraging circumstances. True indeed it is that the New Act indicated in outline the shape that the reforms were to assume but to fill in that outline was a task of no little magnitude. The Universities had to be brought into closer connection with the colleges affiliated to them, they had to frame rules for management and discipline and had to satisfy themselves by inspection that their rules were duly enforced. New responsibilities, new functions that demanded much forethought and circumspection. It has now become a familiar story how this University has met those demands and discharged those functions with Sir Ashutosh at the helm of affairs. In the course of eight years—the period of his Vice-Chancellorship—a period none too long for the works accomplished, he has transformed in a sense the very nature of the University. It is no longer a mere examining Board but is now a fairly equipped educational institution. The pioneer's path is always beset with difficulties and Sir Ashutosh has had his full share of them. But he has turned the very difficulties to his advantage and has come out victorious. His eyes are very long-sighted and he is the man to whom "Right, is right, to follow right were wisdom in the scorn of consequence." His has been the attitude of one

that is satisfied with nothing less than thorough reform—revolution call it if you will. But revolutionary he has never been—constitution and construction being his watchwords. One thing however is certain, he has never been afraid to take a step that his well-balanced mind has pointed out to be necessary, regardless alike of opposition and ridicule. Boldness of conception and rapidity of execution have always appealed to him. He is one of those rare men who have the courage of their conviction, who have no other aim nor ambition than to fight for a cause when they are convinced of its sanctity. It is this singleness of purpose that has resulted in such a noble achievement. The magnitude of his task and its attendant difficulties can well be imagined from his confession of faith at the last University Convocation. "I assumed office," he said, "at a time when after strenuous and protracted effort, the Senate had failed to complete the New Regulations required to be framed by the Indian Universities Act and the first duty devolving upon me was to preside over the deliberations of a Special Committee appointed to frame a complete body of new regulations for promulgation by the Government of India. The task was onerous in the extreme, notwithstanding the valuable drafts prepared by the Senate as the result of many months of deliberation and in spite of generous assistance of able and experienced colleagues. The next urgent task—a task infinitely more trying than the one first accomplished—was actually to reshape the life and working of the University on the basis of what had been settled in theory. The task was one to make even the most courageous and ambitious aspirant to the dignity of Vice-Chancellorship pause and consider..... Masses of details, the order of work, the constitution of new agencies, the modes of procedure and other like matters had to be determined independently. These duties are not light ones even in calm non-controversial periods but they become grave, nay formidable, in times of storm and stress, when circumstances demand vital changes and drastic measures."

[JAN. 1915.]

During the years that he was Vice-Chancellor, plans and schemes to heighten the efficiency of the University constantly occupied him. "For years now," he said, "every hour, every minute I could spare from other unavoidable duties has been devoted by me to University work." I do not know whether any other of his predecessors in office could say half as much. No one would charge him with egotism for the just pride that he took at the accomplishment of his Herculean tasks.

A review, however short, of Sir Ashutosh's labours in the cause of education will be necessarily incomplete if no reference is made to the reforms that he has introduced in the diverse departments of University studies. By the organisation of Post-graduate Classes, by the establishment of several University Chairs, by the foundation of a College of Science, ample opportunity for original research has been given to the ambitious students. In the domain of legal education his reforms have been no less significant. An idea prevailed and unfortunately still prevails, in some quarters that Law is, as Jowett said of Logic, neither a science nor an art but a dodge. To overcome an established prejudice is no easy matter and Sir Ashutosh was hardly put to it before he could convince not only the lay public but even the lawyers that law is neither a trade nor a profession but a solemn science. A properly directed academical training in law has the same widening effect on mind as any other branch of learning. The University Law College owes its origin to his strong desire for introducing a systematic method of teaching law. Our law course is an avenue to a degree as well as to a profession and Sir Ashutosh has not in his reforms emphasised one side to the sacrifice of the other. Jurist and Mathematician, he has introduced the system of legal training that combines the method of the one with the precision of the other. Those who are familiar with the chaotic condition of the Law studies in the Calcutta University before Sir Ashutosh's time can only appreciate the

thorough-going nature of his reform in this domain.

Another innovation due to him must be mentioned. As befits a man's deep culture, Sir Ashutosh early found out that the vernacular is the only medium kindly to culture and that is why he has given the Indian languages a place they mightily deserve in the University curriculum. He has been instrumental in laying the foundation on which a splendid superstructure will no doubt be raised in future when our people will enjoy in their tongue the literature and the science of the West. He has thus constructed the first span of the bridge that will speedily join the East with the West. For thought is the principle that welds the apparently heterogeneous into the truly homogeneous.

I must not close without noticing a most noticeable trait of Sir Ashutosh—his sympathy with the students in their troubles and difficulties. As Vice-Chancellor he was always accessible to them. He was always ready to listen to their grievances but in redressing these he never deviated into undue leniency.

Perhaps the greatest merit of Sir Ashutosh is that in the midst of an academy, he has never been merely academic. He has never relaxed his hold on himself and has continually brought all his attention to bear on the realities of life. This concentration, it is, that distinguishes a great man from the ordinary man: the latter content with a mediocre ability in which he rests and lets go of himself, the former tense in the persistent endeavour to surpass himself. These again is, as the distinguished French philosopher has it, "the essence of genius, if it be true that genius is the vision of attainment won by years of labour, brooding and patient expectancy."

It is no wonder then, that one so full of personality should find his identity splashing over and spraying over around. All his works bear the stamp of his genius—a fact that was acknowledged by Dr. Schuster when he dedicated his

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"Progress of Physics" to Sir Ashutosh and it is the same fact again testified to by the students and his admirers who have presented to the University his bust that I request your Excellency to unveil.

THE GOVERNOR'S SPEECH.

His Excellency in reply said:—Mr. Vice-Chancellor and Gentlemen: I need say very little on this occasion. We listened with great interest to the eloquent tribute which the President has just paid to Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee and no words of mine could add to the appreciation we all feel for him; I am glad however to have an opportunity of acknowledging my own appreciation of the work done by one whom, during the last 2½ years, since I came to Bengal, I have learned to count among my friends.

Few men have accomplished more than Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee has done. As a scholar he stands in the front rank in three great branches of learning. He is far more learned than most men are even here, in Sanskrit, far more familiar with the lore of the ancient Sastras. He has added largely to the sum of the world's knowledge of Mathematics, as a lawyer he has few equals.

He has always used his great gifts in the service of his fellow-countrymen. His career has been marked by independence of thought, and independence of action. Whether as an advocate of social reform on the public platform or as a fellow-citizen in the Councils of the City and of the State, or as an administrator and scholar in the University, Sir Ashutosh has fearlessly given to his countrymen his very best.

Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee has been a champion of the people; especially he has been the students' friend. Those who have the privilege of his friendship know the genuineness of his character and know what seems to me at least, one of its finest features—his devotion to the memory of the father who watched over his early years and saw with pride the early promise of his career—and to his

mother in whose loss we so recently sympathised with him.

These characteristics are not Eastern or Western. They are the characteristics of true men—of great men—and command the admiration of men all over the world, the knowledge of them breaks down all barriers between East and West.

Gentlemen, I am proud that it has fallen to me to have the privilege of unveiling this bust of Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee.

The bust was then unveiled amidst prolonged cheers.

It contains the following inscription:—

"Sir Ashutosh Mookherjee, Kt., C.S.I., M.A., D.L., D.Sc., Ph.D., Saraswati, Sastravachaspati, Vice-Chancellor, 1906—1914."

Who has developed the University of Calcutta into a Teaching University and has thus helped to realise, in a large measure, the inspiring message of our Gracious Sovereign.

Who has furnished the will and found the way to achieve this end by the establishment of the University Law College, the foundation of the University College of Science, the organisation of the University Classes for Post-graduate Studies, the creation of thirteen University Chairs, the extension of the University Buildings, and the expansion of the University Library.

Who has brought the students of this University into personal contact with Masterminds from foreign lands and has stimulated original research by Indian scholars.

Who, by his Brahminical enthusiasm and unselfish devotion, has attracted magnificent gifts from private individuals and generous grants from public funds for the execution of his schemes, and has thus enabled his Alma Mater to fulfil her destiny.

Who, knighted by his Emperor, has proved himself a true and valiant knight in the sacred cause of the Advancement of Learning and the Dissemination of Knowledge, and has carried out the mandate of his Sovereign to effect a fusion of

the culture and aspirations of Europeans and Indians.

Who has been the brain of the New Constitution of the University and has with distinguished ability played the part of a Jessel in its interpretation and administration.

Who, while he has with fearless courage upheld law and discipline, has been ever ready to redress grievances, and has thus exhibited in the University, as he does elsewhere by habit, the endless resources of Justice.

This bust has been erected by his beloved students, with the co-operation of their teachers as a grateful tribute of their admiration, reverence and affection for him who has never failed in his strenuous, ceaseless and fruitful efforts to elevate their intellectual and moral character, and who has for their benefit dedicated his life to

"DISPENSING HARVEST, SOW-
ING THE TO-BE."

His noblest Achievement, surest of all,

The place for his Mother-Tongue in Step-
mother's Hall."

The Hon'ble Dr. Deba Prosad Sarbadhikari then proposed and Dr. W. H. Young, Hardinge Professor of Mathematics, seconded a vote of thanks to the Chair which was carried with acclamation.—*The Bengalee*.

THE SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION.

EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE.

The Educational Conference, under the auspices of the South India Teachers' Union, was held on Saturday, 2nd January 1915 at 2 P.M. in Pachaiyappa's College under the presidency of Mr. J. P. Cotelingham, M.A., Principal, Wardlaw Institution, Ballary. A large number of Professors, Headmasters and teachers from the various parts of the Presidency attended the Conference. The business meeting of the Conference was held at 11 A.M., at which the

Subjects Committee discussed the draft Resolutions. At 2 P.M. Rev. J. S. M. Hooper, M.A., delivered the Welcome Address.

WELCOME ADDRESS.

In the course of his interesting address, Mr. Hooper said that it gave him great pleasure to say a few words to those engaged in the noble teaching profession. The Conference represented the interests of the large body of men who were engaged in laying the foundation of character-building of the younger generation of men committed to their care. The schoolmasters were engaged in the noble task of moulding the character of the future manhood of India. The Conference was of special importance to the members of the teaching profession since it voiced forth the common cause of all the persons engaged in the same avocation in life. They were all fortunate in having in the South India Teachers' Union a central organisation that would enable them to place before the Government their common grievances and common interests. The Union had in it the possibility of tremendous usefulness for the teaching profession. The real value of the Union lay in its representative character. The Union would be representing the whole of South India upon all matters that concerned the teaching profession. They all had to work for improving the present condition and future prospects of teachers. The speaker then congratulated the Union on the successful representation it had made to the Viceroy in connection with the Provident Fund for teachers and he expressed also his satisfaction at the fact that it was received favourably by the Government. That was a great move in the right direction. If they all should speak as the representative body of the teachers of South India, they would be really doing a great benefit to the teaching profession. A spirit of "*esprit de corps*" was a very desirable thing among the teachers. Teachers had always exercised very great influence on the life of their students. The ideals of eminent teachers had great inspiration for their students. He had known many students holding their revered teachers' ideals

in high esteem. Great teachers had felt in their profession something high and noble that had a peculiar charm for them. They had felt very great pleasure in moulding the character of their students who showed life-long attachment to their teachers. It would be a hopeless task if the teachers themselves despaired of the success of the boys whom they had under their direct control. If there was any body of men in the whole world—who could lay claim to build the character of the nation, that body of men was found in the teaching profession. It would be in the interest of the profession if the teachers should try to quicken their minds with the highest ideals of fresh inspiration. In conclusion the speaker wished the Conference a very profitable session.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS.

The President in his Address said that it was always a pleasure for one to avail oneself of an opportunity to take part in the Conference of the South India Teachers' Union. He looked upon it as a privilege to be present amongst them on that occasion to say a few words to them on questions of educational interest. Western education had made it possible to hold Conferences and communicate the resolutions passed at such Conferences to the proper authorities. They heard here and there about the failure of western education in India. Such a thing, so far as he could say, had not existed. Western education had done immense good to India. No true friend of India would ever doubt the value of western education in India. Education had made rapid progress in India though it had not as yet reached that acme of perfection. They all hoped that the army of teachers in India would endeavour their best to attain that perfection. Education in India had largely aimed at the intellectual side. He hoped that the members of the teaching profession in India would bestow equal care on the question of character-building of the students entrusted to their care.

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Enthusiasm and aptitude for teaching were the two factors that were essentially necessary in a teacher. There was at present no lack of men of ability in the profession. One thing that was necessary was the mutual understanding among teachers regarding the spirit of education imparted to students of the present generation. It was a spirit that was not begotten of increase of salary or of maintenance of a system of provident fund. The saying was that a teacher was born and not made. The chief requisite for the proper discharge of the duty of a teacher related to the skill of a teacher to communicate his ideas to his students. Many teachers were unfortunately brought under the influence of faddists who advocated direct methods of teaching, correlation of studies without caring for the real necessity felt in the system of teaching. They all should have before them an ideal of education. Mere passing of examinations could not give one a real knowledge of the subject of teaching. Inspectors of Schools might come and go but the chief ideal of education always remained the same. Hearty co-operation of the parents of the students with the teachers in their work would bring on best results. The issuing of progress reports had brought about wonderful results. They all would have successfully tackled the problem of education if they should find a solution to the question of home training and discipline. The position of Headmasters was becoming more and more difficult in the matter of promotion of students. The Inspector insisted on the efficiency of the students and the Managers were anxious to retain in the school as many students as possible in the interest of the financial stability of the school. The Headmaster was in reality between the devil and the deep sea. According to the present system the teachers and the taught were living and moving in the world of marks; averages and percentages loomed largely in the programme of the daily work in the schools, character-formation should be the sole aim of the teacher. No teacher would have successfully

carried out his mission if he had not made the sacrifices expected of him. They all must work as teachers and character-builders.

Mr. A. Panchapagesa Iyer, M.A., L.T., then thanked Mr. J. S. M. Hooper for the valuable address he delivered and said that the members of the South India Teachers' Union were very much indebted to him for his words of welcome.

The Annual Report of the Union was then adopted. The following are extracts from the Report:—

THE ANNUAL REPORT.

The Executive Committee of the South India Teachers' Union beg to present the following report on the working of the Union for the period shown above. The report covers a period of one year and 11 months as the Conference that should have been held in May last had to be postponed for unavoidable reasons.

'Strength.'—In the beginning of the year 1912-13, there were 16 affiliated associations with a strength of about 400 members. Four associations were affiliated during this period and three had to be disaffiliated owing to their indifference and long standing arrears, so that at the end of the year 1912-13, there were only 17 associations constituting the Union. In the year 1913-14 there have been neither admissions nor withdrawals.

Finance.—It will be seen from the balance sheets (Appendices A and B) that the balance at the end of the year 1912-13, as well as that at the end of the year 1913-14 was very small, the same having been Rs. 11-4-1 at the end of the former and Rs. 21-2-10 at the end of the latter. A sum of Rs. 71-13-0 was collected by way of capitation fees during the year 1912-13, and Rs. 51-6-6 was transferred to the Union account from the Casket Fund made up by the collection of donations in the same year for the presentation of an address to His Excellency the Governor of Madras Rs. 58-4-5 was the amount

collected as capitation fees for the year 1913-14. The disbursements for the year noted above amounted to Rs. 119-8-0 and Rs. 49-15-3 as against Rs. 126-8-6 and Rs. 119-8-0 successively during the years preceding those under report. As many as seven associations are still in arrears for 1912-13 while all the associations except those of Bapatla, Nazareth, Tenali and Madura are in arrears for 1913-14. It is a matter for regret that one very respectable teachers' association has not yet paid the capitation fees in full even for the year 1911-12.

A letter was received from the Secretary, Madura Teachers' Association, in which he requested that the claims of the Union on that association for the capitation fees for 1911-12 might be waived, as during that year it was badly off financially. The letter was circulated to the members of the Executive Committee and it was resolved to waive the claim subject to confirmation at this Conference. This subject has accordingly been included in the business agenda.

The S. I. T. U. Journal.—The objects of the journal could not be carried out for want of funds. A proposition was moved at the last Conference for making it obligatory on the members, to subscribe for the journal but it was referred back to the associations. Only one issue appeared during the year 1913-14.

Teachers' Registry.—The provision of Teachers' Registry has not been taken any advantage of as the S. I. T. U. Journal could not for reasons mentioned already be issued regularly.

The Educational Conference.—At the kind invitation of the Trichinopoly Teachers' Association the last Educational Conference was held at the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, on the 8th, 9th and 10th of May 1913. It was one of the most successful of the Educational Conferences the Union ever had.

RESOLUTIONS.

The following two Resolutions were moved from the chair and passed:—

1. This Conference of teachers from the various parts of the Madras Presidency begs to convey to His Imperial Majesty King George V, through His Excellency the Governor of Fort St. George, their unflinching loyalty and deep devotion to the British Throne and prays for early victory to the Allies in the present European war.

2. This Conference conveys its heartfelt condolences to His Excellency Lord Hardinge on the irreparable loss sustained by him in the death of his gallant son the Hon'ble Lieutenant E. C. Hardinge.

This resolution was passed in solemn silence, the audience standing. It was resolved to send a telegram to His Excellency the Viceroy, conveying the condolences.

Mr. A. Panchapagesa Iyer moved the following Resolution:—

3. The Conference notes with satisfaction that the Madras Government have approved the recommendations made by the Director of Public Instruction for giving a more prominent position to Indian languages in the School L. C. Scheme and prays that the consequent re-adjustment of subjects may be made without unduly burdening the course.

In doing so he said that no sound education would be possible unless this reform was carried out. There was a generality of opinion that the preclusion of the Indian languages from the scheme did not guarantee sound education. There seemed to be a consensus of opinion that to give up Indian languages would not be conducive to the growth of knowledge in the younger generation of the people of the country. Mr. M. Krishnamachariar seconded the Resolution; Mr. V. Sithapathi Naidu supported it; and it was carried.

The following Resolutions were then passed:—

4. This Conference is of opinion that the prohibition of private candidates to appear for Univer-

sity examinations is a hardship to teachers who may want to improve their position and prays the Senate to grant the privilege of exemption to teachers of over twenty-five years of age from the production of attendance certificates in colleges.

This proposition was spoken to by Messrs. M. K. Sundaravaradachariar, T. P. Ramanatha Sarma and V. Subbayya. Mr. A. Santhanarama Iyengar proposed it and Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Iyer seconded it.

5. This Conference regrets that the higher ranks of the Educational Service are not open to graduates of Indian Universities to the extent desirable and prays the Government to be pleased to admit into the ranks a larger proportion of them than they do at present.

Mr. P. S. Raghavachariar moved the resolution which was seconded by Mr. P. A. Subrahmanya Aiyar. Messrs. C. K. Krishna Iyengar, A. Panchapagesa Aiyar and V. Venkatasubbayya supported the resolution.

6. In view of the close relationship that subsists between Secondary and Collegiate Education, this Conference respectfully requests Government to nominate from time to time representatives of the High School staff to be Fellows of the Madras University.

7. This Conference prays that Government be pleased to recruit from time to time teachers employed in recognised schools and affiliated colleges, and relax for that purpose the rules relating to age of entrance to such service, and provide a certain proportion of vacancies being filled up by competent men outside Government service.

Mr. Raja Ram Iyer, Principal, Madura Hindu College, in moving the resolution, said that the subject was taken up by the Madura Teachers' Association and His Excellency was approached with the request embodied in the resolution. The answer given by His Excellency to the deputation that waited on him, though not

very definite, was encouraging. At the present time high appointments were given to European members that had no special qualification for the offices. Government also seemed to recognise the reasonableness of their position and it was but proper that the Conference should pass a resolution requesting Government to view their case with sympathy.

Mr. K. B. Ramanatha Iyer, who seconded the resolution, said that such a prospect would be a source of encouragement to competent men in private service and act as a stimulus for better and more ardent work. Messrs. A. Santhanarama Iyengar, Burra Seshagiri Rao and A. Subrahmanyam supported the resolution.

The Conference then rose for the day.

2ND DAY'S SITTING—4TH JAN. 1915.

The Educational Conference met again on Monday, the 4th January, in Pachaiyappa's Hall at 2.30 P.M. under the presidency of Mr. J. P. Cotelingam. A large number of teachers had assembled in the Hall on the occasion.

The following Resolutions were moved from the chair and passed :—

PENSIONS.

8. This Conference begs to convey its deep sense of gratitude to His Excellency Lord Hardinge and the Hon'ble Sir Harcourt Butler for the sympathetic and encouraging reply to the representation submitted by the Executive Committee of the South India Teachers' Union on the 25th November 1913, and begs to re-affirm the Resolution already submitted to the Local Government as well as the Government of India regarding old age pensions for teachers, which runs as follows :—

"This Conference prays that some provision be made for pensions to teachers who may be above 35 years of age at the time of starting the proposed Provident Fund on the completion by them of 25 years of unblemished service from the date of their employment as certificated teachers

of recognised schools and colleges affiliated to the Madras University."

PROVIDENT FUND.

This Conference re-affirms the resolution of former Conferences praying that the promised scheme of a Provident Fund for teachers be given effect to as early as possible.

COMPULSORY ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

This Conference is of opinion that in the interests of the general progress of the country the time has come for Elementary Education being made compulsory in Municipal areas, and prays Government to formulate and sanction a scheme for carrying out this object.

STUDY OF INDIAN HISTORY.

Mr. K. A. Veeraraghavachariar then moved the following resolution:—This Conference is of opinion that a more prominent position should be assigned to Indian History in the S.S.L.C. scheme and in the University courses of studies and is further of opinion that it can best be done by including the study of the subject of the History of India as an additional optional subject in Group C of the S. S. L. C. Scheme and by providing for the inclusion of it in Group III of the Intermediate Examination. In doing so he said that the study of Indian History in the High Schools was much neglected. A scientific study of Indian History was possible only in the College classes. The study of Indian History in the lower classes should be so conducted as to make the students have a fair knowledge of the subject before they began an advanced study of it.

Mr. P. Subramaniam who seconded the resolution said that there was a complaint that the students in the B. A. classes exhibited very poor knowledge of the Indian History. Such a state of things was due to the unsatisfactory method of teaching Indian History in the lower classes. If the Indian students should take a pride in the past glory of their country it was necessary that

they should have a clear knowledge of the history of their country. It was not at the present time sought to take away the subject from Group B of the scheme, but it was suggested that it would be in the best interests of students that the study of Indian History should be made more efficient and that Indian History should find a place among the subjects in Group C of the S. S. L. C. scheme. He wanted to free the Intermediate Curriculum from the incubus of classical History.

Mr. C. R. Srinivasa Rangachariar supported the resolution, and said that the amount of material available for use in the Intermediate and B.A. courses has been on the increase in ancient literature, archaeology and excavations and that the researches may be utilised by a proper University Professor. It is not true, as was said by a member in the discussions of the University, that enough material for the proper study of Indian History is not forthcoming.

TEACHING OF INDIAN HISTORY (AMENDMENT.)

Mr. N. Parameswara Iyer moved the following amendment :—

"This Conference brings to the notice of the Headmasters of High Schools the desirability of making a better provision for the teaching of Indian History in High Schools and urges on the Government and the Senate the necessity of introducing Indian History in Group III for the Intermediate Examination."

Mr. M. Krishnamachariar seconded the amendment. Opinion was sharply divided on the matter. Many spoke in favour of the resolution and others in favour of the amendment.

It was resolved to refer the matter to a representative committee and the committee was requested to report upon it to the next Conference.

CAPITATION GRANTS.

Mr. P. A. Subramania Iyer then moved the following resolution :—

This Conference while thanking Government for enhanced capitation grants recently sanctioned for Elementary Schools submits its view that the rates sanctioned are far from satisfactory, and prays that they may be further enhanced so as to attract a better class of teachers.

The mover gave statistics to show that the capitation grants given by the Madras Government were much lower than those of Bombay. Private charities and endowments in support of Elementary Education were not quite up to the mark in the Madras Presidency.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar in seconding the resolution expressed his sympathy with the resolution and said that he desired to point out the doubt whether the Government would agree to the proposal, as under the present circumstances it was said—he did not know on what authority—that the Government had under contemplation the suspension for the present of many schemes before them. Messrs. C. S. Ramaswamy Iyer and K. Subrahmanya Aiyer of Shiyali spoke in Tamil supporting the resolution.

The resolution was carried.

CONSTITUTION OF THE SCHOOL-FINAL BOARD.

Mr. V. Venkatasubbayya then moved the following proposition :—

This Conference desires to urge on the attention of the Government the advisability of having adequate representation of the High School staff on the S. S. L. C. Board. The mover observed that the S. S. L. C. Board consisted of four officials and four non-officials. The officials happened to be Inspectors of Schools, and Missionary interests were also well represented on the Board. The interests of the High Schools were not adequately represented on it. It was therefore necessary that two Headmasters of High Schools should be appointed to serve on the Board.

Mr. Paramasiva Aiyar seconded the resolution.

Mr. P. Seshadri at this stage moved an amendment to the effect that College Professors who had teaching work in the High School classes should, for the purpose of this resolution, be regarded as representing the High School staff. Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Iyer seconded him.

The amendment was duly seconded but when put to the Conference it was lost.

The original resolution was carried.

STIPENDS TO TEACHERS.

Mr. C. S. Venkatarama Iyer then moved the following resolution :—

This Conference is of opinion that the stipends now granted to teachers of all grades under training are inadequate and prays for the enhancement thereof.

Mr. K. Srinivasa Iyengar in seconding the Resolution said that when the Police officers under training were shown greater encouragement in the matter of stipends, he did not know why the teachers under training should not get liberal treatment from Government. Mr. A. Subrahmanya Aiyar spoke on it.

The Resolution was carried.

INDIANS IN THE EDUCATIONAL SERVICE.

Mr. A. Panchapagesa Iyer then moved the following Resolution :—

The Conference is of opinion that the pay and prospects of those employed in the Subordinate Educational Service are not attractive, that promotions are slow, that the invidious distinction between the Provincial Educational Service and the Indian Educational Service be abolished and that all officers doing work as Professors or other Educational officers, be they Indians or Europeans, be placed on the same cadre with the same salaries and prospects.

The mover pointed out the various disadvantages Indians were suffering from in the Subordinate Educational Service and pointed out that racial distinctions played a prominent part in the treatment of officers with reference to pros-

pects and pay. Such distinctions should be done away with, especially in view of the admitted fact that the Indian officers do as good work as their European brethren.

Mr. P. Seshadri in seconding the resolution said that under the present circumstances of the Education Service the best talent in the country was prevented from joining the Education Department for want of proper encouragement and that the race bar was an unjustifiable one.

Mr. P. Subramaniya Aiyar in supporting the resolution said :—“This Conference should not be unmindful of our brethren in Government service. Some of them are chary of joining the Union but they will certainly appreciate any efforts on our part to advance their cause, for is not their cause ours as well? It is the first part of the resolution that I shall concern myself with, for those who have preceded me have spoken on the second part ably and well. It is needless for one to demonstrate the elementary truth that at no time can the colour of the skin be the hall-mark of culture.”

The speaker dwelt at length on the Subordinate Educational Service—the neglected Cinderella of the services. If analogy were needed to show how much the British Government lags behind in the matter of adjusting work to reward, he would point out that Mysore and Travancore showed a juster and truer appreciation of culture-value. This singular valuation of culture on the part of British Government requires revision and reconsideration. One would rather expect the British Government to be the inspirer, and the Native States the inspired, in matters of this kind.

He pleaded for equal treatment to the members of all branches of Government service. He continued :—“This cry for equal treatment could be no strange one in these days when the tide of national enthusiasm was flowing high. The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Iyer, a disinterested witness, had no hesitation in declaring

that class to class, the Assistant Professors are decidedly superior to their counterparts in the Judicial Service. It could scarcely be too much to ask that the race of Assistant Professors should be treated as equals and not as mere Helots within the Educational domain.

The speaker felt constrained to expose two radical defects in the organisation and administration of this service. In the service as at present constituted, he went on :—“Culture is at a discount and has to wait unconscionably long for adequate recognition. Should the Assistant Professor be so vulgar or materially minded as to hanker after the flesh-pots of Egypt, he has to shake himself free from the trammels of culture and pass through the crucible of the Inspectorate. What elevating or purifying effects the Inspectorate can have on these chosen vessels of culture it is for those who are intimately acquainted with the ways of the Inspectors to explain. Whatever may be urged in favour of this system, justice is not one of its attributes. It constitutes the tragedy of Higher Education. It blesses neither the Inspectorate nor the cadre of Assistant Professors. A system that penalises culture and rewards absence of it cannot by any stretch of ethical or cultural doctrines be considered to be an ideal one.

Another element of injustice is the capricious operation of a principle that bids crabbled seniority pause and green youth hurried on to higher places. An honoured Assistant Professor of English may do all he can to exalt his subject, reach after patient waiting a higher grade and sit praying for more manna from above. But the Dispensers of Fate heed not his prayers. The angel finds other men and he is passed by. A junior,—fortunate in representing a subject that cries out for men—whom accident favours—is drafted into the higher grade. A system that gives scope for the play of accident—and accident can never be the arbiter in matters educational—and perpetuates an injustice of this kind, should not be allowed to endure.

But the good days of the Assistant Professors are coming. One can see the light creeping in, not through Eastern windows only but from the Western skies as well. For what does the vast mass of evidence tendered before the Public Services Commission signify? Are the Principals of Government Colleges not genuinely and eagerly responsive to the legitimate demands and aspirations of the Subordinate Educational Service? With this cheery prospect in front of us, it is open to us to ask, ‘How long, how long will this much-needed reform be postponed?’

We have again great and worthy allies in those who preside over the destinies of education in this Presidency. With Lord Pentland, so truly and justly beloved of all friends of education, and with the Hon'ble Mr. J.H. Stone, the trusted and tried champion of educational justice, pledges can never be mere scraps of paper and words are bound to be translated into deeds and the claims of justice and equality can never linger long for prompt recognition.”

LOCAL BOARD AND MUNICIPAL SCHOOLS.

Mr. A. Panchapakesa Iyer moved the recommendation of the Conference that Local Board and Municipal Schools should be aided more liberally than in the past.

Mr. P. Seshadri opposed the proposition, and pointed out that it was delightfully vague. Besides, the Government, he said, have been giving large subsidies for educational purposes, and such a proposition came with a bad grace from the South India Teachers' Union.

Mr. N. Paramasiva Iyer moved an amendment that Local Board and Municipal Schools should be placed on the same footing as aided schools in the matter of Grants-in-Aid.

The amendment was seconded.

The mover said that if he was assured that all Municipal and Board Schools were as liberally supported by Government as certain institutions referred to by Mr. Seshadri, then he would withdraw the Resolution.

The assurance having been given, the resolution was withdrawn.

TRAINED TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Mr. Sundara Varadachari moved the next resolution, Mr. T. S. Krishna Rao seconded it and it was carried by a majority :—

This Conference, while heartily thanking the Government of Madras for their order exempting teachers holding trained teachers' certificates of a lower grade but subsequently passing a higher educational test from having to undergo training again to qualify for higher grade trained teachers' certificates, prays for the extension of a similar privilege to holders of trained teachers' certificates of second collegiate grade by granting them first grade trained teachers' certificates.

This Conference, in view of the growing needs of education and the necessity for more help from Government, prays for alterations in the Grant-in-Aid Code to permit of increased help and to this end, appoint a committee of officials and non-officials, on which the Union shall be represented. (The proposition was put from the chair-).

SCHOOL L. C. SCHEME.

The Conference next recommended that the orders hitherto passed, circulars or syllabuses drafted in connection with the School L. C. Scheme, may be consolidated and published by Government, and further that any important changes contemplated in the scheme or in the syllabuses be published in the Gazette and opinions invited thereon from teachers, teachers' associations and others interested in education. The resolution was spoken to by Messrs. C. K. Krishna Iyengar and K. A. Viraraghavachariar.

TIME OF ANNUAL CONFERENCE.

Mr. C. K. Krishna Iyengar brought in a resolution to the effect that the Educational Conference should be held next year and after during the midsummer vacation.

A number of resolutions relating to the Union and its administration was then passed. The

Guild was At Home that evening to the members of the Conference. Mr. P. A. Subrahmanya Aiyar of Tenali thanked the Guild for the entertainment.

NEXT CONFERENCE AT NELLORE.

A telegram from Mr. Santhanarama Iyengar inviting the Conference to meet at Nellore was read by Mr. P. Subramaniam, and the Conference accepted the invitation and resolved to hold its next session at Nellore.

PRESIDENT'S CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The President in bringing the proceedings of the Conference to a close said that the time at their disposal was very limited and they had to rush through many Resolutions for want of sufficient time. The Executive Committee originally arranged to hold the Conference on three days but they had at their disposal only two days. If more time was available, they could have had fuller discussions on the many subjects they had before them. It would be a great advantage to all of them if they came to know each other personally and if they could exchange their views on many subjects of educational interest. It was co-operation in the real sense of the word that was the one thing lacking among the teachers, as members of the corporate body which the South India Teachers' Union claimed to be. They needed a net-work of such organisations in the Presidency and he hoped that during the new year, which promised a lot of good to the country, such organisations would be formed and do effective work, work that would be calculated to advance the cause of education and the teaching profession in the country. He in conclusion expressed the hope that the new year would be one of prosperity and progress to teachers as a whole.

Mr. P. V. Seshu Iyer proposed a vote of thanks to the President, Mr. P. Seshadri seconding it, and the proceedings of the Conference came to a close.

We are requested to publish the following:—

AN APPEAL

SHOWING THE NECESSITY AND PRACTICABILITY

OF ESTABLISHING A

"HINDI SCIENCE UNIVERSITY IN INDIA."

The world has moved apace; but we Indians are still backward. Is it that we as a nation are unfit for greatness? No! Our past will give a lie direct to that. We were the greatest nation on earth at one time; civilisation dawned first in India. Our religion even to-day enshrines the noblest and the loftiest sentiments. Why then are we so backward to-day? Has our greatness departed for ever? No! We are still *thirty crores*. What is it then, that we want? We want Knowledge, and that in our own mother-language. We want a Hindi University, where knowledge will be imparted through the mother-tongue. We want books in the Vernaculars; and as a unifying centre we want a University, like the Gurukul of old, where everything will be given free. The task is not at all difficult. We require just half-an-anna per head of the population in India and we can thus collect *one crore* a year. Of this Fifty Lacs will be set apart for equipment and yearly expenditure and Fifty Lacs for the maintenance of the scholars, as was done in the old Gurukulas of India. Education in the University shall be entirely free. The students will dine, clothe and learn at the cost of the University. Those who want to pay will contribute to the general fund. Is this idea to remain a dream, an airy nothing. No! the time is ripe, the world is moving. Let us move also and realise our dream of Indian greatness. We do not require Lacs, nor do we require Thousands, nor Hundreds; we require just *two pice* a year or a handful of corn to start our Hindi University. Let all those who love their country who are proud of its past, who believe in its future, join and pay their quota, so that the beautiful web of our ancient, ideal University may again be woven on the loom of time to cheer and gladden, inspire and ennoble posterity and the general world in the days to come. If we only do this, all our troubles are gone; for the goddess Saraswati will again bring her sister Lakshmi to her beautiful ancient home, Bharat Varsha to live there for ever, as long as Saraswati reigns in India supreme.

May all our brothers and sisters respond to this appeal for the glory of our mother-country and our mother-tongue.

XXI

It is the good fortune of India that it is to-day under the benign, sympathetic and enlightened rule of His Gracious Majesty King-Emperor George V.; and it may be the will of Providence, that the everlasting credit for spreading Science and Knowledge in India be given to the British people. It is also the earnest desire of Government that the people should strive for their own good. In England there are a number of Universities endowed by the public. Let us follow the example of the great British race and work out our problems under their benign and sympathetic rule.

THE HINDI SCIENCE UNIVERSITY SOCIETY.

The name of the society shall be the Hindi Science University Society.

The object of the society will be to, remove ignorance, and to impart knowledge about scientific and industrial subjects through the medium of Hindi chiefly, or some other Vernaculars.

The first function of the society will be to spread the idea, then to create books in Hindi and the Vernaculars, and to prepare experts by sending scholars abroad, if necessary; to organise Branch Associations in India and finally to start a Hindi Science University in some important centre in India. Any Indian who pays half-an-anna per year will be a member of the Society. The first duty of every member will be to secure another member.

The head-quarters of the Society for the present will be at Baroda. There will be provincial organisations, which will then elect Trustees and the working body. For the present the central management will vest in the hands of the organisers, till regular Trustees and a working body have been appointed.

Each Branch Association will have a Secretary, a Treasurer and an Auditor and will keep itself in touch with the central body, till provincial bodies are formed.

Note:—Those who help the work of the Committee for spreading the idea will be called the Promoters of the Society; their contribution will be utilised to meet the initial expenses.

PROFESSOR LAKSHMI CHAND,

M.A., M.Sc., F.C.S., A.M.S.T.,

Editor, Vidnyan & Hunner,

Baroda.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

(INDIAN.)

The Study of English, by Mr. H. Malim, M. A.

Mr. H. Malim, M.A., writes to the *S. P. G. High School Magazine*:—

We must consider first what the object of such study is. We may want an acquaintance with its literature, and no doubt that is a very excellent motive. But the child must crawl before it can run: and any large acquaintance with English literature is too high an aim for the average school-boy. What he needs is a working knowledge of the language. He wants to be able to write a decent letter and to express himself clearly and fluently. I propose to consider now how he is to get this power.

Well, it need not be said that in the first place special attention should be given to the ordinary school teaching: but this is not enough. A man will never learn to swim by lying on a chair and moving his legs and arms like a swimmer. He must boldly plunge into the water. So grammatical rules and class lessons will never teach you to talk. You must practise conversation. No boy should speak a word of his vernacular in the school premises. If you would only make such a rule as this for yourselves, your powers of expression would increase very quickly. It is true that you would still make many slips of grammar and idiom, but class lessons would help to correct this.

Then there is the question of vocabulary. You will often find in conversation that there is some word which you want but don't know. The only remedy for this is much reading. Don't confine yourself to your class books, but use your school library, and choose your books carefully, or get your teacher to do so for you. Choose modern books as much as possible, for it is modern English that you want to learn. The language of Shakespeare, or Milton, or even Addison, can be kept for a later stage of study. Also it is not advisable to spend much time on poetry, for its language is different from that of prose. Novels are very attractive but if you must read them, don't read too many. They are so interesting that one has a tendency to pass over an unknown word and be contented with the sense of the passage—and this is not the way to increase your vocabulary. Don't read more of Carlyle and the Essays of Lamb than your curriculum compels you to. The former was a great philosopher, but

his idiom is often German: the latter a delightful humourist, but many of his allusions must be unintelligible to a beginner. Don't, as a rule, read novels translated from other languages, for they generally contain awkward expressions owing to the translator's difficulty in expressing the exact thought of the original.

What shall we read then? There are plenty of books written for boys, and since their language is simple they will suit you best. Read Kingsley's "Heroes" and "Madam How and Lady Why." Read "The Wanderings of Ulysses," which is certainly a translation, but a very good one. Read Dunn's "In England," which is interesting and instructive as well as a simple piece of English. There are abbreviated editions of "Prescott's Conquest of Mexico," whose style is excellent. But this list might be lengthened so as to fill up the whole of your *Magazine*, and after all you have, as I said before, your teachers to consult.

Lastly don't store your memory too much with striking phrases and introduce them amidst your own words. This produces a patch-work effect. The other day I found in an essay the words 'The morning sea of silence broke into ripples of bird songs.' The sentence is fine enough, and is quite in place in the *Gitanjali* from which it was borrowed but when such a passage is mixed up with the commonplace language of a student, the result is absurd. It is almost as bad as the contrary error of introducing slang or colloquial expressions in the middle of a high-sounding passage.

Examinations in English, by Mr. Samuel C. Earle.

Mr. Samuel C. Earle writes in the course of a long and interesting article to the *English Journal*:—

The proper evaluation of attainments by examination has seemed to be more difficult in English than in most other subjects, for the reason that the teacher of English is expected to train his pupils in a number of subjects which are really quite distinct pedagogically and yet he has been in the habit of undertaking to try them all out by a single form of test. It seems to me that we now have evidence enough that satisfactory results cannot be reached in this way. "English" should be carefully differentiated into its special subjects, in order that the proper kind of test may be applied to each. The complications are the most evident in the case of the college-entrance examinations, so I shall limit myself to a consideration of them.

JAN. 1915.]

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

In the first place, the teacher of English is expected to train his pupils to use their native tongue correctly and effectively as a tool of expression. To test this ability no special examination is necessary; any examination in which the English language is used will serve. Credit should be given on the basis of the English used in all of the examinations submitted. Every one permitted to grade examinations in any subject ought to be able and should be required to pass judgment on the "English," and grade should be determined by the consensus of opinion. Only doubtful cases need to be reviewed by one specially concerned with English. If allowance is made for the stress under which the writing is done, such a method of examination gives safer ground for grading attainment than anything written as a test in English.

In the second place, the English teacher generally gives some instruction in "language," that is to say, in grammar and kindred sciences. For this subject a special examination needs to be given, but it offers no more serious difficulties than any other science. There is the danger of expecting from the pupil too definite an adherence to the special terminology the examiner happens to use; but this can be avoided if it is realized that the object of the examination is to measure the working knowledge of the pupil, in other words, his understanding of the facts that are necessary for an intelligent use of English and for the study of foreign languages.

In the third place, English instruction generally includes something of biography, and of the history of literature, that is, knowledge about literature and literary men and about the relations of literature to history and life. For this a special examination should be set, but it offers no problems that do not arise in making out examinations in history. In fact, the best work can be done in secondary schools by combining a broad historical study of literature with the study of history; and, in examining, the two might well be combined as phases of a single subject.

In the fourth place, there is literary composition. This is a most important division of the general subject, "English," but it would seem impossible to set for it any examination that would give fair grounds for judgment. Literary compositions written beforehand and submitted, unless in such amount as would swamp the examiners, would be of as little worth as most "show pieces" are; and as for work produced on demand in an examination room, it can have no real literary value, except in the cases of unusual pupils. How many teachers could produce anything under such

circumstances that in all charity could be called "literary"? The only satisfactory way to give credit for attainment in this branch of the subject would seem to be by a carefully guarded certificate that would indicate the amount and quality of work done.

In the fifth and last place, there is literary appreciation. No work that the teacher of English is called on to do is of greater importance than the development of literary appreciation, for in this he is penetrating to the very citadel of character. But again, how can the attainment be examined? Anyone can learn to quote critical comments, but would not we teachers ourselves feel at loss if we, were unexpectedly required to demonstrate our power of appreciation in measurable terms? Once more, the only satisfactory means of giving credit would seem to be the certificate.

Such a set of examinations, including careful tests of the applicant's ability to use English, and of his knowledge of important facts of language and of literature and history, and certificates as to the amount and quality of his reading and literary composition would seem to furnish fairly satisfactory means of determining his proficiency in the general subject. There remains to be considered what should be the results of failure to meet these requirements.

At present those outside of school seem more ready than school or college authorities themselves to accept the conclusion that those who cannot use English with creditable accuracy have demonstrated that their course of instruction has been a failure. But a realization of the importance of this subject is growing among educators, and the time should not be far distant when no one will be admitted to college or to secondary school who cannot express himself adequately on any subject that he offers for examination.

If a candidate fails in his language examination his treatment might be determined by the course he is to enter. For admission to a course in which language work is not continued, substitution of credit in some other subject might be allowed. If language work is to be continued, the student who fails should not be admitted unless opportunities are offered for properly passing off the condition.

If the failure is in the test of knowledge about literature, the student might well be excluded from any course that aims at giving general education, unless the condition could be made up. When no general courses are to be taken, substitution of units might be permitted.

In the cases of both literary composition and literary appreciation, credit given should count the determined number of points; but, more important than that, credit given or refused should be an important factor in determining what course the student should be permitted to enter. In all cases where the passing or failing to pass a subject thus determines the course a candidate may enter, it is, obviously, understood that the condition of entrance to a particular course should be determined by those who are competent to judge what should be considered necessary and what optional preparation.

Not only in the discussions of organizations of English teachers, but in the better-class magazines and even in popular periodicals, we find more and more evidence that the American people are awakening to a new sense of the importance of "English" as a part of the school work from the Kindergarten to the University. In the present ferment there are many confused and confusing ideas; but everyone appreciates the need of some efficient means of checking off the learner's progress, that is, of examining. It is evident that to be of any real value examinations must be of the right sort. Determining what the "right sort" is, is one of the best means of helping to clear the whole air, I believe, for it compels the examiner to decide with great care just what are the essential purposes of the instruction.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

Matriculation Age Limit. CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

A meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate House, College Square on the 9th inst. The Hon. Dr. Devaprasad Sarvadhikary, Vice-Chancellor, presided and there was a large attendance of Fellows.

The only important item before the meeting was to further consider the question of age limit of the Matriculation students. Section 3, Chapter XXX of the University Regulation runs as follows:—"No one shall be admitted to the Matriculation Examination, unless he shall have completed the age of sixteen years on the first day of the month in which he appears at the Examination." The Syndicate recommended that in that Section the words "the last day of the year" be substituted for the words "the first day of the month." Sir Guru Dass Banerjee moved the amendment to the effect that the word "fifteen" be substituted for the word "sixteen."

The Hon. the Vice-Chancellor in opening the debate said that the matter was partly discussed at the last meeting and at the suggestion of Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee the debate was adjourned till that day and in the meantime the Vice-Chancellor was requested to hold a Conference of medical men and other members of the Senate interested in the question to consider and report to the Senate a fairly definite period which an average Bengali boy could be expected to read the condition of adolescence. That Conference was held. The Vice-Chancellor then read the opinion of the individual members who expressed their opinion at the Conference.

Mr. J. R. Banerjee said that in considering whether a boy was fit to be a college student or not should be considered not by the age limit but by the ability and high character of the student.

Rai Bahadur Dr. Chuni Lal Bose was opposed to the lowering of the age limits of the Matriculation students and in support of his contention he cited an authority for a report prepared by a Professor of the Calcutta Medical College showing that the Indian boys were inferior to the European and Anglo-Indian boys of the same age as regards their health and physique.

Mr. D. N. Mallik after comparing the practice prevailing in the Universities of London and Birmingham on this point said that it would be a great hardship to the students here if they should be legislating on an absolutely English basis.

Mr. W. Owston Smith felt that sixteen years represented the greatest concession they could make for their clever students. They did not want their colleges to be filled by little boys.

Mr. W. A. J. Archbold opposed the motion and maintained if possible to raise the age of the Matriculation students rather than lowering it in the interests of the students.

Dr. G. Howells supported the motion and said that he did not see any reason why Bengal should be different from every other part of the British Empire. From his experiences he found that there were certain boys who were fully able at that age, as proposed by the Syndicate, to appear at the examination without any degree of pressure. Yet they wanted these boys to remain at school—it was nothing but inflicting a really practical evil. Then again the question of appearing at the competitive examinations at Home—the Civil Service Examination—had something to do with it.

Dr. W. H. Young also supported the recommendation made by the Syndicate.

Mr. F. C. Turner opposed the motion.

The Hon. Mr. W. W. Hornell opposed the motion and said that he had not received any complaint regarding inconvenience and hardship caused to the students owing to the fact that the boys were not able to appear at the Matriculation Examination earlier.

Mr. J. N. Mitter did not understand why there was this extra demand for raising the age limits of the boys. They must consider that in this climate development takes place at a very early stage. If they went on increasing the age limits of the boys, what would be the period left to them to face the world.

The Hon. Mr. J. G. Jennings agreed with the Hon. Mr. Hornell.

Rai Bahadur Kumudinikanta Banerjee was opposed to the change.

The Hon. Mr. Madhusudan Dass supported the motion and said that they could not really make a dull boy bright by increasing his age. Nothing should be done to hamper the progress of the brilliant students.

Babu Baidyanath Narayan Sinha was in sympathy with the motion and said that if they wanted to improve the educational system they could not do that by raising the age limit.

Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee said that there were three alternative courses: first, the adherence to the existing system, secondly, the adoption of the proposal made by the Syndicate, and lastly the proposal made by Sir Guru Dass Banerjee. After a most careful consideration of the matter the conclusion he had arrived at was, the amendment proposed by Sir Guru Dass ought not to be supported. He would therefore confine himself to the other two alternative courses. Of these two, the one recommended by the Syndicate, was in existence from 1858 to 1879, a period when the University produced its best fruits. The Syndicate was now asking them to revert to the old system which had been actually in force for twenty-one years. There was absolutely no shadow of danger involved in the proposal. In this connection he asked them not to be misled by parallels of Indian and European Universities. He was not a politician, but he knew that in politics those who drew parallels between India and England were often told "this is India and that is England."

The Hon. Babu Mahendranath Roy having briefly replied, the Vice-Chancellor in a few well-chosen words summed up the debate.

The amendment of Sir Guru Dass Banerjee was then put to the vote and lost.

The recommendation of the Syndicate was next put to the vote and confirmed, 25 voting for and 18 against it.

Reviews and Notices.

STUDY OF CHEMISTRY AND FIRST AID, BY H. E. PRATT, M.A., I.E.S., AND P. C. WREN, M.A., I. E. S. (LONGMANS, GREEN & CO.) Price: Rs. 1-4-0.

The book is a handy volume, consisting of two parts, Part I being a study of 'Elementary Chemistry, and Part II, treating of 'A first aid to the injured.'

Part I deals with the elementary principles that every learner of Chemistry should know and comprises a brief study of *elements and compounds; the effect of heating or burning some common substances; the composition of air; water and its distillation; preparation and properties of oxygen and carbon dioxide, and the relation between metals and non-metals.* The amount of information conveyed under these headings is quite essential and free from unnecessary details or irrelevant matter, and is presented in a charming and scientific manner in the form of suitable experiments, illustrated with neat sketches of the arrangement of the apparatus employed. No less important and interesting is Part II, which aims at a brief study of *accidents and mishaps*, which are so common in our daily life, and lead to injury and often, to loss of life, but of the remedies of which the majority of people are so sinfully ignorant. Very frequently there occur accidents that cause bleeding, burns, broken bones and danger to life through drowning, poison, or snake-bite. How often has ignorance of what to do until the doctor comes has caused the loss of hundreds of lives that might easily have been averted! Part II seeks to convey the essential knowledge of the 'principles and practice' of *First Aid*, as it is called. The stopping of blood-flow during bleeding and the proper tying of bandages; the use of *splints* and *stretchers* in the case of fractured or broken bones; the precautions for preventing the flow of blood poisoned by bites of *venomous snakes* such as cobra, Russell's viper and krait; the administering of *antidotes for irritant and narcotic poisons* like arsenic, iodine, lead, copper, mercury and opium, *bhāng* add chloroform; the means of producing *artificial respiration* in cases of *drowning*; the method of *putting out the flames* when a person's garment takes fire and the application

of remedies for burns and scalds: These things are described in a simple and practical way and amply illustrated by means of a number of carefully-drawn diagrams. The usefulness of such information to the public unskilled in the art of medicine and healing, cannot be overrated and it is quite a happy idea that induced the authors to bring out a very useful book in this direction, and they are to be congratulated on the eminent success of their task. We feel sure it will be a valuable handbook to the learner of 'Chemistry and First Aid to the Injured.' The printing and the get-up of the book are excellent and attractive, as the publications of Messrs. Longmans Green & Co. generally are.

- (1) ELECTRICITY AND ELECTRICAL MAGIC; (2) MECHANICS AND SOME OF ITS MYSTERIES; (3) FLYING AND SOME OF ITS MYSTERIES; (4) CHEMISTRY AND CHEMICAL MAGIC—BY V. E. JOHNSON, M.A. (HENRY FROWDE, HODDER AND STOUGHTON, LONDON). 1s. 6d. each.

We sincerely regret the delay in our noticing these books.

These little volumes form a series dealing with the lighter and more amusing sides of Science and therefore, properly called 'Play-books of Science.' Stories illustrative of moral truths are apt to appeal to young minds more than abstract aphorisms and better conduce to moral lessons being strongly impressed on them; even so, in gaining an acquaintance with some branch of Science, boys would certainly prefer intellectual recreation to cut and dry lessons; even if this acquaintance were to be gained with no other aim than amusement, it will be a pleasure in itself and may, in fulness of time, prove a stepping stone to higher things. The author's aim, in these little books, is to provide boys with material for intellectual amusement and, in doing so, he has rightly realised that different subjects naturally appeal to different readers. The amateur conjurer will find greatest interest in the volume on 'Chemistry and Chemical Magic'; the would-be airman will relish most the volume of 'Aeronautics,' the development of which branch of study now plays so important a part in peace and war as well; the budding electrician will turn with greatest zeal to the treatise on *Electricity and Electrical Magic*, and the future Engineer to that on *Mechanics and its Mysteries*.

In each of the subjects, the experiments for the performance of which clear instructions are

given in a simple style and illustrated by carefully drawn sketches, do not form a disjointed series, but are designed to convey a connected account of the scientific principles and phenomena that should be driven home to the minds of young readers; with this end in view, explanations are added then and there for precautions to be taken in the manipulation of apparatus or scientific truths to be learnt from the experiments. The apparatus required for some experiments are naturally such as every reader cannot afford to provide himself with; but in most cases, they can be easily made or cheaply had.

Interesting as each experiment is from a scientific point of view, we may name a few ones that will readily appeal to young minds, by reason of their results being surprisingly noticeable or of the apparatus therefor being within their means or easily procurable.

Electricity:—The obedient bottle-imps; the magnetic acrobats; the magnetic oracle; the rapping and talking table; the spiritualistic cash box; the floating magnet motor; the spark over water; the electric torpedo; the electric bomb; the magic pane; the electric chimes; Nobili's rings.

Aeronautics:—Magnesium balloon; steering the kite; bird glider (of thick paper); looping the loop.

This volume gives a fund of information on the construction and management of monoplanes, biplanes, etc.

Mechanics:—Remarkable balancing feats; an egg balanced on the edge of a glass bottle or jar; obedient and disobedient figures; the earthquake top; the gyroscope; the boomerang; the sympathetic pendulums, the sand pendulum, and the skew-pantagraph.

Chemistry:—The shifty photograph; the magical drawing; a zoological transformation; magical portraits on glass; fire stars burning in water; Will-o'-the-wisp; Pharaoh's serpent; silver tree; Chinese fire-eating; spur rowels, and the mysterious scorpion.

The printing and the get-up of these volumes are excellent and invite reading as much as their contents. The publishers as well as the author are to be congratulated on the production of such a series for the imparting of useful scientific knowledge through such pleasant media. We trust that, if only the learner should himself do the experiments, though in a more or less crude way at first, he will find it a real delight that it is intended to be; nay, in the course of the work,

there will come into play qualities that will stand him in good stead in matters of greater importance or pursuit of higher knowledge.

A FIRST BOOK OF NATURE STUDY, BY E. STENHOUSE, B. SC. (LONDON): (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Price 1s. 6d.

Nature Study is indeed interesting and instructive and its importance in school work is receiving increasingly great recognition now-a-days even in India esp. Madras Presidency, where till a few years ago it had no place in the syllabus of studies in Secondary Schools. This handy volume deals with a number of topics concerning animals, plants, rivers and rocks. Chapters I and II treat about the rabbit and other British mammals such as rats and mice, insectivora, the domestic cat and the dog, the fox and the hoofed mammals. The growth and usefulness of plants, forming, at it were, the food-makers of the world, are described in Chaps. III and IV; while flowers, fruits and some common trees are treated of in Chaps. V—VII. Under the heading 'Pond life,' Chaps. VIII and IX contain a brief study of the plants in and near the pond as well as animals of the pond, such as the carp and the stickleback, tadpoles, the common newt, mollus and fresh-water snails. Chapter X talks of dwellers in the soil such as the mole, centipedes and millipedes and the earthworms. Chapter XI is devoted to 'flying animals,' and deals with the nature and action of wings of insects and birds. The remaining chapters speak about the work of a river and the formation and work of limestone, granite and British volcanoes.

The arrangement and presentment of the subject-matter, and the number and excellence of the illustrations as well, do immense credit to the author who has succeeded in his endeavour to make these lessons 'suggestive rather than merely informative,' so as to arouse the pupil's desire to gain fuller knowledge by personal investigation. The scheme of practical work and the set of exercises appended to each chapter greatly add to the usefulness of the treatise. It is a nicely printed and neatly bound handbook. Apart from the question of its suitability or otherwise, in its present form, as a text-book in Indian schools, we feel sure it will prove a very valuable guide to young learners interested in the study of Nature.

MECHANICS AND HEAT, BY J. DUNCAN, WH. EX. M. I. MECH. E. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.) 3s. 6d.

This volume is intended to provide a course of instruction on the principles of Mechanics and Heat and awaken interest in the application of these sciences for students not quite familiar with the practice of *Engineering and kindred constructive arts*. Though mainly intended to serve more or less as a text-book helpful to pupils preparing for certain examinations in England, the book will be found suitable for use in some technical schools, where students are introduced to the practical applications of physical principles to be met with in a course of Applied Physics. The book consists of two parts devoted to Mechanics and Heat. The course of instruction in Part I comprises a study of the following amongst other things:—Triangle and parallelogram of forces, parallel forces; stress, strain and elasticity; strength and stiffness of beams and shafts; work, mechanical advantage and efficiency of machine; velocity, momentum and centrifugal force; hydraulics, water-pressure and specific gravity; hydraulic machines and turbines. Part II (Heat) treats of the measurement and effect of heat, the properties of steam and other vapours and gases, the composition and heating values of different fuels; the action of the different parts of steam-engines, petrol motors and motor-car engines. In these days when motor-cycles and motor-cars form one of the important means of conveyance, gradually displacing carriages and coaches and are owned by many persons, a study of the concluding portion of the second part will be of interest and use to drivers and chauffeurs of such vehicles also.

The author's aim is, as already said, to explain the application of physical principles and this is done by means of carefully-designed laboratory experiments and a large number of problems (in some cases, fully worked out) of the kind that are likely to be met with in every day workshop life. The arrangement of subject-matter and method of presenting it are as good and interesting as the nature of the subject and the aim of its scope will allow and do credit to the author. The indication of a course of Laboratory experiments numbering about 70, and the addition of a set of mathematical tables will serve to enhance the usefulness of this publication. Of course the printing and the general get-up of the book are neatly done and the illustrations carefully drawn. We heartily recommend it as a useful guide to learners taking up the study of *Applied Mechanics and Heat*.

FIRST PRINCIPLES OF HYGIENE, BY W. D. STURROCK, D.M. (CLARENDON PRESS, OXFORD), 2s. 6d.

We owe an apology for the delay in our noticing the book. Medical science that deals with the conquest of disease, includes within its scope the curing of disease as well as the prevention of disease. That aspect of it, which treats of cures has, in recent years, received considerable development, while as regards the other branch, not less important in its bearing on the health and happiness of the people, there has been a lamentable lack of impetus for the spread of the knowledge of laws of health among the masses, nay even amongst the so-called educated classes. Fortunately, the importance of the subject is now receiving increased attention at the hands of the Government. The publication of suitable handbooks on the subject is one of the important factors contributing to the advancement of such learning. There are publications and publications, and it is only a few of them that serve any useful purpose to the people at large. This volume on Hygiene is one of few such publications. The aim of the author is to present a course of instruction on the *Principles of Hygiene*, that actually concern us in our everyday life; in doing so, he has rightly striven to keep two main principles before his mind, namely to provide the requisite amount of knowledge of the working of the various organs of the body, and to avoid all unnecessary details of *Anatomy* and *Histology* but to limit them to the absolute minimum essential to the proper understanding of *Applied Physiology*. A few pages (pp. 55—80) are devoted to the study of quasi-scientific subjects such as atmospheric pressure, climate, temperature, humidity of the air, rainfall and the influence of the sea and forests, so that the learner may be properly equipped for comprehending their application to *Physiology* and *Hygiene*. In the *Introduction* covering about 10 pages, a clear idea is given of the *Object of Hygienic study* and of the *Nature and Work of Bacteria* and special stress is laid on the *resisting power* inherent in us, which, if assiduously cultivated by observing the laws of health, will make us almost immune from diseases or at least serve to greatly mitigate our bodily sufferings. A brief preliminary sketch of *Anatomy* and *Physiology* of the human body, which a rational study of *Hygiene* implies, is contained in about 30 pages. *Hygiene* proper is treated of in 9 chapters covering about 170 pages. To name only the most important items of subject-matter dealt with therein, we may mention the following:—

Water:—Probable impurities in drinking water, and their detection and effects. Sources of water-supply, wells, tanks, rivers, etc. Water-supply to

towns: precautions to be taken: construction and use of various filters:

Food:—The need for food: different food principles, Proteins, carbo-hydrates and fats, and mineral salts; Milk: its composition and use: richness and purity: detection of adulteration of milk, lactometer and cream-measurer; Meat, eggs, poultry and fish; vegetable foods; cooking and preservation of food; Diet and its accessories.

Digestion, Absorption and Excretion:—The structure and work of the chief organs connected with these functions, such as the mouth, the stomach, and the intestines, the liver and the kidneys as well as of the skin and the lungs: the metabolism of food principles.

Personal Hygiene:—Production of heat and regulation of the temperature of the human body: oxidation of the tissues; exercise, work of the skin: sweat; respiration; clothes; bathing; cleanliness of the skin, hair, tooth etc.; rest and sleep.

Buildings:—Soil, situation and house construction; ventilation of heated buildings; methods of heating, open fires, closed stoves, hot air and hot-water pipes; lighting of buildings; domestic water-supply.

Drainage and removal of refuse:—Removal of liquid waste, solid refuse and excreta; particulars regarding the construction of a drainage system; disposal of sewage; cesspools.

Prevention of Disease:—Need for good air, good food, good rest and good habits: immunity from particular bacterial diseases increased by precautionary methods such as vaccination, inoculation, isolation and disinfection. Disinfectants and the methods of using them: details relating to the nature and cure of so widespread, so fatal and so preventible an infectious disease as tuberculosis or consumption as it is commonly called.

The amount of information given under the head-lines indicated above is quite ample, and, in places, say under 'Buildings' and 'Drains,' extends even to very minute details. The arrangement and presentment of subject-matter bespeaks great skill and careful thought on the part of the author who has eminently succeeded in his task. Though, to be suitable as a text-book in Indian schools, much of the contents may require simplification and conditions of Indian life may well receive special consideration or mention, we trust that the book will prove a very useful guide to learners taking up the study of *Hygiene* in earnest. It is needless to say that a publication of the Clarendon Press is neatly printed and nicely got up in every way.

HYGIENE: FIRST STAGE, BY R. A. LYSTER, M. D., B. Sc., D. P. H. SIXTH EDITION (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LD.), 2s.

This book is one of the selected text-books in Science published by the University Tutorial Press. It affords a suitable course of study to students reading *Hygiene* as a subject under the Elementary Science group of the S. S. L. C. scheme. It may well serve as a book of reference in higher grade elementary schools for boys and girls. The main feature of the book is to make the broad facts of elementary human physiology serve as introduction to the several parts of practical hygiene. Thus an account of the skeleton, the nervous system, the muscular system, the alimentary system, the circulatory system, and the excretory system forms fitting introductions to the chapters on ventilation, diets and examples of food, cooking, beverages, cleanliness. The chapters on clothing, exercise, water-supply, and removal of house refuse contain very useful information and that on accidents and emergencies is intended to serve as 'first aid' at home. Exercises on practical work at the end of each chapter is a special feature of the book. The author has well achieved his aim "to treat the successive points in logical order, and to give unity to the subject instead of presenting a medley of facts."

PIERS PLOWMAN HISTORIES: JUNIOR BOOK VII, BY E. H. SPALDING, M. A., AND PHYLLIS WRAGGE (GEORGE PHILIP AND SON), 2s.

We are glad to note that the authors have carried out in this the suggestions we gave when we reviewed the back numbers of these histories in August 1913. The selection of topics is a carefully-thought-out one and reflects great credit on the authors. Each topic is dealt with in an interesting way, the interest being heightened by apt quotations from the original sources and standard authors. Like the previous ones, this volume abounds with very useful illustrations. A simple and graceful style is maintained throughout. The book may be safely put into the hands of the IV Form pupils. The get-up and finish leave nothing to be desired for which the publishers deserve to be congratulated.

Indian Educational Notes, MADRAS.

Government Orders.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Re. 20,000, towards the cost of purchasing a building with site for the Deaf and Dumb School, Madras, subject to the following conditions:—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 that all the 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 Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Re. 4,532, towards the cost of reconstructing the wings attached to the main building of the Town High School, Guntur, now under construction, subject to the following conditions:—that, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer are adopted; and that all the 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 Committee of the Lawrence Memorial School, Ootacamund, will be informed that, in addition to the recurring grant of Rs. 3,500 per annum already sanctioned by the Government of India, that Government have now sanctioned a recurring grant of Rs. 11,500 per annum, with effect from the 1st April 1914, and also a non-recurring grant of Rs. 45,000 during the current financial year. The Committee's request for grants received with Sir John Wood's letter No. 806, dated the 17th April 1913, has thus been fully complied with.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Re. 14,820, towards the cost of additions and improvements to the building occupied by the St. Joseph's High School, Cuddalore, subject to the following conditions:—that, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note are adopted; and that all the 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.

In modification of paragraph 2 of G. O. No. 418 Educational, dated the 1st July 1907, the Government are pleased to increase the number of *scholarships* available for European students from two to four; and of these two will be assigned for

boys and two for girls. Of the four scholarships, three will be awarded to students of the third year class of the B. A. Honours course, each being ordinarily tenable for one year only, and one to a student reading for the B. L. degree in the Law College.

Under article 50 (c) of the Code of Regulations for European Schools, the Government sanction, as a special case, a half grant of Rs. 3,250, to the Madras Collegiate Girls' School, Vepery, for the purpose of liquidating an outstanding debt incurred in erecting a new building for the school in 1904. The grant will be subject to the condition that a trust deed is executed by the manager of the institution containing, among other matters, a provision to the effect that, if the building is, before the lapse of twenty years from the date of payment of the grant, diverted to other than educational purpose, the Government shall have a prior lien upon the building for the recovery of the grant. The charge will be met from the provision under 22-G, Education—Grants-in-Aid in the civil budget estimate for 1914-15.

The Indian Science Congress—The Second Indian Science Congress began its session on the 20th inst. at the Presidency College before a large and distinguished gathering of delegates and visitors. There were about a hundred members of the Congress present at the opening session. H. E. The Governor was received by the Hon. Dr. J. L. Simonson, Secretary of the Congress. Some of the delegates came from Bombay, Bengal, Mysore and Travancore.

H. E. The Governor gave an interesting speech on the value of such meetings and after that the Hon'ble Surgeon-General W. B. Baunerman delivered his presidential address.

Subsequent to the presidential address, a group photograph was taken with His Excellency in the middle.

Later on the members of the Congress met in the Physics Lecture Theatre where the Section of Agriculture and Applied Science gathered for hearing a paper on the lines of development of Indian agriculture.

The Physics section of the Congress met on the second day (16th instant) under the chairmanship of Mr. U. V. Ramau, Vice-President of the section. Mr. Ramau gave an interesting account of his recent researches on Elastic Impact and illustrated his discourse by a large number of photographs. One of the remarkable results arrived at by him was that by a new process of photographic record, it was found possible to prove that metal balls, even of the softest metals, such as lead, &c., rebounded from one another as India-rubber balls, provided the velocity of impact was small. He explained the *modus operandi* of pneumatic hammer hitting the string in a grand piano as well as the intensity of the sound in different directions produced by a collision of two billiard balls. Dr. E. P. Harrison

exhibited and explained a new apparatus designed for the measurement of the expansion of metal wires under tension at high temperatures. Dr. D. N. Mallick showed some slides explaining electrical discharges in gases under the action of radial magnetic fields. Mr. C. Michie Smith gave some interesting records on the climate of Kodaikanal. Mr. J. Evershed contributed a paper and exhibited a few slides showing very remarkable sun spots. Mr. S. Appasami, of the Presidency College, gave an interesting account of some researches carried on by him on a new method of exciting vibrations in stretched strings.

On the same night Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Pentland entertained the members of the Congress at a reception in Government House, and a large number of the delegates responded to the invitation. Dr. Simonson, Secretary of the Congress announced each guest to Their Excellencies, who received and shook hands with them. There was a pleasant hour spent by the guests present in social intercourse. Refreshments had been provided, and H. E. the Governor's Band played excellent selections of music.

On the last day's sitting (Saturday 16th inst.) the Ethnography section met under the Chairmanship of Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya. The Chairman contributed an instructive paper on "Some Aspects of Ethnographic work." In speaking on Totemism he observed that castes lower in status were aspiring to a higher status in the scale of castes. Gotras were claimed and customs revealing a lower status in caste were suppressed. By means of performing *tamkaras* ordained for higher castes, lower castes began to claim allegiance to higher castes.

An interesting discussion then followed. Dr. N. Annandale explained the difference between Anthropology and Ethnology, and proceeded to dwell on the peculiarities of anthropometry. On the subject of the anthropometry of Calcutta Eurasians Dr. Annandale observed that the Eurasians were much more mixed than Dr. Thurston was prepared to concede, and added that anthropometric measurements of Eurasians had not yielded satisfactory results.

Dr. S. V. Ketkar, who next spoke, said that caste used as an abstract noun connoted several ideas, such as institutions, customs, &c. He observed that the phrase "Origin of caste" was meaningless. Before the advent of Aryans, there were several tribes who later on divided themselves into castes. The division into Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vysias and Sudras was simply a social theory, and not a fact. The observance of sacraments made the divisions more pronounced. The Brahmins monopolising priestly functions migrated as a separate race and settled down among the people of other classes. They divided themselves into sub-castes and sects and such divisions were due to the development by them of differences in civilisation, customs, &c. Guilds also became castes. On the subject of social reform Dr. Ketkar observed that the social reformers about

a decade ago wanted to effect reforms without undertaking the business of social investigation. When constitutional changes had to be effected in social matters, the highest castes alone should take the lead, as otherwise the reform propaganda was bound to fail.

Mr. T. A. Gopinatha Rao's paper on "Viragals" described the custom of setting up memorial stones in honour of heroes who fell in battle, as also of women who died for their husbands. He cited authorities in Tamil literature and explained the ceremonies relating to the custom.

Mr. L. A. Cammiade exhibited a few photographs of Viragals, one of which depicted a hero killing a tiger with a stone hatchet. He drew pointed attention to the plaited hair of the hero as distinct from the tuft.

Mr. L. Ananthakrishna Iyer contributed a paper on the pre-historic monuments of the Cochin State and gave an interesting account of his excavations of a sepulchral monument.

The Congress held a business meeting in the afternoon with Dr. N. Annandale in the chair.

Among other items of business transacted the Congress passed a vote of sincere condolence to Dr. J. R. Henderson on the lamentable death of his wife.

The Congress resolved to hold its next annual session at Allahabad.

The Madras Christian College Day—Mr. M. Krishnan Nair, B.A., B.L., the Dewan of Travancore, presided at the public meeting held recently in celebration of the Christian College day. In the course of the speech delivered by him on the occasion he said:—

An occasion like the College Day enables us, the past and present students of the College, to meet on a common platform of equality and friendship, to renew old friendships and form new ones. It gives opportunities to the present students of making the acquaintance of their elders who, after finishing their education in the institution, have left its portals to fight the battle of life in the larger world outside. It links the past and the present. The past students amongst us who are tossed on the waves of worldly cares get an opportunity to-day to escape from their troubles and enjoy a haven of rest and happiness. A College Day like this engenders a spirit of union among the students and creates a feeling of reverence for our *Alma Mater*. An annual assemblage of brothers scattered in different parts of the country under the same roof and in the bosom of the family, to demonstrate their fraternal affection to one another and their love and respect for their mother does good both to the children and the mother. The College Day has the effect of making us rally round our *Alma Mater* when any danger threatens her.

When I stand before you this evening, old memories come back crowding to me. Though twenty five-

years have rolled on since the day when I left these sacred precincts as a student, it seems to me that it was but yesterday I still remember with pleasant recollections, the happy days which I spent within these walls listening to the words of wisdom which fell from the lips of my revered Professors. Some of them are no longer with us, but others fortunately are alive and working in Madras even now. Dr. Cooper is dead and gone, but his name is embalmed in our memories. Dr. Skinner, Mr. Pittendrigh, and Mr. Macphail, some of the other Professors at whose feet I had the honour of sitting, have been spared to us and are carrying on their work of love even to-day in our midst.

We who have had the benefit of being trained in this institution know that the most important educational work carried on here cannot be tested by statistics and the results of examinations. The moulding of character by precept and example which takes place day after day and which is a slow, silent and interesting process is probably the most important function carried on in the Christian College. The strict attention that is paid to the inculcation of moral principles and enforcement of moral discipline has been always a special feature of this institution. The Professors, both past and present, have always taken a deep and abiding interest in the development of the moral character of their students. Character is the salt of life. It is that which ennobles man and preserves him from the sway of the baser passions and the evil ways of the world. Intellectual attainments, however high, are worth nothing and often dangerous without character.

Rising from humble beginnings the Madras Christian College has, under the fostering care of successive Professors and Educationists of eminence, expanded and assumed its present magnificent dimensions. The one figure that stands out in bold relief amongst a band of noble Educationists who have shaped the destinies of this College, is the venerable figure of Dr. Miller. He is the great educational force that Southern India has seen and one of the greatest benefactors of our country. On the occasion of unveiling Dr. Miller's portrait in the Senate House the other day, His Excellency Lord Pentland referred in graceful and eloquent terms to the services rendered to this part of India by this eminent Educationist. He joined this institution as a young man in 1862 and laboured hard for the good of this country for a period of 40 years. During this long period, he was the centre of all educational activities in Southern India. There is a special toast in honour of Dr. Miller and it is perhaps not quite proper that I should refer to him in greater details here. However, I may be permitted to say that we hope that his message which will be read to us presently will not be, as he says, his last. As mentioned already Dr. Miller joined this institution in 1862 and it was raised to a College in 1867. It was consolidated and placed on a firm basis in the year 1877 under the designation of the Madras Christian College. Since then, the history of the institution

has been a record of steady and rapid progress in all directions. Like the broad and majestic Indian rivers which, commencing as tiny and insignificant rills, gather volume as they proceed and fertilise the regions through which they flow, the Madras Christian College, commencing as an insignificant educational institution about three quarters of a century ago, has gathered volume as it proceeded and fertilised educationally the barren fields of Southern India. May the noble stream flow on for ever increasing in volume as it proceeds and fertilising more regions in its beneficent course. There is no part of Southern India where Christian College graduates are not found. In the British districts of the Madras Presidency and in the Native States of Mysore, Travancore, Cochin and Pudukkottai, Christian College graduates occupy prominent and responsible positions. The public service whose tone has in recent years been considerably improved has been immensely benefited by the employment of Christian College graduates. Many men who had their education in this institution are employed as schoolmasters in different parts of the country and act as centres from which beneficial influences radiate in all directions.

My young friends, the present students of the College, permit me to give one or two words of advice to you. Be always truthful, honest, straightforward, manly and obedient to your professors and teachers. I know that advice like this is always given to you by your professors. Believe me, however, when I say that it can bear repetition any number of times. Cultivate also the habit of respecting the opinions of your opponents. You will find that the habit of regarding the opinions of those who cannot agree with you, with consideration and respect, will be of considerable assistance to you in after life.

May the Christian College shine as a beacon light to illumine the minds of generations yet unborn. May God in His Divine Mercy and Infinite Wisdom bless our College and its Professors and its past and present students. Ladies and Gentlemen, I propose the toast of the College and its Professors and couple with it the name of Professor Crawford.

Rao Bahadur Professor M. Rangacharya Portrait unveiled.—A very pleasant function took place on the 13th inst. at the Presidency College, where a large gathering of friends and admirers of Rao Bahadur M. Rangacharya, retired Professor of Sanskrit in the Presidency College, Madras, had assembled to witness the ceremony of unveiling a portrait in oils of the Professor by the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer. Among those present were Messrs. E. W. Middlemast, Principal of the Presidency College, W. Erlam Smith, J. H. Mackintosh, E. W. Green, K. L. Datta, S. Krishnasami Iyengar, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Iyer, Dewan Bahadur L. A. Govindaraghava Iyer, and K. Krishnasami Rao, Rao Bahadur M. A. Parthasarathi Iyengar, Rao Sahib S. Bhayyandam Pillay and Messrs. M. O. Parthasarathi Iyengar, B. Hanumantha Rao, G. Venkataranga Rao and C. Raman-

Jam Chetti, besides the staff of the Presidency College.

Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnasami Rao, on behalf of the Memorial Committee, requested the Hon'ble Mr. Sivaswami Iyer to unveil the portrait and Mr. Middlemast to accept the portrait after unveiling.

The Hon'ble Mr. Sivaswami Iyer, before performing the function of unveiling, spoke as follows:—

I consider it a very great privilege indeed to be allowed to participate in the proceedings of this evening for the purpose of doing honour to one of your most distinguished professors. The Presidency College has been associated with the names of some of the most distinguished educationists who have laboured for the good of this Presidency, and I know of none who holds a more honoured place in this band of educationists than Professor Rangacharya. In ripeness of scholarship, in versatility, in single minded devotion to the cause of learning and of education, in the gift of lucid exposition, he has been excelled by none. Gentlemen, his life has been devoted to the cause of education almost from the time when he finished his scholastic career. From the year 1884 down to the day of his retirement last year he has laboured in the field of education. It is one of the anomalies of the educational system of this country—an anomaly which has gradually tended to disappear—that a person appointed to any particular chair is not allowed to hold that chair to the end of his career. The necessities of the educational department and the peculiar conditions of recruitment have often compelled the educational department to change professors from one chair to another. Perhaps Mr. Rangacharya was more fortunate than others, not perhaps so fortunate as my old teacher and friend, Mr. Hanumantha Rao, in that he had not to be shifted to so many chairs as other distinguished educationists have been. He filled the chair of Professor of Physics and Professor of Chemistry in all the three first grade Government colleges in this Presidency. From the post of Science Professor to that of Professor of Sanskrit might perhaps be thought a somewhat strange deviation, but nobody who knew Professor Rangacharya, of his taste for Sanskrit literature, of his special interest in the problems offered by Sanskrit literature and Sanskrit philosophy, could doubt that in the chair of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology he found his most congenial sphere, and his previous training as a teacher of science was by no means an unsuitable equipment for the chair of Sanskrit. His study of Sanskrit was always characterised by a critical and historical bent of mind which is the outcome of scientific studies. Too often the charge has been levelled against those who have taken up the study of Sanskrit that they do not study it with the critical or historical spirit of a western savant. That is a charge which could not possibly have been made against Professor Rangacharya. His attitude towards our ancient literature was one not of blind respect for things that are old merely because they are old, but an attitude of reasoned

reverence, and it was that attitude that he tried to inculcate in the minds of his pupils and those to whom he has lectured. I have had the good fortune of knowing Professor Rangacharya for about 15 years since his appointment to the chair of Sanskrit in the Presidency College. I have often met him in the Senate and listened to his speeches with admiration. Whatever subject the Professor took up he had a peculiarly happy way of dealing with it, of lifting it above the dull common place view of things to a higher level of thought and of discussion. It might be said of him, as it was said of one much greater, that you could not spend five minutes with him without finding out that you were talking to a man of distinguished intellect and culture. The most dominant notes, perhaps, of his speeches and of his lectures were the breadth of view and the calm dispassionate judgment that he took of things of which he had to treat. The care which he took to inform himself on subjects on which he had to speak, a care which is by no means a common virtue of gentlemen who come forward to address people, and it was a delight to hear his eloquent speeches or discourses. Gentlemen, a life such as his has the supreme reward of satisfaction that arises from a harmonious development of one's intellectual and moral faculties and from having made an impression on the minds of generations of students.

Recently, a sketch appeared of his life in one of the local periodicals, and it was said, with perhaps a note of sorrow, that his is an uneventful life. I do not know that an uneventful life is a life to grieve over. An uneventful life is probably one of happiness to the individual and of happiness to the community in which the uneventful life is spent. It was also said that the material rewards of his gifts were perhaps not as large as might be wished. I am afraid that in striking that note the writer adopted a view which I should strongly deprecate in the case of educationists. An educationist works for much higher reward than mere worldly rewards. Professor Rangacharya attained the highest position that is open to an Indian to attain in the Provincial Educational Service, and if he did not attain a higher position, take comfort from the thought that it was no fault of his. But, as I told you, the material rewards are those which ought to appeal the least to people engaged in such a noble work as education. Who that has sat at Professor Rangacharya's feet could have failed to carry away some portion of his enthusiasm for learning, some amount of his enthusiasm for high ideals, for simplicity of life and of that consciousness of the sacredness of one's vocation in life which was such a distinguishing feature of Professor Rangacharya's educational career? I am sure that the true way of commemorating Professor Rangacharya's services to the cause of education would be for you to follow in his footsteps, to aspire after the high ideals that he put before you, and to endeavour to acquire true scholarship and that harmonious development of all one's faculties which I think is the salient feature of Professor Ranga-

charya's life. It is a matter of very great pleasure indeed to be permitted to perform the function which has been so kindly assigned to me this evening. I now proceed to unveil the portrait.

The portrait was unveiled amidst great acclamation, and the portrait, which has been painted by Mr. C. R. Narayanaswami Naidu of the Madras School of Arts, is a very faithful likeness of the Professor and was much admired by those who have known and seen the Professor.

Mr. E. W. Middlemast in accepting the portrait said on his behalf and on behalf of his colleague, that the portrait would find a fitting home beside the portraits of two distinguished men, also professors of the College, viz., Messrs. Edmund Thompson and G. H. Stuart. Those two alas! had gone never to return, but he was glad that Professor Rangacharya is still in their midst and would be available both to the Government and to the University in the cause of Sanskrit literature. Professor Rangacharya and he were colleagues in the Kumbakonam College in 1894, and at his first introduction to him, he remembered being very much impressed by the extent of learning and versatility shown by his then colleague. It would be very hard to find a match for such versatility. Mr. Sivaswami Iyer had spoken of the frequency of transfers in the Educational Department and of putting square men into round holes, but though Professor Rangacharya had been put into many holes, he was always a round man in a round hole.

Mr. Middlemast said in conclusion that he had great pleasure in accepting the portrait with gratitude from the Memorial Committee, and he wished that Professor Rangacharya would live long to enjoy the retirement from service.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Seshagiri Iyer proposed a vote of thanks to the Hon'ble Mr. Sivaswami Iyer for unveiling the portrait and Mr. Middlemast for accepting the same, and also complimented the artist on the extraordinary care with which he executed the work.

Rangacharya Memorial Movement.—The following are proceedings of a meeting held in the Presidency College, at 5.45 P.M. on Monday, the 11th inst. with Mr. G. Venkataranga Rao, M.A., in the chair.

Resolved that, (1) in accordance with a widely expressed feeling, it has been considered desirable that a committee consisting of Messrs. (1) T. A. Venkataswamy Rao, Proprietor, Law Printing House, Madras; (2) K. S. Desikan, Student, Law College, Madras; (3) T. A. Gopinatha Rao, M.A., Superintendent of Archaeology, Trivandrum; (4) Kerala Varma, 10th Prince of Cochin; (5) K. Balasubrahmanya Ayyar, B.A., B.L., "Aerama," Mysapore; (6) K. R. Ramaswamy Ayyangar, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Engineering College, Madras; (7) R. Srinivasan Iyer, B.A., Head Master, Town High School, Kumbakonam; (8) M. Vedantacharya, Mysapore; (9) T. S. Narayana Iyer, M.A., 7-4-

High Court Vakil, Madras, be formed with Mr. T. A. Venkatasamy Rao as convener, to collect subscriptions from the old pupils and friends of Professor Rao Bahadur M. Rangacharya, and also from such others as may be interested in the Rangacharya Memorial Movement, with a view to found a medal or scholarship, as the case may be, in connection with the University of Madras;

(2) and that the subscriptions be sent to Mr. T. A. Venkatasamy Rao and deposited in the Indian Bank.

The above propositions were proposed by Mr. T. K. Venkatarama Ayyer, M.A., and seconded by Mr. S. P. Singaravelu Mudaliar, B.A. A sum of nearly Rs. 3,000 was subscribed on the spot by those present at the meeting.

All old students, friends and admirers of Professor M. Rangacharya are requested to send their subscriptions to Mr. T. A. Venkatasamy Rao, 11, Mount Road, Madras, or directly to the Indian Bank, Ltd., Madras, to the credit of the account of "Rangacharya Memorial Fund."

The Thirty-fourth Anniversary of the Madras Progressive Union School.—The 34th Anniversary of the Madras Progressive Union School was celebrated with great éclat on the evening of the 23rd instant, under the presidency of Mrs. Annie Beant in the Annamalai Mudaliar Hall of the institution. The School-house was tastefully decorated with ferns and hummings for the occasion. There was a very large gathering of the members of the Union, teachers and pupils, parents of pupils and well-wishers of the school. The programme consisted of prayers in Tamil and Telugu, English recitations and dramatic enactments conducted by the members of the Sri Saratha Vinodhini Sabha and these were successfully gone through. The Secretary, Mr. C. Nilakanta Mudaliar, then read the Annual Report. The strength of the school at the end of June 1914 was over 700 as against 585 at the end of June 1913 and four new sections had to be opened. Even then many boys who wished to join the school had to be refused admission for want of accommodation. The average daily attendance showed a satisfactory improvement. In the year under review it was 88% as against 86% in the previous year. The Teachers' Retiring Fund was working satisfactorily. The Inspector's remarks were uniformly favourable. His Excellency Lord Pentland honored the institution with his presence on the 6th February 1913. His Excellency was pleased to make the following observations in the Visitor's book of the school:—"It has been of great interest and satisfaction to me to have had this opportunity of seeing the Madras Progressive Union School." The receipts for the period under review amounted to Rs. 29,731.85 and the expenditure to Rs. 27,713-10-0. Then the President distributed as many as 108 prizes to deserving pupils. Two special prizes were also given for Vernacular Composition by Messrs. V. Duraisamy Pillai and V. S. Raghubatha Sastriar, B.A., B.L. The President in winding up the

proceedings of the evening congratulated the management for the successful Anniversary and the masters and pupils for the discipline maintained by them which enabled her to distribute the prizes very rapidly. She was glad to learn that the school had become a very successful institution in Madras from a very small beginning. It was her desire that there should be a network of schools throughout the country managed by elders and parents of the pupils on purely national lines imparting moral and religious education by means of stories taken from the ancient Hindu Puranas.

Referring to teachers she said they should live the greatest life, their vocation being consecrated. In ancient times the teachers were held in great reverence. But now the teacher has fallen into disrepute as people honor men for their wealth and not for their knowledge. It behoved every one present to raise the teacher to his ancient level of glory. Regarding education she said it was the natural right of every child. The poor found it very difficult to get educated and had to beg from door to door. The richer classes should freely help them instead of building and gilding temples with their money set apart for charities. The practical side of education had to be improved. The hand had to be trained as well as the brain. Every school should have its own 'Boy scouts.' Specialization had to be postponed to the college classes. The health of the school-going population should be carefully looked after. Indians have brilliant brains but not brilliant bodies as most of them become enfeebled in middle life. The health of the children should not be undermined by the infliction of home lessons. They should be allowed to play in the open air till their animal spirits become exhausted. She insisted on the necessity of having medical and physiological inspection of school-children for eradicating such diseases as myopia, curvature of the spine, etc., which would become difficult to be cured in their after-life. Finally she exhorted the managers and teachers that since they are the trustees and builders of the future generation they should always have a progressive ideal of education and not a conventional one.

With a vote of thanks to the chair, with the distribution of flowers and the singing of Mangalam and the National Anthem, the proceedings of the evening came to a close.

The Educational Exhibition, Erode.—At 9 A.M. on the 18th December, a large number of teachers from Elementary Schools, and Managers of Schools, in the Erode and Dharapuram Taluks of Erode Division, Bhavani and Gobichettipalayam Taluks of a Gobichettipalayam Division, assembled in the Government Girls' School at Erode.

Mr. P. N. Muhammed Miran, Revenue Divisional Officer, Erode, President of the Exhibition Committee, offered a hearty welcome to all and said that the initiative of the Exhibition came from the Teachers' Association, Erode, and the members of the Executive Committee, the Municipal Chairman, Erode, and the Revenue Divisional

Officer were requested to take the lead and do the needful and said that he was highly gratified to associate himself with the Exhibition, the first noble duty imposed on him after he assumed charge of the division. The Exhibition was intended for the Elementary School Teachers of the Erode and Dharapuram Taluks and also Gobichettipalayam and Bhavani Taluks, both under the Taluk Boards and private management. He said that they had tried their best to get all useful exhibits from different schools in the said Taluks and valuable exhibits have been received from the office of the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, and the Teachers' College, Saidapet. The Home exhibits which had been kindly arranged for by the Rev. H. A. Popley were stuck up at Bombay and were not likely to reach during the Exhibition. He added that as President of the Taluk Board there was much onerous duty laid on the Revenue Divisional Officer in looking to the spread of Elementary Education all over his division. A sum of over Rs. 20,000 is spent by the Erode Taluk Board alone every year for Elementary Education, and there were 56 Elementary schools under the Taluk Board for boys and only two for girls. The Exhibition was likely to be of high educative value to the teachers of Elementary schools that had assembled there. The cost of running exhibitions of the kind was nothing when compared with the enormous expenditure incurred for the spread of Elementary Education by the Government and local bodies, and that it was his earnest desire to see the Exhibition at Erode as an annual function for the Elementary Schools in that division at least.

The Rev. A. W. Brough in opening the Exhibition made reference to the regret of those assembled there at the absence of Mr. Kershaw, of the Educational Department, who was unable to be present on that occasion. He supposed, he had been chosen for that ceremony, as the senior representative in the District of the London Missionary Society which had always been the pioneers in the cause of Education and had opened the very first school in the whole of the Coimbatore District over 90 years ago. The society had now 78 schools, in the eastern part of the District alone,—more than all the Government and Municipal schools put together.

He remarked that the Educational Department should encourage such exhibitions in every way possible. An exhibition brought out the latent powers in each teacher, and created a very desirable spirit of emulation among the different teachers in the different schools. The value of it to the children also was great as the objects made by the teachers were used afterwards to aid in teaching their classes.

Mr. Brough wound up a very striking and forcible speech by an appeal to the teachers assembled to realise the nobility of their profession. He pointed out to them that the future of the young lives of India was very largely in their hands and that it depended upon their personal character more than anything else as to whether their influence upon their pupils would be such as to draw out the best and the noblest in them for their service to India and for humanity in general.

Mr. T. Srinivasa Mudaliar in proposing a hearty vote of thanks to the Rev. A. W. Brough said that owing to the unavoidable absence of Mr. Kershaw he had to be selected for the function almost at the eleventh hour and the mantle had fallen on a worthy shoulder and one who has been working lifelong for the education of youths in the district, and told the audience as to how the financial strain had to be borne by the members of the Committee, Mr. B. S. Viswesam then thanked first Miss Arnold, In-

spectress of Girls' Schools, and the Head Mistress of the Government School in placing the school house at the disposal of the Exhibition Committee, and expressed his thanks for the ready response he had received from several institutions and thanked Messrs. Macmillan and Co. for sending up such fine exhibits.

The ladies and the gentlemen present there headed by the Rev. A. W. Brough then entered the spacious hall where the exhibits were arranged.

Mr. S. V. Balraj, B.A., L.T., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, gave a very good model lesson on "Correlation of Studies" under the chairmanship of the Rev. H. A. Popley, B.A. Both gave a valuable instruction in Tamil to the teachers. Mr. Panchapagesa Sastri, B.A., L.T., Assistant, London Mission High School, gave an interesting lesson on the method of teaching Geography under the chairmanship of Mr. B. Sadagopa Iyengar, M.A., L.T., Assistant Inspector of Schools. The Chairman, Mr. Rangasami Iyengar, addressed the teachers for avoiding cramming and pointed out how Dakshapayanam and Uththarayanam might be easily taught to the boys. At the close of the day Mr. Balakrishna Mudaliar gave valuable hints on the teaching of Drawing with Mr. Viswesam in the chair. The teachers appreciated highly what both of them said on the subject.

There was a large gathering of teachers for all the subjects and those were taken up as per programme.

Special arrangements were made for admission of ladies only to the Exhibition Hall placed in charge of Miss Inglis, M.A., between 7-30 and 9 A.M. A lesson on Survey was given by Mr. V. S. Narayana Rao, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Gobichettipalayam, with Mr. Kadirvelu Pillai, Tahsildar in the chair, in the Municipal Elementary School, Erode. Teachers and others assembled again at about 9-30 A.M. after all the ladies left the Exhibition Hall. Mr. Muthia Gounder gave an interesting lesson on the method of imparting Physical Instruction with Mr. T. Srinivasa Mudaliar, B.A., B.L., as Chairman. The Chairman stated that the boys should not be allowed to take any violent exercise and recommended the use of some of the native games. There was a drill competition at about 10-30 A.M., conducted by Mr. C. G. Gordon, the Rev. B. A. Popley and Mr. V. S. Narayana Rao. Only five teachers competed and every one of them had his own boys who were given drill practices in different ways accompanied by music and songs. Mr. Chelalaya was declared to be the best instructor in drill. Mr. Gordon gave some practical instructions on military drill. Then there was drawing composition conducted by the above mentioned persons and by Mr. Sadagopa Iyengar, M.A., L.T., Assistant Inspector of Schools.

In the afternoon Mr. Venkatarama Iyer, B.A., L.T., addressed the teachers on "Number and Space Work" with practical hints on the subject. Mr. Ramaswami Sastri, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the Mahajana High School, as Chairman gave valuable instruction for work to be done under the same in each standard. Mr. Gnanasundaram Chettiar gave an instructive lecture on "Nature Study" from a typical plant explaining the functions of root, stem and leaves. Mr. P. N. Muhammad Miran who occupied the chair availed himself of the mounted specimens and charts exhibited by Messrs. Macmillan and Co., and briefly explained the vital difference between an animal and plant.

The Rev. H. A. Popley and Mr. B. Sadagopa Iyengar, M.A., L.T., made impressive speeches on the importance of

instruction to boys committed to the care of Elementary School teachers on different subjects.

Mr. Visvesam then announced the medals, prizes and certificates awarded. On the whole the Exhibition was a great success.

Mr. P. N. Muhammad Miran in closing the function expressed that the success of the Exhibition was entirely due to the untiring energy and laborious work of Mr. Visvesam, who had been the real worker from the commencement of the movement and that the brunt of the duty had fallen heavily on the shoulders of the Secretary and that he had a really colossal task in arranging the exhibits in proper places. He thanked him on behalf of the Committee for his hard and arduous task cheerfully done and said that he would be ever remembered as the first organiser of the Exhibition of the kind in the district. He regretted that Mr. Kershaw could not be here to give the closing address and advise the teachers assembled.

In proposing a vote of thanks to the President, Mr. Visvesam, B.A., observed that very seldom the Revenue Divisional Officers took any interest in matters educational and that the interest the President evinced throughout was unique. His eloquent address to the teachers and his lesson on Nature Study were very much appreciated. He prayed that Mr. Muhammad Miran would be very long with them and by his sympathy and encouragement would bring Elementary Schools in the division to a very efficient condition. He also proposed a vote of thanks to the members of the Committee and to Mr. Sadagopal Iyengar, M.A., L.T., for the help rendered towards success of the Exhibition.

With three cheers to His Majesty the King-Emperor and with the singing of the National Anthem the proceedings came to a close.

TRAVANCORE.

Education in Travancore.—In the review of the Travancore Government of the annual report on education for the Malayalam year 1089, the chief event of the year which finds mention is the abolition of the inequality of treatment of the European and Indian Professors which has afforded the utmost gratification to all educated Indians. The number of recognised schools increased during the year from 1763 to 1771 and the number of pupils from 204971 to 225341. The large increase in the number of pupils, 20370 is most gratifying. The number of State schools rose from 828 to 841 and the number of pupils from 132616 to 146291. There was also a similar rise in the number and strength of private aided schools. The number of these rose from 856 and 65530 to 863 and 72289 respectively. The number and strength of private unaided schools fell from 79 and 6825 to 67 and 6753 respectively. Turning to secondary education we are told that there was progress both as regards the number of schools and the number of pupils which rose from 72 to 76 and from 14,807 to 17,066 respectively. The amount spent on secondary education during the year was Rs. 81,668 of which the department schools absorbed Rs. 67,236 leaving Rs. 14,432 only for private institutions. The number of elementary schools decreased from 1,661 to

1,657 while the number of pupils increased from 1,88,400 to 6,06,308. The number of department schools rose from 781 to 786 representing an increase of 5 schools against an increase of 122 in the year previous. The number of pupils attending departmental elementary schools rose from 124,424 to 1,36,819. There was no change in the number of private aided schools but there was a fall in the number of unaided private schools from 46 to 37 while the number of pupils increased from 63,976 to 59,484, representing an increase of 5,508 against a decrease of 1,067 in the year 1,088.

BOMBAY.

A portrait of Mr. K. S. Aiyar, late honorary Principal of the Government College of Commerce, was unveiled recently at the College by the Rev. Dr. D. Mackichan.

Principal Anesthy of the College gave a long history of the movement and said the students, who presented this portrait, had honoured Mr. Aiyar not as their first Principal but as an educationist. He paid a personal tribute to Mr. Aiyar.

Dr. Mackichan said he had come to the college with a fuller knowledge of the college, its work, its staff, its aspirations and its students and what he saw there impressed him of the sense of vitality of this youngest college. The college had just concluded the second year of its existence and in that brief space of time it showed signs of maturity and development, which associated with a college of long standing. They were that day about to perform one of those acts which associated with colleges with long history because it was not every college which within two years of its existence was able to unveil a portrait. He felt somewhat out of place in a college of commerce because his connection with commerce was of an invisible description, yet he was interested in it not because it was connected with arts and associated with money-making and other material progress, but because it was an institution of culture and an integral part of the University of Bombay. And he was glad to find the students of this college begin with a very high ideal.

Dr. Mackichan then referred to the personal qualities of Mr. Aiyar at great length and said that from the beginning he had recognised him as an enthusiast possessed with a great idea and determined to carry it out. There were some, he said, who thought that in Bombay only were to be found the life energy and impulse which moved the great Indian Empire, but it was well for them to learn that there were other Presidencies which could furnish a man, who could lead them with energy. He had been impressed with one feature of the Madras Presidency, namely, hard and persevering work and Mr. Aiyar was a typical representative of that part of India from where he came. He was glad that Bombay had through this institution added one to many others on which they rested

their claim of being "*Urbs prima in India*" and yet notwithstanding that they owed it to a member of the other Presidency. However, Mr. Aiyar now belonged to Bombay and he had become one of their distinguished citizens. Had it not been for Mr. Aiyar, this college would not have come into existence and no institution was more distinctly connected with an individual than was this college with Mr. Aiyar. He hoped that just as Mr. Aiyar's presence had been an inspiration to earlier students so the light of his portrait seen day by day by generations of students would continue to be an inspiration to them during these coming years. By unveiling this portrait the students had set before them the effigy of one who had been an example to students—an example which it would be well for all of them to emulate. Mr. Aiyar had set before them an example of patient, persevering, devoted and unselfish work and what better example could they like to have than the life of the founder of the college. Dr. Mackichan in conclusion, announced that though they were in a hired building at present, they would before long be in a building of their own with all the comforts and conveniences necessary for the life of a modern student. Besides they would have a good hostel and also an athletic field. And he hoped that this college would take its place along with all the colleges in the Presidency in every department of college life.

Dr. Mackichan then unveiled the portrait, which was an oil-painting by Mr. M. Pithawalla, a Parsi artist.—*The Times of India*.

CALCUTTA.

Education in Bengal—The "*Calcutta Gazette*," publishes the Bengal Government Resolution on the Report of the Director of Public Instruction for the year 1913-14:—

The Resolution states that Government Arts Colleges continued to attract a large number of students, the total number on the rolls on March 31st, 1914, being 3,171, as compared with 2,905 at the close of the previous year. The Presidency College further improved its system of control of under-graduate work, and the fitness of students to appear at the degree examinations is now determined by the record of class work and not by text examinations as formerly. More interest was taken in the seminars and a spirit of co-operation between professor and pupil is becoming manifest. An attempt to secure co-operation in other directions was successfully made by the formation of a Consultative Committee elected by the students. This Committee brings before the Principal any matter of interest to the students. Applications were made for extended affiliation in the subjects of Botany, Geology, Physiology and Philosophy, and the extension of the chemical laboratory was begun by the end of the year.

The establishment of a residential secondary school for Indian boys on the lines of an English

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public school was decided on during year under the report as a result of the representations made on the subject by many prominent Indians. The school will be housed temporarily for five years in Hastings House which has been lent for the purpose by the Government of India. The necessary structural alterations and additions are now complete and it is hoped to open the school with a small number of pupils at a very early date.

Purely vernacular teaching continues to decline in favour. The teaching of English appears to be a necessity for the welfare of any but lower primary schools, for both middle vernacular and upper primary schools are on the decline. The unsatisfactory nature of the upper primary curriculum is also partly responsible for the decreasing popularity of the upper primary schools.

The number of lower primary schools in the Burdwan and Presidency Divisions decreased very considerably. The floods in Burdwan were responsible for a loss of several hundred schools; others were converted into maktabas, and many of an ephemeral nature were discouraged by Inspectors, who carefully scrutinized the conditions of schools before allowing any claims for grants-in-aid. The Director of Public Instruction, however, is hopeful for the future of lower primary schools in the Western Divisions. The scheme adopted in Eastern Bengal of founding improved lower primary schools in each "panchayati" union has just been extended to Western Bengal and will, it is hoped, meet with success. The whole system of primary education, however requires overhauling before it can supply the needs of the various sections of the population. The desire for English education will have to be met, the primary school course being so arranged that a boy can enter a primary school with a prospect of being able later on to pass on to a middle English school at least.

An encouraging feature of primary instructions is the increase in the number of Mahomedans attending school. Thus while the number of pupils attending primary schools fell by 17,716 the number of Mahomedans at such schools increased by 2,674. Similarly, although there was an actual decrease of 2,920 girl pupils in primary schools, the percentage of girls of school age receiving primary instruction increased from 6.1 to 6.4.

The Imperial grants available for capital expenditure on primary education were utilised in the establishment of model primary schools, schools in backward areas and improved Guru-training schools; and in providing equipment and new buildings for aided schools. The recurring grant of Rs. 6,00,000, sanctioned in 1912-13, has been allotted for the purpose of increasing the salaries of trained teachers by Rs. 3 and untrained teachers by Re. 1 and for the maintenance of model schools built up to the close of 1912-13. The balance of this grant, amounting to Rs. 56,000, was spent on the improvement of aided schools and equipment.

The David Hare and Dacca Training Colleges turned out 48 Bachelors of Teaching while 13

students of the Dacca College passed the L. T. examination. This number falls far short of the requirements of the Province, and the problem of providing further accommodation for students of teaching is at present under the consideration of the Director of Public Instruction. The supply of trained vernacular teachers for secondary schools and Guru-training schools has been extremely costly. Out of 487 students at training schools, only 74 passed, the total cost of Government being Rs. 85,938. Some progress has, however, been made. The superior staff of secondary training colleges has been improved, the system of vernacular training has been overhauled as a preliminary to its improvement, and funds have been provided for raising the salaries of training instructors, and of trained teachers.

Mahomedan Educational Conference, Delhi—Haji Rahim Baksh in his presidential address at the Mahomedan Educational Conference on the 27 ultimo alluded to the war, pointing out England's just cause and dwelt upon the basis of their loyalty to the British Raj. He then touched on religious education and said religion divorced from education could only tend to produce intellectual pugilists. He held that it could not be contended that Oriental life and religious training were not productive of the best culture and instanced Sir Syed Ahmad and Nawab Vikar-ul-Mulk to prove his point. While admitting the great benefits to Moslems from Western education he argued that the Oriental side of the proposed Aligarh University should be strong and substantial and suggested provisions for the teaching of Arabic and the finding of a degree in Theology. Haji Rahim Buksh referred to the proposed Moslem University and said:—"The fact is that Indian education as given by the Universities has come to be thoroughly dominated and paralysed by artificial examinations on the one hand and text-books on the other which test the memory but not the intelligence of the students. The result is that some of the gifted students may rise above the trammels of this rigid and unprofitable system but the vast majority succumb slowly to the slavery of the text-books and the fetish of the examination. I trust that our University would not be a blind imitation of the existing Universities and that when the time comes to work out its shape and its scope you will not forget the evils of the present system." After alluding to the King-Emperor's speech to the Calcutta University, Government of India's Resolution on educational policy and a new educational institution either created or contemplated, he said that those and other similar movements had given the lie direct to the idea that the future policy of the Government of India would be to curtail and cripple the progress and scope of University education. He then examined the Moslem position in relation to higher education and said it was still very bad and appeared for strenuous efforts to make up the deficit and come abreast of other communities. Touch-

ing on technical education, he said:—"I think that as in Western education so in the matter of industries and commerce, our friends have already got the start of us. Thirty years ago the cry of the Indian Mussalmans used to be the cry of despondency and in the matter of English education we have allowed ourselves to lag behind. Thirty or forty years hence I am afraid the burden of our cry would be that we have fallen far behind other communities in the more peaceful avocations of manufactures, commerce and industry." Concluding he pleaded for an expansion of female education and dwelt upon the importance of the conservation of ancient learning and said that education like charity blesseth him that giveth and him that receives.

Nadar Secondary School, Porayar (Madras).—The anniversary and distribution of prizes to the successful students of the above institution was celebrated with great eclat on Thursday the 21st instant under the distinguished presidency of the Hon. Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., F.R.S., C.I.E.

The proceedings began with the singing of the Sanskrit Prayer song invented for the occasion by the School Pandit with which the Chairman was very favourably impressed. This was followed by a Tamil Anniversary song and a few choice recitations. Mr. K. Sami Aiyar, the Manager, next read the annual report. It opened with a brief history of the locality and the institution, dwelt upon the difficulties which the management had to surmount in the up-bringing of this institution and wound up with a touching reference to the unprecedented and high distinction conferred upon the institution by the visit of no less a dignitary than the head of the Educational Department. On the whole the Report proved a record of steady and satisfactory progress in all directions.

THE CHAIRMAN'S REMARKS.

He rose amidst deafening cheers to distribute the prizes and to deliver his concluding speech. He began by congratulating the winners and complimented the staff on the good taste shown by them in the choice of the prize books. He also made reference to the high water mark of excellent finish and success achieved by modern publishing enterprises as revealed by the books which he had the pleasure to give away as prizes and contrasted them with those that were available in his younger days. He next proceeded to speak about the ideals of education and said that it must not be regarded as simply a means for passing examinations and earning a livelihood by securing a clerk's post in an office; it was not simply aspiring to gain a mass of knowledge without practising what was studied. He thought the highest end and aim of education to be the knowledge and ability to do useful things in life; therein lay the chief difference between the Germans and his own countrymen. The German University man, the German Professor and the German students knew far more and were more extensively

learned than their English compeers; but they failed to realise the aforementioned ideal of education, and that was one reason for the nation going down. As regards secondary education he considered its chief aim to be the ability to write and talk good English. Speaking of schools the worthy Chairman observed that it was not merely sufficient to have a number of L. T's. and trained men on the staff nor stocking the library with a number of books, and the laboratory with a large supply of appliances; but what was required was the spirit necessary for doing useful work. The mere fulfilment of the conditions of recognition would not do for a school for the conditions imposed by the department are only minimised since the department takes care not to offer any hindrance to the growth of schools. But the schools must strive far higher than required by the department. Referring to the remark made in the Report that it was the first time in the History of Tranquebar that it had the honour of being visited by the Director of

Public Instruction, he said that it was a mere accident that his predecessors did not visit this place and that for his part he had known it for over quarter of a century and that when he was the Principal of the Government College, Kumbakonam, he had often come here to enjoy the sea breeze and the bracing climate.

Referring to this school he said that when in 1910, he granted recognition for the IV form he did not then know that it had formerly been a High School; and now that it has risen to its former position he wished that it might retain its present character. He complimented the Proprietor M. R. Ry. T. Guruswamy Nadar Ayl, for his philanthropic work in connection with this school and was glad to hear that he intended putting up a decent building for the same. With the usual vote of thanks to the chair and the gentlemen present, proposed by the Head master and the singing of the National Anthem, the proceedings came to a close. From start to finish everything was a success.

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IT'S BRITISH.



The Educational Review.

Our readers will remember that when Mr. Hornell was imported from England to fill the place of Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, the senior educationists of the Province protested against it and the unusual procedure was attempted to be justified on the personal ground that Mr. Hornell's connection with educational administration in England would be a great asset to Bengal and public instruction was going to be re-organized on up-to-date English lines. But a careful study of the Resolution on the report of the Director of Public Instruction for the year 1913-14 published as a Supplement to the *Calcutta Gazette*, dated December 30th, reveals no trace of any but the humdrum methods of educational work of an ordinary Indian Province. Though the Government acknowledges that its thanks are "due to Mr. Hornell for his energetic administration of the Department during the year and for his full report, which shows that substantial progress has been made in many directions and that the foundations are being firmly laid for many important reforms," yet we find but the usual tide and ebb of percentages of the number of pupils seeking primary, female and Muhammadan education and other conventional "lines" (to use the phrase of trade circulars) but nothing to show that any attempt was contemplated to bring to educational work in Bengal any of the efficiency attained in Western Europe or

America. The only novel question referred to is the "establishment of a residential secondary school for Indian boys on the lines of an English Public School," but the credit of moving this question is entirely due to prominent Indian citizens and the motive inspiring the movement is not so much educational efficiency as the desire to remove the galling distinctions that now obtain between Imperial Service and Provincial Service. It has been maintained that English public schools engender some special characteristics in a man which our ordinary Indian schools cannot produce and which necessitate a higher pay and more favourable leave rules to a public school man though he does the same work as an Indian graduate. We are therefore glad that an opportunity will be provided to test the truth of this contention for "it is hoped to open the school with a small number of pupils at a very early date."

It is claimed in this Resolution that the Presidency College, Calcutta, has "further improved its system of control of under-graduate work and the fitness of students to appear at the degree examinations is now determined by the record of class work and not by test examinations as formerly." We commend this to the notice of the Syndicate of the Madras University, which has till now ignored the assessment by headmaster of the school work of pupils so systematically done and elaborately described in the S. S. L. C. of our school books. If the assessment of class work is important

in under-graduate work, it is much more so in school work, seeing that many thousands of school pupils are examined by the S. S. L. C. Board and hence the results of a single public examination of these many thousands are likely to be a much less real assessment of their three year work than the daily, hourly estimate of work made in accordance with the elaborate instructions of the S. S. L. C. Board.

The enthusiasm stimulated by the holding of the National The S. I. T. U. Congress and Conferences in the last week of December has perhaps been the cause that there has been a better attendance than usual at the Educational Conference held soon after. But we regret to have to record that while exalted personages visited all other meetings, the Educational Conference alone was not honoured by any person in power. Does this mean that the Government cares more for the expansion of the Legislative Councils than the spread of education, for the development of co-operative banks than the progress of schools, for the establishment of workshops than the organization of laboratories? No, it means that the politician has learnt the art of making himself heard, the industrialist has learnt to advertise loudly his wants, but the educationist behaves like dumb driven cattle. The schoolmaster has the defect of his virtues; representing as he does the best results of a combination of eastern and western culture, he believes in the dignity of self-control and is

therefore left stranded in the backwaters of public life. His wants are not cared for, even his existence is ignored for he has forgotten the wise Tamil saying that it is the howling child that the mother feeds first. Notwithstanding the complacent congratulations of the President on the rise of self-assertiveness among educationists, we are of opinion that our teachers are wanting in *esprit de corps*, and unless they learn to combine and agitate, they will continue to be the Cinderellas of public life in India. At present the S. I. T. U. is such a disorganized body that according to the annual report, "the total strength of the Union cannot be given, as it is found difficult to collect lists of members from all the different affiliated associations." We are sorry we are rather hard on our colleagues, but do so in the hope that it will rouse them to put forth efforts to organize the Union on sound lines which will lead to efficient work.

The resolutions of the Conference were moderately worded expressions of urgent needs and some of them do not require to be referred to here. But we cannot refrain from calling attention to Mr. Venkatasubbiah's resolution that High School teachers should be adequately represented in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Board. We regard this resolution as much more modest than it ought to be. According to modern pedagogical ideas the men that teach are the only persons capable of assessing the work of their scholars. The external

examiner is the bane of educational work in India. He is, like the C.I.D., capable only of finding defects. He cannot discover how much each pupil has benefited by his school work, what each pupil is fit for, but his business is to brand with the mark of failure as many pupils as possible. In the recent Bombay Matriculation Examination as many as 86 p.c. of the candidates were reported to have failed. This clearly proves that the external examiner is an impossible person and that High School teachers alone are capable of gauging High School work. The S. S. L. C. Board in Madras was created in response to Dr. Miller's incessant demand for a Matriculation Board in the University. Yet High School teachers have been sedulously kept out of it. Loud, very loud protests are needed before this wrong can be rectified.

Another resolution which deserves to be prominently noticed is that of Mr. Panchapakesa Iyer demanding the improvement of the pay and prospects of teachers. We regard that it is the first duty of the Government to see that teachers in all schools, *public or private*, are very much better paid than now. The British Government in India has by its methods of administration of civil and criminal law brought into existence the profession of the Vakil, the emoluments of which are so high as to attract the best intellects of the land and it is therefore but the barest justice that the Government should divert some of these to the teaching profession by

helping to make the latter attractive or at least help enable its followers to gain a living wage. This can be done only if the illiberal policy of gradually attenuating teaching grants till they have reached the vanishing point in the case of some schools ought to be reversed. In England, current opinion demands that the State ought to bear the whole cost of the pay of teachers and the fees and endowment ought to be spent on the equipment of schools; but in India the school most favoured by the Educational Department does not even get 20 p. c. of the salaries of its staff from Government. The Hon. Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri representing the Government at the Conference said that he doubted whether the Government would agree to proposals for increased grants as under present circumstances it had under contemplation the suspension of many schemes before them; but all the same the S. I. T. U. ought to go on agitating for more grants and still more grants till a really efficient system of education is secured, for under any circumstances the widespread of sound education is the *only* salvation for India.

This momentous question was hotly debated at more than one meeting of the Calcutta University. The Vice-Chancellor announced to the Senate that he held a conference of medical men to consider the question how the physique of Bengali young men would be affected if they were allowed to appear for the

Matriculation Examination a few weeks short of their sixteenth year. Several European Fellows protested violently against this proposal of reducing the Matriculation age even by a day below sixteen years. One Fellow "felt that sixteen years represented the greatest concession" he could make and a few weeks less than sixteen years would fill his College with "little boys." The Hon. Mr. W. W. Hornell, D. I. P., Bengal, opposed the reduction of the age of Matriculation as vigorously as the Hon. Mr. J. H. Stone, D. I. P., Madras, opposed the proposal made in the Madras Senate to allow candidates for the Intermediate Examination to pass it in parts. We cannot understand why Directors of Public Instruction and European Fellows generally should oppose all attempts to lighten the load of examinations and enable an increasing number of students to benefit by their studies and secure University degrees. A few weeks more or less in one's age, how could it affect deleteriously the education given in our Colleges? Much of this opposition, we fear, is due to European Fellows desiring to follow slavishly the rules prevalent in some one English University or other. If an Honours man has to wait for two years before he could get himself dubbed M. A. at Oxford, the same rule should be observed in India, though there is neither rhyme nor reason in it. So if English young men do not generally join the Universities till they are eighteen, Indian students should not be admitted into Colleges till they are six-

teen. If an Indian boy should have finished his High School course, say when he is fourteen, he should turn street Arab till the magic number sixteen is reached. This utter want of sense in superstitiously copying rules followed in other places is deplorable. At Oxford, the student lives in the University, and moves with a number of young gentlemen of his own standing. In India, the average pupil lives with his parents, hears lectures at college for 4 hours or so daily, returns home and studies for an examination which will enable him to become a vakil, schoolmaster or clerk. It is hence absurd to introduce English University rules bodily into India.

It was rumoured some years ago that when Lord Curzon created the appointment of Director-General of Instruction in India, he wished to fill the place with an English educational expert, such as Prof. Sadler, one who would reorganize Indian education on modern lines and save it from the dead weight of tradition that was choking it out. But Mr. Orange's tenure of office was not exactly exciting and when he retired the Director-Generalship was absorbed in the Imperial Secretariat. Sir H. Butler, being an active civilian administrator, had, of course, more go in him and during his time, great have been the grants given to various educational activities. But he was no educational expert; so the impetus to growth and expansion was on mamool lines. The various Directors of Public Instruction in India whose

work he generally supervised cannot be expected to strike out new paths for themselves, for the place of D. P. I. is reached by College Professors after years of lecturing on Anglo-Saxon or Botany or Mathematics, when they are in middle age and their contact with lower educational work has reached the vanishing point. We want therefore that the supreme control of educational work in India should be wielded by an expert straight from the Board of Education in England who will bring the refreshing breeze of modern educational ideals to the tradition-laden atmosphere of India.

We are glad that Madras has been honoured by the Second Meeting of the Indian Science Congress. The daily press has magnified the importance of this Congress by comparing it with the British Association for the Advancement of Science but this is like comparing a giant with a Lilliputian. All the same we must be content with small mercies, for the semblance of research work is better than nothing. H.E. Lord Pentland, in welcoming the Congress, deplored the lack of scientific research in India and

did not discuss the cause of this want. The chief cause is this, that Colleges concentrate on teaching; College Professors are eminently qualified to train candidates for examinations. Examinations are the final end of all educational work and render the training in research work, the development of individual intelligence and initiative impossible. Moreover, the man of means does not seek education and the average college student cannot be expected to turn aside from securing a bread-winning degree to work which will give the chance of enjoying fame on an empty stomach.

The Hon'ble Surgeon-General Bannerman gave the presidential address, which dealt with medical research, which is almost the only research India can boast of, for "surgeons" are trained to research work, and have the leisure and the means to further the cause of science. Yet, a comparison of Surgeon-General Bannerman's address with the presidential address of any meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science will reveal, to quote a Vernacular phrase, the difference between a mountain and a pit.



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WHAT IS MANUAL TRAINING.

WHAT is Manual Training:—

This question has been asked again and again by teachers in Southern India, and few satisfactory answers have been given.

Manual Training or *Educational Handwork* is not carpentry work but it is a method of training the mind and building up good habits in the child. It is necessary to prefix the word Educational, because of the laxity of application of the term "handwork." It does not follow that because a boy or girl is engaged in handwork that he or she is pursuing an educational course and gaining as a result the advantages which a systemised, graded, scientifically arranged course, would give, any more than the infant engaged in

promiscuous occupations or games is getting the full advantage of the Kindergarten system.

Educational handwork is not a trade teaching, it is a method of getting right preceptions, conceptions, and observations, in the school-room and training up in the child the habits of *self-reliance* and *originality*. It should start from a well graded course of drawing associated with clay modelling leading up to a higher grade of drawing correlated with card-board modelling, then to a well-balanced course of drawing connected with wood-work (true in sequence), illustrating Geometry and Art, and so forming the objects that the scholars are to make in clay, cardboard or wood-work. The courses in wood-work and drawing must *not* be courses of *carpentry joints* but a well-graded course of models which have been submitted to and passed by the Inspector for the schools and encouragement should be given that the child draws original models at stated periods. It is this training of originality that creates in the child's mind the habit of *self-reliance*. The drawings must all be drawn by the child himself to scale and passed by the teacher before the child is allowed to commence to make the model.

It is for the building up of habits that Manual Instruction is introduced into the

school curriculum, not for the training up of boys to be carpenters and so the subject must be taught by a teacher who has good knowledge of Psychology as it is only in the Manual Training lessons that Experimental Psychology is possible in its highest form, for in all other subjects we have to rest content with the verbal answers, whereas here the boy shows us by his own work his conception of the lesson in acts not words.

To justify educational handwork in the school curriculum let us re-call to mind one of the stated facts of Psychology—"that the life history of the individual passes through the same stages as that of the race"—and apply it to the present case; what does it lead us to accept? Surely the inference that the earliest mental development of a child should be so connected with manual activity and though leading up to higher forms of intellectual work should never, while educational development is still in progress be wholly superseded. The thoughtful educationalist should therefore claim for handwork not merely that it should be tolerated in school but that it plays an indispensable part in the development of the child and should therefore be an obligatory part of the school curriculum.

The present tendency in education is to overtax the memory and overload the mind with studied words, and can only be regarded as a feeble mode of impressing the mind. Actions have more impression on the mind than words, for only in relation to experience can words be understood so as to influence the child; so that when ideas have been formed in the mind of the child they should be associated with appropriate actions, thereby showing to the teacher the child's idea and so affording an opportunity

to the teacher to judge whether his idea and the child's idea are in harmony.

Some teachers imagine the child has only one sense, the sense of hearing, they neglect the sense of touch, the sense of sight and the motor or muscular sense, they know nothing of "*learning by doing*" their idea of education is the assimilation of facts, throughout the whole curriculum.

But teachers who have studied educational handwork methods know the idea of training the child to love nature by knowing nature, and the early cultivation of the "thing beautiful" or the æsthetic taste by the use of clay modelling, they know that a plastic material is suitable for such plastic minds as young children possess, and that the ideas of the teacher are as easily modelled in the mind of the child as the ideas of the child are modelled in the plastic clay.

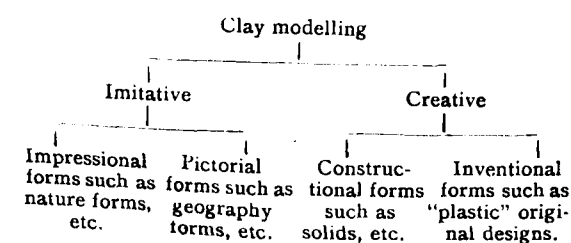
Clay modelling forms an excellent medium of preparatory training leading up to higher forms of educational handwork. It is the continuation of the Kindergarten, the models growing in complexity as the pupils advance in dexterity. By *making* "Nature forms," the children gradually learn to love and know nature better than by the methods of showing or telling.

In clay modelling we use several channels of impression, *viz.*, the sight, the touch, and the muscular sense, clay affording a suitable medium for adoption, being plastic; and so through its medium we are giving an opportunity of training the senses of the child.

In educating the young, we must first consider the building up of a healthy mind, before the acquisition of facts. Hence we present to the child a medium through which we can watch and train the mind and so form habits of "*doing*" instead of "*saying*."

The natural heritage of the child is "*to do*;" it is not his natural state to listen to a lesson; therefore when possible the child should be given a medium so that it can "*learn by doing*." "*By doing*," on a true educational basis (not haphazardly), the child gradually forms habits of "*self-reliance*," "*accurate perception*," and "*conception*," and self-respect and so justifying educational hand-work as a method in the school.

The course of clay-modelling should be built up as follows, so as to allow it to appeal to all classes of children:—



Later on we know that as the child grows older so the medium used must be altered to suit the mind of the child. Cardboard is not so plastic as clay, the child has more fixed ideas of the accuracy of his work and so cardboard modelling is the true medium for this stage.

It allows easy sequence from the simplest geometrical figures to the advanced models of schools, etc. The demand on the physical strength of the child is light, it affords scope for originality, it cultivates self-reliance, accurate perception, honesty and love of industry. All these habits help to form the character of the child, which, when it grows older is bound in its activities by the habits it has formed in childhood. The course can be modelled on somewhat the same lines as the clay-modelling course, allowance being made for the different medium used in construction.

How many teachers apart from the specialist rightly understand *wood-work*? Here wood-work is used as the medium being in harmony with the age of the child as offering just sufficient resistance to his efforts.

Equally important parts of the wood-work scheme are the drawing, and the theory lessons. Such theory lessons as E. G. tools illustrating the principles of mechanics, the geographical distribution of timber, the principles of orthographic, isometric and oblique projection, the application of art to design, the process of manufacture of the materials and tools used in manual training room, etc., these form but a few of the theory lessons. Then to the practical part of the work. Here the finished product must be in harmony with the child's mental conception of the lesson and always tending to rise to higher planes of perfection, otherwise, the scholar is not obtaining the true educational value of the lesson, but we must not judge the child's finished model by the standard of a mechanic's work for allowance must be made for the age and ability of the child. Regarding the course: it must include original designs and must not be copied from any text-book suitable only for American or European schools and it must not in any case be "*Sloyd*" as in this method no freedom is allowed for originality and the finished product studied, is the model; and not the child; *Sloyd* work having been rejected in England on account of its small educational value, and owing to its tendency towards trade teaching and mere mechanical repetition of exercises. Neither must it be in any case a course of carpentry joints as these are of no educational value.

The wood-work course should consist of 30 models of easy sequence, each model being of

some value and utility. Such models as chairs and tables must in no case be included as the amount of wood necessary to make a chair would make ten models at least and be of ten times more educational value as part of the value lies in the drawing of the model and most in the energy created and the self-reliance that is being built up in the boy by his striving for original designs and being able to work out ideas apart from his teacher. The educational value of the practical work lies in the hand and eye training afforded and the ability to construct the ideas that the mind has formed from observation, imitation and self-creation or self-revelation. So that such models as tables and chairs are of poor educational value and are therefore not included in the course.

The suitable mediums for manual occupations that should be taught in every school are as follows:—

I. Modelling in clay (correlated with Drawing, Geography, History and Nature study).

II. Modelling in cardboard (correlated with Elementary Arithmetic, Practical Mathematics, Elementary Science, general knowledge).

III. Brush work (correlated with History, Geography, Drawing and Art).

IV. Wood-work (correlated with Geometry, Art, Geography and School Gardening).

These schemes as shown are not separated water-tight subjects but are part of the general school curriculum.

The teacher's duty is to see that the maximum amount of knowledge is obtained from the minimum amount of material.

I have here tried in a few lines to show what manual training really is, how and by whom it must be taught and that the aim is

not to train boys to be carpenters but to form a healthy accurate mind in a healthy body.

Next month I hope to write a few lines on courses of manual training.

CECIL R. PORRETT.

SHELLEY THE POET.*

THE name and poems of Shelley are not so popular or familiar as those of Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Tennyson and some others even though he holds a foremost place in the front rank of English poets. Many are the reasons which account for this anomalous fact. He did not write much about common or evanescent objects or subjects; he is too imaginative for the ordinary mind; his ideas are often abstract or metaphysical; he is entirely lacking in humour; his language is uncommonly intellectual and subtle. His poems demand great concentration and close study on the part of the reader for comprehending his meaning. The giddy heights of his thoughts and the "spiritual audacity" of his sentiments scare away many a light-hearted or pleasure-seeking reader. He is, and will probably continue to be, a poet for the serious few rather than for the unthinking many. Yet the universality of his appeal is evinced by the ever-widening circle of his appreciative readers throughout the English-speaking world.

Unlike Milton, the poet of the Puritan awakening, who stands like a solitary and sublime peak in the latter half of the 17th century, Shelley is only a conspicuous star in the brilliant poetic constellation which arose

* A lecture delivered before the Teachers' Association, Government High School, Parur, by Mr. P. K. Anantanarayana Iyer, M.A., L.T.

at the beginning of the last century. Scott, Wordsworth and Coleridge were the pioneers of the new Romantic Movement in England whose ideas and ideals were enlarged and vitalised by the younger school of poets consisting of Byron, Shelley and Keats. While Wordsworth gave a poetical and imaginative treatment of the common objects around him, while Keats turned to ancient Greek Mythology for his poetic inspiration and subjects, while Scott and Byron were reviving Romantic themes of a historical or oriental interest, Shelley's mind constantly turned, with a prophetic vision, to the future regeneration of mankind. Hence is he aptly termed the poet of "triumphant faith" and hope.

Shelley's ideas and opinions were largely influenced and moulded by the circumstances which existed in the days of his boyhood and youth. Those were times of mighty storm and stress. The movement of the French Revolution, and the ideals and hopes it stood for, at first stirred the minds, and enlisted the sympathy, of all thinking people in Europe. The air breathed by the youthful poet was surcharged by the revolutionary doctrines of the day. New ideals of liberty, equality and fraternity; new hopes of the emancipation of society of abolition of baneful tyranny in Church and State; the dawn of a new era of universal happiness—were some of the novel ideas eagerly imbibed by the sensitive mind of young Shelley. That he passionately believed in them and ardently longed for the inauguration of a new order of things are amply shown by observing the central idea or keynote of such poems as *The Revolt of Islam*, *Rosalind and Helen* and *Hellas*; or by studying the characters of Prometheus, Laon and Lionel, in whom the idea is obviously personified and in whom we hear faint echoes of

Shelley himself. The high but rather unrealisable hopes engendered in his mind by this political and social convulsion made him a visionary and a dreamer and gave to his poetry a certain remoteness from the practical concerns of life.

The life and character of Shelley bear no great resemblance to those of the ordinary run of mankind, and hence the injustice of judging him by the ordinary standards. His pathetically short life of about thirty years was in many respects a tragedy; but the numerous trials, tribulations and sorrows he had to endure only brought out in a clear light the strength and heroism of his character. By the persistent and uncompromising crusade he carried on against some of the beliefs and conventions of society he brought upon himself the ridicule, wrath and implacable hatred of his contemporaries, so violent in bitterness that he preferred to lead, among the beautiful landscapes of Italy, the life of an exile for the last four years. He had formed to himself a *beau idéal* of all that is pure and noble in man and his life was a persistent upward striving to the attainment of that ideal. By nature he was endowed with a high intellectual capacity, and even in youth his moral sensibility was highly developed. He was always haunted by a passion to penetrate the mysteries of existence and "a passion for reforming the world." As he was neither ambitious nor hoped for worldly happiness or fame he was thoroughly fearless, independent, and sincere in giving poetic expression to his visionary, and sometimes revolutionary, views. An irrepressible love of liberty as the goal of mankind, a hatred of tyranny and oppression in all forms, political or religious, and liberal toleration of the views of others are distinguishing traits

of his character. Being led by the bent of his mind to spend a large part of his time in comparative solitude, he became an ardent worshipper of Nature, from whom he largely derived his inspiration and sublime impulses. The following lines bear a truly personal note:

"I shall be wise
And just, and free, and mild, if in me lies
Such power; for I grow weary to behold
The selfish and the strong still tyrannise
Without reproach or check."

Many a time his enthusiastic love of mankind and generosity found vent in deeds of active benevolence such as helping the needy and tending the sick, utterly regardless of his personal discomforts, and sometimes at great self-sacrifice. "He was generous to imprudence, devoted to heroism" wrote Mrs. Shelley of him a few years after his death.

If originality of a very high order constitutes a true claim to genius, then Shelley was one of the greatest geniuses of the age. Both in the matter and manner of his poems he owed very little to his predecessors, whereas many a young rising poet after him has drunk deep of his Castalian spring. Further, the versatility of his genius is displayed by the masterly way in which he handled, and executed to perfection, varied kinds of poetry: the lyric, the dramatic, the elegiac and the epic. His important poems in each kind are masterpieces of matchless beauty and excellence which have gained the approbation and unstinted praise of all competent critics. Their eloquent appeal in our imagination and emotions is only equalled by their sweet melody and grace. Unconventionality, undisciplined freedom, trusting to inspiration rather than to previous models as the guide, which are some features of the Romantic ideal, are embodied in his verse. Like his

own skylark he often soars and builds his nests in mysterious altitudes away from the earth. I know this unearthiness, this remoteness from the existing realities, practical interests and actual facts of life are adduced as a defect of his poetry by Matthew Arnold in whose opinion the function of poetry is "a criticism of life." But, by a vast majority, who read poetry for the pure delight born of noble ideas couched in melodious words, these songs and poems of ethereal beauty, prompting men to nobler ideals of life, are regarded as fountains of elevating thoughts and appeal. They are all permeated by a serious purpose, though unconscious, and spiritual ardour. "The most truly spiritual of all English poets" is how Lord Morley characterises Shelley.

Before discussing the general characteristics of his poetry it would be well to give a brief idea of his important poems. The first poem that attracted public attention and gained him recognition as a young poet of promise was *Alastor*. The poem represents "the uemesis of solitary souls." *Alastor* is a young poet of uncorrupted mind, like Shelley, who, having drunk deep of the fountain of philosophy, yet dissatisfied, longs to meet Divine Loveliness face to face. He wanders in quest of his Ideal long and wide, and being disappointed, finds an early and miserable grave. This poem contains many graceful passages descriptive of woodland and river scenery, the blank verse being very majestic. *The Revolt of Islam*, an epic in the Spenserian stanza, treats of the regeneration of a country by a "bloodless revolution" by the devoted labours of Ilaon, the hero, and his noble wife Cythna. Though not ranking high as an epic poem, Selley's high aspirations of

political and social advancement find adequate expression in this poem.

The composition of two such masterpieces as *Prometheus Unbound* and *The Cenci* in the same year is reckoned as one of the wonders of literature. *Prometheus Unbound* is a lyrical drama, classical in subject, but quite modern in spirit and treatment. Prometheus, who brought knowledge to man, is bound to a steep rock on the Caucasus by Jupiter for refusing to reveal a secret of momentous importance to him. Though subjected to various kinds of unimaginable tortures, this "saviour and strength of suffering man" endures them all patiently awaiting the arrival of the fated hour for the dethronement of Jupiter, until at last Prometheus is liberated to the universal joy and happiness of mankind. Rossetti, himself a great poet and an eminent critic, says about this drama: "The immense scale and boundless scope of the conception, the marble majesty and extra-mundane passions of its personages, the sublimity of ethical aspiration, the radiance of ideal and poetic beauty, the rolling river of great sound and lyrical rapture, form a combination not to be matched elsewhere and scarcely to encounter competition."

The Cenci is a tragedy based on a partly traditional and partly historical Italian story and has been characterised as the greatest tragedy since the time of Shakespeare. Count Cenci, a monster of vice and cruelty, is bent upon breaking the spirit of his daughter Beatrice by imprisonment, torture and nameless outrage. Finding no other redress on earth a conspiracy is hatched and the tyrant murdered, for which the heroine and other members of the family are tried and condemned to die. The exhibition of tragic passion of sublime intensity combined with noble

sentiments and imagery makes of Beatrice "a feminine ideal at once delicate and powerful."

Adonais is an elegiac poem written in memory of his poetical friend Keats whose premature death at twenty-six moved the affectionate and sensitive heart of Shelley, as it does all lovers of poetry. It is a poem of great artistic beauty and excellence comparable only to *Lycidas*, *In Memoriam*, and *Thyrsis*. Therein many of Shelley's nature conceptions of God, Man, Nature, etc., lie strewn, and hence is an embodiment of "highly spiritualised modern thought." There are many other poems that deserve special mention on account of their intrinsic merit and as they illustrate some special faculty of his genius. Such are *Julian and Maddalo*, an imaginary poetical conversation between Shelley and Byron; the memorable *Lines on the Euganean Hills*; *Rosalind and Helen*, a pastoral love poem very pathetic in its touch; and *The Triumph of Life*, his last swan song unhappily left as a fragment.

Among the main characteristics of Shelley as a poet the most prominent is that he is a pure idealist; and his greatest contribution to English poetry is this high quality of Romantic Idealism. Even the commonest objects, touched by his imagination, are invested with a halo of romantic beauty and glory. The subjects that he selected for poetic treatment were mostly of this ideal character. He showed a decided aesthetic preference for subjective qualities and abstractions. And it is his glory and his achievement that his spirits, voices, echoes, furies and other embodied forms are not mere personifications but living beings possessed of body and soul. *The Epipsychidion* is a very inspiring and impassioned idealistic

portraiture of Love; and the dreamy and fanciful *Witch of Atlas* and the sublime *Hymn to Intellectual Beauty* are graphic pictures of Ideal Beauty or Loveliness,—of which he says:

"Man were immortal and omnipotent,
Didst thou, unknown and awful as thou art,
Keep with thy glorious train firm state with-
in his heart."

This quality of idealism is happily blended with a paramount lyrical power. Shelley stands supreme above all other poets as "the loftiest and most spontaneous singer" of the language. He is unrivalled as "the divine singing-god whose thoughts, words, deeds, all sang together" as Swinburne truly epitomises his rarest gift. Since the beautiful snatches and charming love-songs of the Elizabethan era, nothing has been heard which is comparable to Shelley's soul-stirring and rapturous lyrics. His subjects are all grand and sublime and exempt from the limitations of matter and time and space. Throughout *Prometheus Unbound* and *Hellas* the lyrical element predominates; and numerous passages and songs of high emotional power and rhythmical grace are scattered in them. His "triumphal chant" on the *Skylark*, the most popular of all his lyrics; the highly artistic and melodious *Cloud*; the ode to the "tameless, and swift, and proud" *West Wind* with his pathetic appeal to it,

"Make me thy lyre, even as the forest is":

and the majestic force of the buffeting waves of the *Vision of the Sea*, are too well-known to need detailed description. Again *The Sensitive Plant*, a dainty piece of exquisite beauty ending with the cheerful hope that

"For love and beauty and delight
There is no death nor change;"

and his *Ode to Naples* and *Ode to Liberty*, To

Night, etc., and many more of equal charm are all poetical gems of peerless beauty that no lover of poetry can read without emotion and without feeling his heart-strings touched by the ethereal melody which awakens the dormant music of the soul. Nor should we omit to mention the two oriel-like songs flowing with their golden cadences in *Prometheus Unbound*, the one beginning:

"Life of Life! thy lips enkindle
With their love the breath between them";

and the song of Asia:

"My soul is an enchanted boat,
Which, like a sleeping swan, doth float
Upon the silver waves of thy sweet singing," etc

The love and worship of Nature, one of the characteristic elements of 19th century poetry, is fully embodied in Shelley. Many of his purest and noblest impulses were derived by constant communion with her. With Wordsworth he believed that Nature was alive; but, unlike Wordsworth, who made Thought the active principle in nature, he conceived Love as permeating and manifesting itself in every object around him. He was gifted with that rare power of seeing into "the heart of things and penetrating into their spiritual essence." It is owing to his innate belief in a Divine Spirit

"Which wields the world with never-wearied love,
Sustains it from beneath, kindles it above;"

and whose

"plastic stress
Sweeps through the dull dense world, compelling there

All new successions to the forms they wear;"

that many critics dub him as a pantheist in his religion and philosophy. He further regarded her as a beneficent nurse responding to the call of the human spirit and sympathising with him in his trials and sorrows. When *Prometheus*, the hero, who

is symbolic of the human soul, is subjected to excruciating tortures and agonies by Jupiter, it is Earth, the mother, with the Spirits and Voices, her daughters, who console him in his afflictions and soothe his lacerated heart. Shelley's mind was profoundly impressed and influenced by Nature in her calm, sublime or wild moods; and the inspiration he frequently drew from her he acknowledges in many a place. In the invocation at the beginning of *Alastor*:

"Earth, ocean, air, beloved brotherhood;"

again in the conclusion of the *Hymn to Intellectual Beauty*:

"Thy power, which like the truth
Of Nature on my passive youth
Descended; to my outward life supply
Its calm;"

and also in the appeal to *Mount Blanc*:

"My human mind, which passively
Now renders and receives fast influencings,
Holding an unremitting interchange
With the clear universe of things around;"

we see the ineffable and potent effect of the ever-shifting and glorious forms and colours and sounds of the panorama of Nature on the receptive mind of the poet. The attempt to catch the Soul underlying material objects, and the faith in the sympathetic union of the human spirit with the spirit of nature are also constituent elements of his nature-worship.

Again, Shelley, like his great contemporaries Wordsworth and Goethe, is a philosophical poet of a transcendental character. He saw before his very eyes the long cherished, but now unsustainable, ideals and beliefs of the 18th century rudely shaken and even dethroned in their conflict with the new order of things brought to light by the popular eruption in France, volcanic in its magnitude and destructive power. These novel and mighty ideals had great attraction for his

philosophic temperament. He was imbued in a large measure with what Matthew Arnold calls "high seriousness of absolute sincerity." So we find that philosophic ideas and truths are inextricably inwoven into the texture of his verse. Like Plato and other transcendent philosophers he found a panacea for all human ills and woes in Love. Love of a genuine and exalted character is the cardinal doctrine of his system. Where love forms the ruling principle in nature and in man, all the discord, the sorrow and the selfishness that we see around us will vanish like mist before the radiant sun. So time and again he declares his message to mankind: "Love is the sole law which should govern the moral world;"

or

"Love makes the reptile equal to the God;"

or

"To live, as if to love and live were one";

or

"That love, which none may bind, be free to fill
The world like light";

or again,

"And love and joy can make the foulest breast
A paradise of flowers, where peace might
build her nest."

Shelley was a passionate lover of mankind and the dominating principle in the character of his heroes is love. Laon in the *Revolt of Islam* attempts the emancipation of his country not by unnecessary and wanton bloodshed but by realising the ideal of "a nation made free by love." In *Prometheus*, the greatest of his heroes, the embodiment of the soul of man, the governing idea is the love and liberation of mankind. To Shelley's mind, the best and noblest in mankind of all ages and the inviolable beauty and harmony reigning in external nature ever seemed to inculcate the dominance and potency of all-embracing Love.

To unravel the mysterious problems of life and to find a solution to the strange riddle of the universe was one of the inborn passions of his life. The external problems of life and death, whence we come, whither we go, what we are, were ever knocking at his breast for solution and he did not shrink from giving an answer, in his humble way, clear and bold in its terms, and satisfying to his mind and to the minds of many in later ages. These metaphysical speculations lie embedded in the body of many serious poems.

That Shelley believed in a Supreme Being, —though his notion radically differed from the orthodox Christian idea of a personal God,—is beyond doubt. He addresses it as the "Soul of the Universe," in which all objects "live, and move, and have their being." It is also referred to as the "Universal Mind," "The Eternal," "Spirit of Nature," etc. It is the living fountain of all wisdom, justice, peace and love. This spirit has not only an extra-mundane objective existence but "sweeps through the dull dense world;" and is addressed by him as:

"Thou, whom, seen nowhere, I feel everywhere
Making divine the loftiest and the lowest;"

or again in *The Daemon of the World* he addresses the Spirit of Nature as:

"Yet not the lightest leaf
That quivers to the passing breeze
Is less instinct with thee,—
Yet not the meanest worm,
That lurks in graves and fattens on the dead,
Less shares thy eternal breath."

The soul of man is the living and divine element in him. All else is perishable and evanescent. It bears the same relation to the Supreme Soul as the spark does to the fire or the waves to the ocean. As long as the soul has to pass through its earthly existence, the mortal body acts as a prison, as a clog

which restrains its rapid development, so that death come to it as a deliverer; as he says in that immortal simile:

"Life like a dome of many-coloured glass,
Stains the white radiance of eternity,
Until death tramples it to fragments."

The Soul, thus liberated from the mortal cage, goes "back to the burning fountain whence it came," and becomes "a portion of the Eternal." Though the flesh and the outer environment impose so many restrictions upon the freedom of the soul Shelley was a firm believer in the perfectibility of human nature. That every individual soul has latent in it the potency and the dynamic power which, by a regular course of self-discipline and "hard-won progress in virtue," impels it in its evolution to attain ultimate perfection—was his cherished conviction which he ardently held to the end of his life in spite of discouraging and inexplicable evidence to the contrary:

"Why is this noble creature to be found
One only among thousands? What one is
Why may not mankind be?"

and in another place we find this optimistic answer:

"Every heart contains perfection's germ."

Again, it is most wonderful to contemplate that he regarded the Will of man as almost omnipotent; though such a faith is logically consistent with his faith in the infinite possibilities of the human soul. So he attributes the existence of so much evil and misery in the world not to any absolute incurable necessity, but to man's indifference and lack of exercise of the human will:

"It is our will
That thus enchains us to permitted ill."

Shelley was also an eloquent prophet of freedom and justice, both individual and national.

"Let all be free and equal"

he appeals in the *Revolt of Islam*.

"Elders of things, divine Equality!"

he apostrophises in another place. Such being his burning faith in the potential greatness and goodness of man it is no wonder that he is a staunch upholder of woman's equality with man:

"Can man be free if woman be a slave?"

asks he in the last-mentioned poem. His political and social ideals were also equally noble and high. He was an ardent and zealous reformer. He was no blind supporter of armed revolt as Byron often was. He preached revolution, it is true, but it was "a bloodless revolution;" his weapons were persuasive eloquence and appeal to man's higher moral nature, and passive resistance if necessary. He was no fire-breathing socialist. His faith in the capacity of the individual for the infinite led him naturally to conclude that the regeneration of society as a whole could be effected only by a corresponding enlightenment in the mental and moral calibre of the individuals comprising it. He was such an enthusiastic lover of society that, far from desiring to eradicate all distinctions of social rank and wealth, he declared his ideal to be "a brotherhood of property and service," as to inaugurate the new reign of peace on earth and good-will to men.

There was also in Shelley the fire and robust optimism of the prophet. In spite of the misery and selfishness existing everywhere around him he sincerely believed that mankind was slowly evolving towards a higher and happier goal. His prophetic eyes were constantly fixed upon the future, and the heart of the Seer in him eagerly dwelt upon the "longing for a Paradise on this or the other side of death." He always pictured to himself a steady progress and a glorious

destiny for mankind. His idea of an approaching Millennium is beautifully expressed in the choral song which forms a fitting close to *Hellas*:

"The world's great age begins anew,
The golden years return,
The earth doth like a snake renew
Her winter weeds outworn:
Heaven smiles, and faiths and empires gleam
Like wrecks of a dissolving dream."

In these days, when materialistic tendencies and practical aims and objects threaten to engross too much of our attention and thoughts, an illustrious poet like Shelley, who led the saintliest of lives, and the idealism and spirituality of whose poetry elevate us above the narrow concerns of the world, has a distinct mission to fulfil,—as a vitalising tonic and the spiritualiser of modern life.

PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION.

IF there be one medium more than any other through which the subject of the importance of Psychology for the teacher should be approached, surely it is that journal which is devoted to, and embraces in its columns, the consideration of all matters which have a direct or indirect bearing on the physical and psychical well-being of the pupils of the school-going age. 'Any new movement in the social life of the nation, which intimately touches the education and upbringing of its youth, becomes a matter of national importance. It has its influence on the development and progress, or the deterioration of the national character.' It may then be worth the sacrifice of a small space in the pages of *The Educational Review* to draw attention to a subject which must have an interest for every parent, guardian, and teacher,

I.

"Educate or govern," says Ruskin, "they are one and the same word. Education does not mean teaching people to know what they do not know. It means teaching them to behave as they do not behave. And the true compulsory education which the people now ask of you is not catechism, but drill. It is not teaching the youth of England the shapes of letters and the tricks of numbers; and then leaving them to turn their arithmetic to roguery, and their literature to lust. It is, on the contrary, training them into the perfect exercise and kingly continence of their bodies and souls. It is a painful, continual and difficult work to be done by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precept, and by praise, but above all—by example." Ruskin may not be using any very accurate language: he may have overdone the description of the aims of education: We may accuse him of all this: the fact remains all the same that the length of school hours is out of all proportion to the incalculable influence which a little suggestive teaching can exert over the pupil: and more than all this, a good teacher may be able to do far more to induce his pupil to give himself habits of the desired kind than all other influences that act upon the pupil during the 18 or 19 hours in a day when he is away from school. Education then is not merely the imparting of instruction to the student, but, more than anything else, the due direction of his feelings and the proper moulding of his character. It aims at the healthy development of all our faculties—physical, intellectual, æsthetic and moral. How often is the import of true education missed by simply referring to books and delivering lectures at regular intervals! 'As if it were

by universities and libraries and lecture-rooms, that man's education, what we can call education, were accomplished; solely, or mainly, by instilling the dead-letter and record of other men's force, that the living force of a new man were to be awakened, enkindled, and purified into victorious clearness!"

What remains now after the elimination of the several factors of education that we have disposed of is the teacher; that is to say, the teacher should be capable of exerting an influence far more potent than that which those several factors put together are capable of. The teacher must make such a deep impression on the minds of his pupils as would set agoing 'a train of thought which refuses to be quieted until it has worked itself out to a satisfactory conclusion, and which gives us no rest until we have altered our aims, our circumstances, and even our characters, so that the idea suggested may the more easily become realised.'

What are the qualifications of such a teacher? What is the distinguishing characteristic of this teacher as contrasted with other teachers? Or, is he too complex a personality for analysis of any such kind? Such are the questions that force themselves on the mind of every sincere educationist: and a discussion of every one of such questions would certainly be interesting and instructive to a teacher. But the writer has to content himself for the present with one of several such questions, and leave the rest to be dealt with by those who have got time and taste for such a task: that one question to be taken up now, being: What can psychology do towards making the ideal teacher? Does psychology really deserve the place of importance ac-

corded to it in the syllabus of subjects taught in training schools and colleges?

Is a knowledge of psychology essential to a teacher? Is there anything else equally, if not more, essential to a teacher? If there is any such, what place are we to accord to it in the list of qualifications of a teacher? Before proceeding to discuss questions of this nature, it would be better if we define what we mean by psychology. "Psychology," says Münsterberg, "has no other aim but, like any natural science, to describe and to explain its material, while every interpretation and appreciation of mental life belongs to entirely different spheres of human interest." Münsterberg goes on to distinguish between psychology and psychology, between what he calls the causal psychology, on the one hand, where the contents of consciousness are to be explained as the physicist explains the changes in the contents of space, and the other kind of psychology which we may call voluntaristic psychology, which interprets the meaning of the self and follows up the inner will-relations. From a strictly psychological point of view, the idea of ourselves, any and every content of consciousness,—ours as well as anybody else's,—feelings of pleasure and pain,—no matter who feels it—my feeling and willing, my hope and my regret, are all of them nothing but objects of which I am aware in the same way that I am aware of the molecules of the universe about me. No atom is more valuable than another atom for the physicist, no feeling is more valuable than another feeling for the psychologist. In reality, however, all these contents of consciousness lose their original meaning, if they are treated like the molecules of the physicist: we are, in reality, not part of created

nature, to be dealt with as though we were so much clay or metal to be analysed by the chemist: we are free creatures: 'Our self is not found, but with immediate certainty it is felt and asserted in the act of our attitude When we meet in conversation, we do not come in question for each other as objects.' My friend is no thing which I find, but a will which I support or fight: in short, he is a piece of reality which as such does not belong in the system of nature.'

The question which psychology, then, we are to take into consideration for our present purpose naturally turns round the question, how we are to view the contents of consciousness of the pupil. Are we to consider these mental contents to be so many objects to be dealt with as the physicist does with his atoms and molecules? Or, are we to take these mental contents to be so many aspects of the unfolding of a free personality? When looked at closely, these two kinds of psychology exhaust between themselves all questions which find their natural place not only in psychology, but also in the field of logic, ethics, æsthetics, philosophy of history and religion.

Both these kinds of psychology, then, must be studied by a teacher, who desires to have a scientific, and at the same time, satisfactory, knowledge of the workings of the consciousness of man: since 'it fructifies our independence, and it re-animates our interest, to see our subject at two different angles,—to get a stereoscopic view, so to speak, of the youthful organism (who is our enemy), and, while handling him with all our concrete tact and divination, to be able, at the same time, to represent to ourselves the curious inner elements of his mental machine;' and

* p. 11 *Talks to Teachers*: W. James.

again, 'as a positive science knowing nothing of ends or values, psychology lends itself with a cold impartiality to all sorts of training of the young from the noblest kind of "making" to the worst kind of "marring."* The latter view emphasises the importance of a knowledge of the workings of the human mind as a being, growing, and creating organism: while the former, the naturalistic position emphasises the importance of a knowledge of the positivistic psychology for the teacher, who desires to be a psychologist as well. So then, a teacher who desires to equip himself with a thorough knowledge of the contents of consciousness, must then read not psychology alone, but ethics, logic, and æsthetics, to mention a few of the other necessary sciences. Is the teacher, then, to study all of them? If not all, why should psychology alone claim his undivided attention? Psychology must, of course, mean what we have described above as the causal psychology, since that alone deserves the name of psychology in its proper sense. Viewed thus, the position taken up by Prof. W. James and Prof. Hugo Münsterberg is the most reasonable that any true psychologist can take with reference to this question. It looks strange, then, that Dr. Sully should class these 'two eminent American representatives of the science' of psychology among those that are against introducing psychology into the syllabus of subjects to be studied compulsorily by teachers; and sum up their position thus: (a) Psychology is not all that is needed by a teacher, (b) all parts of psychology are not of equal importance to him. Dr. Sully then proceeds quite confidently to prove that

* p. 17. *The Teacher's Handbook of Psychology*: J. Sully.

nothing can 'affect the validity of the demand for scientific training' for the teacher. He asks what would be thought of a medical man who proposed to drop the study of anatomy and the other sciences of his profession on the ground that scientific training alone will not make the successful physician. A study of anatomy, and of anatomy alone can never make a successful physician: Dr. Sully leaves us in doubt as to the position he would give to physiology: Does he want us to include physiology in what he calls 'the other sciences of his profession,' or does he not? If he does not, his argument halts miserably and one need not bestow a moment's thought over it. If he does, as he ought to, then he gives up his position altogether, cuts the ground from under his own feet, and must say with James and Münsterberg that psychology is not all that is needed by a teacher: What physiology is to the medical man that voluntaristic psychology is to the teacher. The medical man can never afford to ignore physiology: and the teacher can still less afford to neglect the study of the sciences of ethics, logic, æsthetics, to mention a few among many such sciences.

Such a satisfactory knowledge of the workings of consciousness as described above is impossible of attainment by any teacher, however enthusiastic he may be. And after all, is such a knowledge so very essential? Mr. Benjamin Dumville writes, in the *School World* an article on 'Psychology and the Teacher,' wherein he seeks expressly to criticise any and every argument that may possibly be urged towards belittling the importance of a knowledge of psychology for the teacher. And he criticises the several men whose opinions he discusses, without the least compunction. It would make interesting reading

if one were to meet him argument for argument as he himself does in this article. Turning now to the conclusion Dumville arrives at, we find that he has not after all made out any very strong case in his favour. He is irresistibly led to the conclusion that 'if one had to decide between a good knowledge of genetic psychology on the one hand and a lively interest in children as individuals on the other, the latter would probably be the more valuable choice.' But then he seeks to make good the concession, which he had so reluctantly to give to his opponents, by saying that 'although they,—the latter kind of teachers—may be among the most efficient in their profession, there is no reason why they should not still further improve themselves.' Neither James nor Münsterberg would have the least hesitation to give their unqualified assent to this proposition: and it is not a very happy argument of Dumville's wherein he wants James to publish a penny pamphlet on psychology for teachers, nor is it a happier one to say that James himself is inconsistent just because James wants to show the importance of a knowledge of psychology for a teacher as well as of the limitations of the help that such a knowledge can give to a teacher. And Dumville himself is, curiously enough, saying just what James,—or for the matter of that any psychologist worth the name, would say, when he says, "(Lastly), there are many other factors which go to make a successful teacher besides a knowledge of psychology. In addition to the sympathy with children which we have mentioned, there must be a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught, enthusiasm in the teaching of it, the powers of controlling and directing the activities of children, and—last, but not least—a full measure of health and

strength to support the arduous labours of the school-room." Dumville then has had his heart's content of abuse for the poor psychologists who had had the misfortune of publishing books, or otherwise expressing opinions, which, he believes, are meant to belittle the importance of a knowledge of psychology for a teacher: he has not proved that such a knowledge is essential; still less, one is tempted to ask: Has Dumville said anything different in any real sense from most, if not all, of the men whom he had chosen to hit, and did hit rather hard?

A knowledge of psychology is certainly useful to a teacher: nobody denies it. But then which knowledge is not useful? Any and every subject that deals with man and his consciousness is, as we said above, useful to a teacher. Again, who does not feel a knowledge of psychology useful? Does not a lawyer require a knowledge of psychology? Is psychology accorded any the least recognition in the syllabus of subjects taught in law colleges? Does not a medical man find it useful? Is he taught psychology on that account? Why should the poor teacher alone made to study psychology? Is it because he has nothing better to do with his time and energy? Does not a thorough knowledge of the subjects he has to teach ensure him the love and esteem of his pupils? Would he not thereby become capable of exerting a more beneficial influence on his pupils than one who spends his time in studying psychology? Has psychology then any special claim on the teacher? Is there any special obligation on the part of the teacher to study psychology? Is it not proper, then, that men like James and Münsterberg should make at least as emphatic a statement of the limitations of the help that psychology can give to a teacher, as

of the aid itself that it can actually give. Is it not natural, then, that James should tell his teachers that 'those who find themselves over the subject may go as far as they please, and become possibly none the worse teachers for the fact, even though in some of them one might apprehend a little loss of balance from the tendency to over-emphasize certain special parts of a subject when we are studying it intensely and abstractly'? To what would Dumville attribute the inefficient teaching of the eminent psychologist he refers to in his article, if not to this loss of balance? Is it very improper, then, to demand of Dumville another article on the limitations of the value of a knowledge of psychology for teachers? Or, are we to take it that he has done enough justice to this aspect of the question, as well in his article we are now referring to?

II

The attitude of the psychologist, again, is in itself quite opposed to that of the teacher. The psychologist's method of dealing with consciousness is what may be called the "cinematographic" or "static" method. "Psychology, in fact, proceeds like all the other sciences by analysis. It resolves the self, which has been given to it at first in a simple intuition, into sensations, feelings, ideas, etc., which it studies separately. It substitutes, then, for the self a series of elements which form the facts of psychology. But are these *elements* really *parts*? That is the whole question, and it is because it has been evaded that the problem of human personality has so often been stated in insoluble terms."* Our personality or for the matter

* p. 21. An Introduction to Metaphysics: M. Bergson.

of that, our consciousness is always complex and always changing: and a conscious state is not a state that endures without changing: it is rather a change without ceasing. There are no two identical moments in the life of the same conscious being. Take, for instance, the simplest sensation; suppose it to be constant: absorb in it the entire personality: the consciousness accompanying this sensation cannot remain identical with itself for two consecutive moments, because the second moment always contains, over and above the first, the memory that the first has bequeathed to it. 'A consciousness which could experience two identical moments would be a consciousness without memory. It would die and be born again continually. In what other way could one represent unconsciousness?' Consciousness, then, can never be itself a thing, nor can it ever be the state of a thing. Now, the cinematograph takes views of a moving scene: each view represents a fixed position, and when the views are arranged side by side on the film and passed across the screen in rapid succession, they give us a moving picture. The views, as they are, can never give us the picture as it is: to have the picture, we must restore the movement and this the cinematograph does. All our sciences deal with such views: their method is cinematographical: change for these sciences is nothing but the succession of fixed states. That psychology is no exception to this rule has already been made abundantly clear.

But life is in reality a pure flux, or as was said above, a change without ceasing, a change which is indivisible, the divisions which we do make in it, the immobilities of which it *looks* composed, are not so many divisions, but views of it. The cinematographic method of description of life or of con-

sciousness, then, abstracts from, or ignores this creative, ever-changing aspect of consciousness, and attempts to describe each phase of it as it is or subsists without reference to the functions subserved: that is to say, it *analyses* the perpetual flux into a complex of elements each statically conceived, and it describes the flux, namely, consciousness, as consisting in the simultaneous and successive appearances of these elements. Now, besides *abstracting* from the active or functional aspect of consciousness, this method necessarily falsifies the facts by neglecting the actual changes, and by breaking up the continuity of the whole stream of consciousness, both the continuity of the parts which make up the whole at any one moment of time, and the continuity of the whole at successive moments. Nevertheless, owing to the nature of our intellects, this is the only method by aid of which we can approximate to a full and detailed description of consciousness.

What, then, is the nature of Intellect? What is the purpose that the intellect serves? Why should it distort facts so rudely? An answer to such questions is not far to seek. The intellect is to the mind what the eye or the ear is to the body. The intellect is a special adaptation of the mind which enables the being endowed with it to view the reality outside it, but which at the same time limits both the extent and character of the view the mind takes: and the sole usefulness of the intellect lies in this delimiting of reality, of life, or of consciousness, just in the same way that the usefulness of the eye or of the ear depends quite as much on what these senses exclude as on what they admit. If they could take in the whole of reality, they would be useless. It is because they limit the range of perception that is open to us that they serve

the life purpose. The intellect seems to have been formed by the evolution of life in this same way and for a like purpose. It has been formed by a narrowing, a shrinking, a condensation of consciousness. The intellect is cinematographical. It views reality as solid things because that view serves our ends. It is a *real world*, no doubt, that our intellect reveals to us: but only it is reality, *limited*. The intellect gives us views of reality, views which are but *limitations of our apprehension*; but we mistake them for *limitations of reality* itself. What, then, is this reality? *It is life*. And the answer is final: because we are not appealing to a concept of the understanding that demands further explanation. Life is never known to us as something presented to the mind, but *immediately*, in the living consciousness of living. In the widest significance of the terms life and consciousness are identical: and it is this wider consciousness that has become for us narrowed and specialised in the intellect: and the intellect proclaims its parentage by the wider sense of consciousness which surrounds it like a penumbra. It is, again, this same wider consciousness that enables us to have the direct vision that Bergson calls the *intuition* of life. But it is only life that this intuition reveals, and that because life and consciousness are one. But then it is a mistake to say that we have two faculties, one intellectual and one intuitional, side by side: there are not two views of reality, intuitional and intellectual: all our views of reality are intellectual, but the intellect is formed out of consciousness that is identical with life, and in living we directly know life.

Without intellect our life would lack all that order which appears to us in the form of successive events, all the divisions and

lines that seem to us the actual articulations of the inert material world, but life would exist. The intellect gives us the same advantage over intuition that the material tool gives to us as compared with the organical tool which the bee possesses. It opens a practically unlimited range to our activity. It gives us the sciences, which are but the organisation of experience into systems of reality that serve the mind as tools serve the body. We are continually confronted with the need of action: while we live there is this unceasing demand to act. There seem to be only two ways in which we may be qualified to meet this demand, one is by a direct intuition which drives us to act in one path and one only, the other is by the intellect which ranges before us our experience and enables us to choose from many possible courses the one that offers best hope of success. How could this be unless our actions, accomplished and contemplated, could be presented before us as individual unities and the sphere of our activity as ends and motives? This the intellect does. But life, the concrete reality, itself, is not a formless chaos, not a manifold without order, nor a unity without form, but an absolute that holds in it the possibility of all form. We cannot represent it or imagine it without form and for the power to represent and imagine at all we are utterly dependent upon the intellect, but we can distinguish the form that the intellect gives it, and see in the purpose that the intellect serves the reason of that form. And also we can know life without intellectual form, for consciousness of living is the intuition of life.*

We have been using this term intuition rather too often now to proceed any further without defining exactly what we mean by it.

* Cf. *The Philosophy of Change*: H. Weldon Carr.

"By intuition is meant," says Bergson himself, "the kind of *intellectual sympathy* by which one places oneself within an object in order to coincide with what is unique in it and consequently inexpressible." The nearest analogy that can be thought of to this intuition is what we call instinct in insects like the bee and the wasp. We call this instinct unconscious, since the instinctive actions that we are capable of are never conscious. But all the same, there is knowledge, there is at any rate the simplest rudiments of the cognitive aspect of consciousness: so then when the sensation directly leads to movement without the intervention of any distinct consciousness, we call the mental process an instinct. But if the sensation seeks the aid of consciousness to issue in action, intelligence results and the action is voluntary. We would not then be far in the wrong if we say that instinct is immediate knowledge, knowledge such as intuition would give us, but being continued in the action, is therefore unconscious: while intelligence represents the action in idea before it acts, hesitates, deliberates, and is therefore conscious.

We may distinguish intuition and intelligence again by their attitudes towards things in general. *Intuition*, as we saw above, is *sympathy*. It is the feeling of the intimate bond that binds the individual to the reality. Intelligence is essentially external; it makes us regard reality as something other than life, as something hostile that we may overcome. Intuition is that sympathetic attitude towards the reality without us that makes us seem to enter into it, to be one with it, to live it. It is in contrast to the defiant attitude that we seem to assume when, in studying the sciences, we treat facts and things as outside, external, discrete existences which we range before us

analyse, discriminate, break up, and recombine. Intuition is not a new sense revealing to us unsuspected things or qualities of things.

Life is never known as an external thing apprehended by the senses under the space and the time forms as are the other facts revealed to us in our sciences; life is always directly known. The intuition of life is knowledge of reality, reality as it is. Take, for example, a character whose adventures we read of in a novel. 'The author may multiply the traits of the hero's character, may make him speak, and act as much as he pleases, but all this can never be equivalent to the simple and indivisible feeling which I should experience if I were able for an instant to identify myself with the person of the hero himself. Out of that indivisible feeling, as from a spring, all the words, gestures and actions of the man would appear to me to flow naturally.

. . . . The character would be given to me all at once, in its entirety, and the thousand incidents, which manifest it, instead of adding themselves to the idea and so enriching it, would seem to me, on the contrary, to detach themselves from it, without, however, exhausting it or impoverishing its essence. Description, history and analysis leave me here in the relative. Coincidence with the person himself would alone give me the absolute.' We see then that we know a thing more perfectly by our intuition than we can ever know it by our intellect: but that it is intelligence alone that gives us the knowledge of relations, and that it is this knowledge that gives us command over the wide field of activity that we possess. Instead of the intellectual knowledge, then, being the profounder, Professor Bergson calls it 'the more superficial.' 'Instead of being the only

adequate knowledge, it is grossly inadequate, and its only superiority is the practical one of enabling us to make short cuts through experience and thereby to save time. The one thing it cannot do is to reveal the nature of things.' The function of the intellect is essentially practical. 'Sensible reality is too concrete to be entirely manageable.' When asked how then that reality can best be managed, Professor Bergson would point back to our various finite sensational experiences and say, 'Lo, even thus; even so are these other problems solved livingly.' Direct acquaintance and conceptual knowledge are thus complementary of each other: each remedies the other's defects. "There are things that intelligence alone is capable of seeking, but that by itself it will never find. Those things instinct alone can find but it will never seek them."

And the clearest evidence we have of intuition is in the works of great painters and of great poets: It is the power they have of seeing more than we see and of enabling us by their expression to penetrate further into reality. What they see is there to be seen, but only they see it because they are gifted with a higher power than we. What is the more that is revealed to them? It is not scientific truth, nor is it technical skill; for this is a consequence not a cause of genius. It is the power to enter by sympathy into their subject. What makes the picture is the artist's vision, his entry into the very life of his subject by sympathy, something that he never succeeds in expressing perfectly, though the imperfect expression may reveal to us more than we could see without it. Intuition is the entering into it as distinct from the standing over against it and watch-

ing its successive parts or selecting views of it.*

Thus, what Dr. Sully regards as unworthy of any serious consideration supplies the key to the solution of the problem of the opposition of the attitudes of the teacher and of the psychological observer; the opposition does not look self-evident to him. He says himself that Prof. James epitomises Münsterberg's contention thus.—“The teacher's attitude towards the child being concrete and ethical, is positively opposed to the psychological observer's, which is abstract and analytic.”

Had Dr. Sully but seen the distinction which Münsterberg makes, in his ‘Eternal Values,’ between two kinds of psychology, the causal and the voluntaristic, he would not have experienced any the least difficulty in realising the self-evident character of this opposition. But even Münsterberg has not done due justice to the creative activity of man. He says no doubt that we are free creators, that our self is not *found* but with immediate certainty it is *felt* and asserted in the act of our attitude. But he does not go any further. That justice denied to ourselves has been done by Prof. Bergson, who says that not psychology alone, but all the sciences as well give us but views of reality, cut out in the flux of life the lines along which our activity moves, delimit reality, and in short quite fail to connect us with the inner life of the flux, or with the causes that govern its direction.

Dr. Sully holds that psychology is not wholly abstract and analytic. We have now come to see the extremely abstract and analytic character not only of psychology but

of all sciences that human intellect can devise; these sciences can only give us static views of reality and present us with distorted features of life. Intellect gives us reality, no doubt, but it is after all a limited reality that it reveals to us. Its attitude is the defiant attitude as opposed to the sympathetic attitude of the poet or the painter who enters into the very heart of what is described.

Psychology, then, is too abstract and analytic to give us an intimate knowledge of reality. A teacher who looks up to psychology as if it were an infallible guide must always keep moving about like a myopic ant never realising that what he sets about so very elaborately to discover has been there all along at his very feet waiting to be seen the moment the conceptual glasses are removed from his eyes. ‘The forceps of our minds are clumsy forceps, and they crush the truth a little in taking hold of it.’

A teacher, especially, who has got to deal with life and development of consciousness can never afford to trust himself solely to the insight he can get about life from psychology. The psychologist deals with mind in the abstract: such a mind exists nowhere on earth. His attitude again is purely intellectual as opposed to the teacher's whose attitude must be said to be more emotional than intellectual. The teacher must view life with that intellectual sympathy which Bergson calls intuition. Without that vision he may spend a whole lifetime in the study of books on psychology and be none the better for all his reading. It is this intuitive sympathy alone that can take a teacher direct to the heart, as it were, of his pupil.

But it cannot for one moment be seriously doubted that a knowledge of psychology is of use to a teacher. ‘Psychology ought certainly

to give the teacher radical help.’ But as James says we would be committing a serious mistake if we expect from psychology, the science of the mind's laws, any direct help towards framing definite programmes and schemes and methods of instruction for immediate use in the class-room. Of course a knowledge of the mind and its functions helps a teacher a good deal in settling such questions. But psychology can never by itself answer such questions directly. A knowledge of the processes of attention, of memory, of imagination, of the formation of habits and of the human instincts and tendencies does certainly help a teacher to do his work much better than without it.

Psychology is after all a science: but education is an art: and sciences can never generate arts directly out of themselves. An intermediate intuitive mind must make the application by using its originality. One who gets into immediate contact with the individual pupils of his class and observes the working of their minds with that intuitive sympathy which can never be had from any book is sure to make a much better teacher than one who exhausts a whole library of psychology. An intuitive insight into the working of the minds of individual pupils is of incalculable value to a teacher. And this sympathetic insight is not scientific truth nor technical skill; it is the result, the outcome of the teacher's vision or genius: no amount of study can give a teacher this vision if it was not in him already. This genius is just the power to enter by sympathy into the heart of hearts of individual pupils in the class: what makes teaching successful is the teacher's vision, his entry into the very life of his pupils, a something which he can never succeed in expressing perfectly. It is the

feeling of the intimate bond that binds the teacher, as it were, to his pupil. This sympathetic intuition, again, is the entering into the heart of the pupil as distinct from the standing over against it and watching its successive acts or selecting views of it.

So then, if the teacher finds a knowledge of psychology useful, he can never afford to forget that it is essential that he should maintain cordial relations with his pupils, should always take care to go to his classes well-prepared with the lessons he has to handle.

Again, all parts of psychology are not of equal importance to a teacher: and this is the second of the two statements which, according to Sully, express the views of men like James and Münsterberg. A knowledge of the processes of attention, interest, memory, fatigue, etc., tells the teacher how he can teach his lessons with maximum effect: and as for the steps he has to adopt, psychology does afford him considerable help. But it would be misleading in the extreme to believe that it is necessary for a teacher to master all the technical details of psychology nor is it of any use for him to pick up a knowledge of the polemical discussions about the speculative problems of psychology.

To sum up, then, the aid that psychology gives to a teacher is indeed considerable: but the teacher has to be much more than a psychologist: a teacher may not have read much of psychology and yet be a good teacher. A man must be first and foremost a teacher if he means to take to teaching as a profession. If he does not feel that he is such a teacher let him not waste time or energy in reading books on psychology. No amount of reading can make him a good teacher. The next best thing would be to see that he never goes to his class unprepared. He should

* p. 50. *Ibid.*

take particular care to prepare his lessons thoroughly so that he can talk with authority and confidence while addressing his pupils. Such a thorough knowledge of the subjects he teaches is sure to win him the respectful attention of his pupils: and that is the surest way of winning their esteem and popularity.

If I may be pardoned a personal reference, I have always felt that I could not do half so well in lessons taught to me by a teacher who could not impress me favourably, as in the lessons taught by men whose sympathies rouse in me a correlative feeling of respect and love for the teacher. This latter type of teacher is the born teacher: He is inspired by an awakening of the educational conscience. Real teaching is inspiration: it is the power to know whatever class has to be taught by entering within, as it were, every pupil and living his life: What makes teaching successful is the teacher's vision, his entry into the very life of his pupil by sympathy, something inexpressible, though the imperfect expressions we have may reveal to us more than we could see without it. And it is the passing remark of such a teacher that is capable of setting in motion 'a train of ideas that ever grows from within until ultimately it forms a dominating system and a constant guide of conduct,' of training the pupil into the perfect exercise and kingly continence of his body and soul, and of setting to work a train of thought which refuses to be quieted until it has worked itself out to a satisfactory conclusion, and which gives the pupil no rest until he has altered his aims, his circumstances, and even his own character so that the idea suggested by the passing remark may the more easily become realised.

S. SUBRAHMANYAM.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.*

NOW-A-DAYS we are hearing often the attempts of the different communities for union and for mutual improvements. Of late the number and strength of such communities are increasing day after day in proportion to the demands of our civilized times and conditions. Such communities are intended for the improvement of the conditions of the members and their line of life. The pioneers of such communal work have practically shown to the world that their example is prospective and possible of immense good, and others, who imitated them, have reaped out the fruits. The result of such initiations and imitations is seen in the crying need everywhere and in every professional community, for a serious and permanent co-operation for common understanding on things pertaining to them and their profession. Coming to examples we have in important commercial centres, the existence of Trade's Associations, such as at Bangalore, Madras, Bombay, Karachi and many other places. The lawyers have started Bar Associations at many places. The Travancore Vakils' Conference held recently at Trivandrum is our nearest example. The contempt thrown on the teachers, of being incapable of the power of organisation and free and liberal discussion, is gradually becoming obsolete after the rise and working of Teachers' Associations at different places in the Madras Presidency. To remove to the last trace the change levelled at us of being narrowed to the beaten path of our line, is not possible unless we can take it into our head to start a teachers' association and work for our common benefit, thereby proving and making ourselves better than what we were.

In all these communities divided on the basis of profession, there is a common purpose, and that is to create and strengthen our human feelings of fellowship, union, co-operation, mutual sympathy and improvement, independent of other considera-

* A paper read by Mr. K. Ramachandrarachar, B.A., Teacher, Scott Christian College, Nagercoil.

tions which unhappily keep us apart for the most part of our professional time. There is a special purpose for each of such communities. The lawyers seek for, and try to get things helpful to them and their line; the merchants, things essential for the success and permanence of their trade; teachers for the improvement of their minds which, otherwise, may often get stagnant and dull, and of their prospects. Associations are the proper places from which can voice forth a united consent or disapproval of things in obedience to circumstances which promote or hinder their interests respectively. A collective opinion, not a divided one, a collective wisdom, not one divided into ever so many ways, union not disunion, are sure and reliable guides to success of all communities, in all nations and countries; in all places laying claim to civilization and advancement, such associations are the accredited spokesman of the affairs of the members therein. The public and the Government have been brought face to face with problems relating to conditions of teachers and teaching. The Educational Conference held recently at Madras, contained the chosen delegates from the different Teachers' Associations of the places coming under its sway. The shaky foundation upon which the conditions of the teachers were placed, introduction of subjects suited to Indian conditions, etc., were discussed upon, and certain resolutions passed unanimously are the index of the teacher's difficulties of the Presidency. Thus the Government and the public are enlightened on the present teachers and teaching, most rightly, nobly and constitutionally. This Educational Conference prayed for certain concessions to teachers above 25 years of age for appearing for higher University degrees. Certain other resolutions passed by them may be mentioned most aptly, without any fear of making this lecture unbearably lengthy. They are the following: (1) That the Conference prays for the introduction of subjects which are calculated to satisfy the Indian conditions; (2) That the Conference prays

that Government might make arrangements for introducing a Provident Fund for teachers, so that after a long period of work, they might use the savings in their old age. This resolution is most urgently needed in view of the painful difficulties that teachers in old age after retirement struggle under. (3) Another resolution to the following effect:—"That the Conference prays that Government may be pleased to recruit from time to time teachers employed in recognised schools and to relax for that purpose rules pertaining to age of entrance into the same; particularly in regard to higher appointments and grades, a certain proportion of the vacancies being filled up by competent persons outside Government service"

Such advanced work need not be at present under our survey and to time and future, let us leave such work when we would have been eligible for it. At present, I may repeat, let us pin our attention to our intellectual improvement and this requires to be begun soon as the soundness of our school work very often depends on our acquisition of general knowledge. The acquisition of general knowledge seasoned with free, liberal and friendly discussion sure to be invoked in our meetings, is a valuable and envied asset to ourselves and our schools. The Association, consisting as it should of English knowing teachers of all grades, degrees, junior or senior, trained and untrained, would educate all our juniors and is an unmistakable sign of our success. Lines of model lessons in different subjects given by different teachers in the meeting can be done under the personal and presidential supervision of a sympathetic headmaster such as we have the fortune of having. Any consultation with the teachers can easily take place under the auspices of such an Association. Thus we should spare him such work that we can do, leaving him with his consent for other works of more responsible and difficult nature, requires his wisdom and learned experience. Subjects of a general and special nature might best be communicated for

the common understanding and improvement. I shall herein give examples of a few subjects which may well occupy our attention. The study of Vernaculars as a media of instruction; heuristic and Montessori methods of teaching, the ways for the creation and improvement of the dramatic literary and scientific powers of our students; study of foreign methods of school systems; value of physical exercise as a part of secondary education; medical inspection of schools; the need for more agricultural and industrial education in India. The importance of character in students. The recent formation of a child study associations in the foreign countries and its value, the introduction of pedagogical laboratories for a knowledge of the special aptitude of the child mind. The introduction of night schools for adult labouring classes; out-door monthly excursions. System of marking and a common understanding with regard to it. System of inter-school examination and matches; history of teaching in India; science in teaching; the educational value of a school garden. Subjects like these will engage sufficient interest, attention and time, and the end of such a busy year will see us wiser and more learned than we were at the start. An objection may be raised that we can study these at home without seeking associations for such an object, but *every one* has no disposition time or inclination to get or read such books bearing on the topics. Even if they are studied by, say, a hypothetical few, there is no harm in hearing the same said and read after careful previous preparation. What we assimilate on such occasions, will remain long on our memory without being a dead lift. It is not possible to over-estimate the interest and effect, in learning things received in meetings when people delight to sit and hear, unlike the dryness and coldness attending on our solitary study at home.

Enough has been theorised on the potentialities of such an association. The good of it is beyond doubt undeniable and attainable but where can we find time for it? Here too I may give a few suggestions which may help its organisation with-

out prejudice to our usual school work and they are both timely and essential. We may meet at distant intervals, say of a month, on a holiday in our school rooms and discuss the subjects given by the lecturer for the occasion. We would little grudge to meet and join together for such an communal purpose at monthly intervals. The subject for the coming month may be announced in the previous meeting, so that teachers other than the lecturer may, if they care, equip themselves with necessary information for an interesting debate. The range for subjects has been hinted at in the previous lines, and teachers should willingly take up subjects so that each may have his say. This implies and requires that all teachers must be members and the expenses towards the starting and maintenance of the association have to be met by a nominal subscription of a small amount.

What are the usual difficulties that dishearten our attempts? A brief mention is certainly not out of place. After we have become teachers, to most of us a study at home is becoming not only more and more difficult, but impossible in some, as we grow more and more and as more and more attention is paid to the narrow grove of our every day life and work, at the cost of our general improvement. The lazy habits that come upon us harden us against any active exertion. To this and to the "policy of waiting (let us wait)," can be traced the lack of rightful enthusiasm which should strike every right mind. If a serious effort is made, everything against it can be overcome. After graduation, some of us deliberately stop their original studious habits on account of varied reasons most of which are not only formidable but preventable, if only we think that our degree is a gate leading into the field of independent and original work. Whatever domestic cares disfavour our attempts, we should not divorce from our minds the justly indignant desire for self-improvement. A ready slave to the seemingly imaginary difficulties would lead us into a dark ignorant period of our life, though with abilities to better ourselves. This sounds like a tragedy of human

knowledge. To be rid of the above lulling influences, should be our motto and what follows will lead us to the bright side of our lives.

Returning from the above digression to our association, should it be for Scott Christian College or for the whole people. To have it for the whole place is a matter over which we have no control and may better be left to a stage when our hands are strengthened with sufficient number and funds. Let correction and reform start in us first but let not these end there. Our examples will induce and enlist the sympathy, co-operation of others and filled with our ideals, they would bring in many more to our ranks. No doubt we might be embarking on an ambitious scheme but so long as we proceed with due enthusiasm on right lines, the scheme may reach the achieved stage. We shall pioneer the work and call it a "Teachers' Association" with no idea to make it a part and parcel of any particular school. Since it is our wish that all teachers of this place should co-operate, it will not be consistent with our purpose and constitution to attach it to any institution. No other object has inspired us to dissociate the association from the school and the association will be an entity only when it voices forth the collective opinion of the teachers of the whole place; otherwise it will be laid on a weak and unreliable foundation. Established independently of schools it would be striking a strong and deep root and cannot be easily liable to decadence from any one source. In time, the association formed under such conditions, will body forth certain things which would find a ready welcome from Government and the public.

My infliction on you is over and I have to thank you for the encouraging attention you have given me during the course of my address.

K. RAMACHANDRACHAR.

THE PLACE OF HISTORY IN EDUCATION.*

EDUCATION had been the prime factor in the progressive evolution of every nation. The touch-stone of a people's culture and civilisation is the nature and character of their educational institutions. Provision made for the spread of elementary education among the masses, equipment of secondary schools with adequate appliances to accord facilities for efficient imparting of useful instruction and arrangements in college classes and institutes of science for successful laboratory and research works—all these reflect credit on the educational activities of a people. If education is looked upon as the agency of bringing light and culture to the educated, if education is to humanise and liberalise the pupils in schools and colleges, and if education is meant to evolve in the pupil good character and a harmonious development of all mental powers, the teacher will have to be very careful in the choice of his subjects, and he will necessarily have to follow certain accredited methods of imparting instruction. Again, if self-realisation is considered to be the goal of education, the educator's task is no small one. Self-realisation is the highest stage of mental evolution and achievement of this ideal is beyond the possibility of the average run of the school-going population. Here also the choice of subjects that pave the road to success is perplexingly difficult. All told, the subjects of study form the pivot on which hinges the true end and aim of education.

The time-honoured theory of Charles Lamb emphasises that if education is to be impart-

* A paper read before the Teachers' Association, Teachers' College, Saidapet, by Mr. P. V. Govindaswamy Iyer, B.A.

ed with a view to systematise the harmonious and evolutionary development of the human mind, sufficient care should be taken to teach the pupil something of everything and everything of something. To expand this theory more intelligibly—there should be studies meant primarily for the acquisition of knowledge, studies that serve the purpose of information, studies that exercise a highly disciplinary value, and studies whose culture tones the mind and elevates the spirit. Science and Mathematics, History and Philosophy, Literature and Art—all these form the essential fields of study in educational institutions. At the same time there is no blinking the fact that though these different branches of study contribute to the store-house of knowledge, each of these subjects has its own failings and shortcomings which leave an indelible impression upon the pupils' tender minds. Mathematical studies are exacting in their nature. Dealing with hypothesis of a given order, proceeding through a galaxy of arranged facts and hair-splitting statements and arriving at subtle conclusions through an elaborate process of reasoning, the study of mathematics disciplines the educated mind and trains him to look upon things with critical faculty and shrewd cynicism that wants to dispute all theories and to prick holes in all statements! What with its unquenchable thirst for 'complicated mechanism and what with its deplorable absence of any humanising influence, study of science sacrifices the pupil to all the evils of mechanical system and stereo-typed method! Philosophy transports the pupils from the mundane world of human existence and tends to make them indifferent members of society, endowed with a feeling akin to contempt for things that lead to material achievement!! History,

perhaps, proves itself to be a bar to progress when the pupil simply commits to memory stray, undigested bits of historical facts or when he gets conceited with the glowing story of his own country to the severe exclusion of other progressive and well-developed countries.

The panacea for this evil effect of History study is no doubt the comprehensive knowledge acquired of world-history so that a comparative view of the various institutions of society, and government, men and manners, tends to expand the horizon of the History student's vision. This will also annihilate the misguided conceit, the resultant of the narrowing study of the institutions pertaining to one's own country and probably also the resultant of a patriotic fervour of historical study. The true place of History in education is to free the human mind from all narrowing ideas of prejudice and party-spirit and pave the way for the wave-like flow of liberal ideas and cosmopolitan tendencies. For in its truest sense History is, as Cicero put it, "the witness of times, the light of truth and the mistress of life" and as such its influence is markedly felt in all fields of human activity—social, economic, industrial, and educational. If it is accepted as a truism that 'Present is a fruit of the Past'—as the theory of evolution holds—and consequently a germ of the future, the study of History undoubtedly exerts a wholesome moral value in the social life of the pupil. As 'History is philosophy teaching by examples,' the educated has ample opportunities to realise in History all the truths of the practical philosophy of life in organised society and this realisation is sure to stand him in good stead when he is called upon to fight the battle of his own life. As Lord

Morley puts it, the study of History is of considerable use to the pupil for the study of History is a guidance to understand the present better and as such it will be in the fitness of things to accord to History a prominent place in the education of our boys. Otherwise it will be idle to expect them to contribute to social efficiency. A knowledge of the history of different nations will exercise the reasoning faculties of the educated, affording sufficient opportunities for comparison, contrast and judgment. History is an eternal tribunal that sits in judgment over nations and international politics and surely the student who intelligently appreciates the course of national politics that lead to stirring passage-at-arms, feels transported to a higher sphere of existence when he communes with the historian, free from all prejudice of the hour and passion of the monument, and arrives at the truth that underlies all national catastrophes and international delinquencies. Lord Acton is at his best when he declares that 'no intellectual exercise can be more invigorating than to watch the working of the mind of Napoleon, the most entirely known as well as the ablest of historic men.' The historic minds that are thus the greatest and the best alone furnish instructive examples for mediocre men to follow and admire. Historical thinking is a powerful ingredient in the formation of human character, and as it is seldom a strong intellect necessarily implies an estimable character, it is essential that History study should be pursued so that the ignorant pupil may be trained to possess a high standard of character. Research work in the field of History trains the pupils to devote their best energy and talent for the detection of error and mendacity in folklore and tradition. This

laborious task of patiently scrutinising the silent pages of archaeological ruins and monumental edifices is sure to impress the pupils with the moral excellence of honesty in arriving at definite conclusions with reference to the historical activities and achievements of the preceding generations. I may pardonably quote Lord Acton once more—'It is by solidity of criticism more than by the plenitude of erudition that the study of History strengthens and straightens and extends the mind.' The student of History gradually acquires critical powers of a very high order and it is this power of efficient criticism that distinguishes him from the servile story-teller whose only redeeming feature is his mechanical pursuit of statements to their root. It is to the credit of historical study that its votaries evolve into critics. We have the authority of Lord Acton to say that few scholars are critics, few critics are philosophers, and few philosophers look with equal care on both sides of a question. Therefore it is pardonable egotism if we claim to historical study the faculty of developing in the pupil high powers of criticism, quite in keeping with Lord Acton's advice to Cambridge scholars—'Be more severe to ideas than to actions.' 'Study problems in preference to periods.' 'See that your judgments are your own, and do not shrink from disagreement.' Burke, the high priest of British liberalism, has expressed himself clearly thus:—'History is a preceptor of prudence, not of principles. The principles of true politics are those of morality enlarged.' In the face of this weighty pronouncement, it requires no special advocacy to emphasise that History forms one of the most attractive and profitable subjects of study, that History is comprehensive of phil-

osophy, religion and political creed and History therefore aims at a high standard of social excellence. Thus it is abundantly clear that the study of History enlarges the mind of the pupil, tones his mental calibre, and enriches his thoughts and ideas ; in fine it liberalises and humanises him !

HISTORY TEACHING IN THE LOWER FORMS.

HISTORY, a study not merely of dates and facts as Johnson conceived it, nor yet of the lives of heroes as Carlyle preached it, has a claim to be considered as a companion to children and statesmen, for it delights the former by its stories and the latter by its precedents. It is a fact that the subject is chosen as the last recourse by the student who has no aptitude for any of the sciences and thus the permanence and the usefulness of history has been lightly set aside, and if this is the case with foreign histories, the History of India has been neglected by the curriculum itself in the High Schools, not to mention the aversion with which the subject is handled both by the teachers and the taught.

Long before the ancestors of modern Europeans were wallowing in the forests searching for a home and ever knocking at the gates of Rome, nay long before Rome itself overthrew its tyranny, the Indians had a history, which though it has fallen on evil days and evil tongues, is worthy to be a sure companion of courts and camps. When the higher classes disregard the subject the tendency to follow them is manifest in the lower Forms.

Many are under the perplexity of how to introduce the subject ; and various methods

being adopted in various schools, it is high time that we should have a fixed method to guide us. In many schools beginning the subject in the First Form with dry facts to be mugged up they cause a permanent aversion to the subject. Generally it must be taught in Class III and continued in Class IV with simple stories, such tales of valour or chivalry as are found in old books so spiritedly handled as to create a longing to know further. Then a complete survey of the subject mixed with facts and events should be given in the vernacular in the First and Second Forms.

Then comes the crucial point. Some propose that the subject should be taught in the vernacular in the Third Form. We know that some ten years before the subject was begun in the First Form in English and when the boy came to the Third Form he had a knowledge of the subject with a good knowledge of English. But now if the boy were to learn in the vernacular in the Third Form not only is his English not improved but he acquires a pronunciation of historical names in the vernacular which completely spoils his English pronunciation. Further if he acquires a detailed knowledge of the subject, as is proposed, what is he to do in the higher Forms ? Moreover when the sister subjects are taught in English, is the most useful history alone to be taught in the vernacular ? When he learns the subject in English the student initiates himself in English names and prepares the ground for his studies in the higher classes.

Next comes the question of suitable texts. Though books are generally avoided for the Primary classes it is necessary for the Lower Forms to avoid mistakes in pupils' notes. Many books being in the market, Mr. Veeraraghavachari's book in the vernacular has been

adopted in various schools. The fact that it condenses too much of the subject in a narrow space, causes much trouble both to the boys and to some of the teachers. The worst of the case is that the boys in some schools are made to learn the details of the latest research in the Hindu period in the First Form.

For the Third Form, the text-book should be such as to give the least difficulty to the boys understanding the text ; and many of the books that are now offered either give too many details with difficult words and phrases on a certain period, leaping over a vast period of history, or, go to the other extreme of studding every page with matter. Thus the want of suitable text-books, the neglect of the subject by the curriculum and the worst heresy of constant doubt of the garb in which it should be presented have contributed not a little to the indifference among the boys of the Lower Forms. We hope that the evil would be remedied.

G. SESHADRI.

IN MEMORIAM.

To J. H. MACKINTOSH, Esq., M.A.

GONE ? No, not gone, except from mortal sight,
And mortal sight does not reach far enough !
It is God's way of playing blindman's-buff,
So novel it is but *He* must be right !
Yes, true, he was with us but yesternight,
He who held us enthralled in silken bonds of love ;
To-day although removed a step above,
He's still of us but with a difference slight !
Come, let us wipe our tears and use our wit
To peep beyond through *Maya's* slender veil—
There ! Mark him blended with the Infinite,
The source of all, where we shall also steal
One day, for thence we come and thither go,
E'en like the rain returning back below.

S. SRINIVASAN.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH.

THE fourth annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, held in Chicago, November 27 and 28, 1914, was the largest and most enthusiastic meeting the Council has ever had. The delegates, who had come from most of the States of the Union, took home with them new inspiration for their work and many practical ideas of instruction.

From President Baker's address on Friday (27th) morning to Professor Curry's witty and suggestive paper on Literature as Recreation just before noon Saturday (28th) the meetings were crammed full of strong papers and lively discussion. President Baker decried the soft pedagogy which would make reading only play. Enough of that kind of reading will be done without encouragement. The teacher should help the pupil to master more difficult things, those which call for real study. Maurice W. Moe of Appleton, Wis., told of the United Amateur Press Association of America, an organization whose members not only inspire each other to better work but support both private and public bureaus of criticism. Many teachers already belong for their own pleasure, and the possibility of using this organization and its work to create interest among the pupils is just beginning to be realized. Walter Barnes of Fairmont, W. Va., presented a report upon rural schools, which pointed out very definitely several weak spots in their instruction in English branches.

The interest centered, however, chiefly about the movements for voice training and better libraries. On Friday (27th) morning a large audience listened willingly to ten speakers who described the present defects of the American speaking voice and asked the Council to do something to correct the defects. Professor Clapp's motion to appoint a very large representative Committee to make a thorough investigation of methods of voice training which could be applied in our common schools was carried

enthusiastically. The Committee will be so constituted as to insure a thorough and impartial consideration of all the methods now in use by various private teachers of the voice.

The librarians, who were present in large numbers, made it very clear that one of the most urgent needs of our schools is strong libraries and well-trained librarians. C. E. Ayers of Warrensburg, Mo., insisted that if we are really to make literature a delight to our pupils, we must have a good supply and a wide variety of books immediately accessible to those pupils. Mary E. Hall of Brooklyn added that the books will fail of their greatest usefulness unless they are in charge of a librarian who is an inspiring guide in directing the pupil's reading. The books should be supplemented by collections of pictures and placed in rooms with plants and good furniture. An English "club room" should open off the library. All this would cost almost as much as a science laboratory but it would minister to the inner life of the whole schools as nothing else can. W. D. Johnston, of the St. Paul Public Library, emphasized the need of co-operation between the schools and the public libraries, especially in the smaller places where school libraries are impossible. Teachers everywhere may be of greatest assistance in selecting the books to be purchased. The Council adopted a resolution recommending that the school authorities of each State appoint a trained supervisor of school libraries.

The following officers were elected:—President: E. H. K. McComb, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis Ind.; First Vice-President: Edwin M. Hopkins, University of Kansas; Second Vice-President: Emma Breck, University High School, Oakland, Calif.; Secretary: James F. Hasic, Chicago Normal College; Treasurer: C. C. Certain, Central High School Birmingham, Ala.

The Council will hold a special meeting with the Department of Superintendence in Cincinnati in February 1915, at which English as an administrative problem will be discussed. Plans are also laid for a very important session in connection with the N. E. A. at Oakland next August. This will be in part an international conference on the teaching of English.

The Council has a membership covering every State in the Union and several foreign countries and serves as a clearing-house for over forty State and City Associations with a combined membership of over ten thousand. The executive office is at Sixty-eighth St. and Stewart Ave., Chicago, Ill.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF THE LIBRARY

BY

W. DAWSON JOHNSTON, ST. PAUL PUBLIC LIBRARY.

The public library is the most democratic of all institutions. It has unrivalled opportunities to form public opinion and to inform it, and will have still larger opportunities as its educational possibilities are recognized and the co-operation of other educational agencies is secured. This is particularly true in the smaller cities and towns where the library cannot afford to employ a staff of specialists, and schools and other organizations cannot afford to institute libraries of their own.

In no respect is library administration to-day weaker than in the selection of books and in no direction is it more in need of assistance from teachers and others. Instead of leaving the reviewing of books to benevolent journalists and the selection of books for the public library to librarians too amiable to deny any request, particularly any request suggested by the reading of local newspaper reviews, there should be a board of censors in every community, made up of those most interested in literature and science, a board independent of Grub street.

The duties of the teacher, and particularly of the teacher of English literature, are no longer confined to the walls of the class-room and the few years of the school course; they extend also to the home, to all societies interested in literature, and to that great company whose sole study is the newspaper.

THE LIBRARY AND THE ENG. TEACHER.

BY MARY S. HALL,

Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

"A live, twentieth century school library in every Normal School and City High School in the

country!" is a pressing need in the English work to-day. Cities and States are finding such a library an investment which pays large dividends in vitalizing and humanizing the entire work of a school. It has a work to do which cannot possibly be done by the public library after school.

Books locked in glass cases, shelved in the Principal's office or in small unattractive reading-rooms are not going to inspire the average pupil with a love for good reading. Libraries without periodicals and organized collections of pictures, clippings and pamphlets have failed to "make good" in English work.

If the library is to be effective as the English teacher's laboratory we must have larger, more attractive rooms and several of them with plants, pictures, and good furnishings. We must appeal to the æsthetic sense and make the room a delight. There must be modern library equipment in the matter of filing cases, bulletin boards, catalogues, etc. It must have books which are alive and appeal to the average pupil. Fine illustrated editions of the world's great books will tempt the most indifferent to read. Adjoining the library should be a model library class-room which could serve as the "English room" suggested in the "Report on English equipment." Here English classes could meet to use books and pictures in a recitation or enjoy a talk made doubly interesting by the use of a radiopticon which should be a part of this room's equipment. This room would be excellent as a social centre for use after school by Library Reading Clubs,—Travel Clubs, Shakespeare Club, Poetry Club, etc., and for Debating Societies.

The modern school librarian must not only be a trained organizer but a teacher and an inspiring guide in directing the reading of the pupils. This should be thought of in every future appointment of a school librarian. Can the English teacher welcome her as an equal in culture, ideals, and ability as she enters into the work of the department? Can she fan the flame of interest the English teacher kindles in the class-room and see that the whole atmosphere of the library is not only informational but inspirational?

THE SPEAKING VOICE.

The American speaking voice, to use the bold metaphor of a friend of mine, is a stench in the nostrils of the world. Of all the great civilized peoples there is none which uses its own language so badly, in daily speech, as we do. Our utterance is slovenly, our tone ineffective or positively unpleasant. Yet, without intelligent command of the voice in ordinary speech mastery of composition, whether oral or written, and full understanding of literature are almost if not quite impossible. We teachers of English are hopelessly handicapped in all our work so long as our people continue to neglect the education of the voice.

Hardly anyone in America, whether teacher or parent, concerns himself seriously with the training of young people in speech, except the occasional teachers of Expression or Public Speaking, and they reach but a few of the population. Let any one stop and listen to the voices of his own dear friends at a party, or in the family circle, and he will realize the truth of these statements.

Now much can be done, by teaching, to improve the speech of a people. Much is being done in France, in Italy, in Germany, in England. An American who has lived in England will agree that the ordinary English man or woman uses his own language more distinctly with softer and pleasanter tone, than the ordinary American man or woman. I do not like the up-and-down inflections of the Englishman's speech, but I must admit his great distinctness, and his mellower, more effective tone. In England they pay attention to this matter of speech in their schools. At the remarkable Conference of Teachers of English last summer I was impressed by two things. One was the great respect those English school-teachers showed for the work we Americans have been doing particularly in teaching Composition.

The other was the very manifest superiority the English schools have in the attention they pay to the fundamentals of English education, and particularly to speech. The Normal Schools of London (or as they call them, Training Colleges) require careful instruction in the use of the voice

as an essential for all persons who desire teacher's certificates.

The English teachers of America, I believe, are at last ready to attack this fundamental task. It will be a long, hard labour, raising the standard of correctness, effectiveness, and beauty of speech—a "long way to Tipperary"—a ten years' effort at least before we can begin really to see results, but I believe, now that we have the National Council to unify our efforts, that we shall succeed.

We are glad to feel that at last we are all united in this National Council of English teachers and ready to co-operate in a nation-wide campaign. A committee should be appointed, and report in a year, or two, or three, what should be done, what we can do, towards improving our national speech. Such a committee must be able and widely representative. Teachers of English, in college and school, teachers of Elocution and Public Speaking, teachers of Singing, as well as distinguished users of English—actors and actresses, and public men, who represent American command of speech to the world must all be included. It must be a national committee, for its work will be nation-wide in its scope. Its methods must be as thorough in their own way as that of the famous Hopkin's Committee on the Labour of Composition Teaching.

What such a committee would do we cannot now say. Some things, however, we may be fairly sure they will have to do. First, they will have to find ways to bring the importance of care for speech home to all teachers of English, to other teachers, and particularly to the school authorities and school boards. Secondly, they must find ways of helping the vast army of teachers of English who are now untrained, vocally, to improve their condition. This is a case on a large scale, of what to do till the doctor comes! Thirdly, they must find ways of making speech training, under really good teachers of the voice accessible to all teachers of English—and eventually of other subjects. Fourthly, they must show how we are to utilize the opportunities of the regular work in the English classes, in Literature and in Composition, to improve the speech of our pupils.

All this is a large work, but it is work which must be done, if our work as teachers of English is to attain full success. With the backing of the National Council it can be done.

JOHN M. CLAPP.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION ADDRESS

(14th November 1914.)

MR. VICE-CHANCELLOR, FELLOWS AND GRADUATES—

Convocation meets to-day at one of the junctures in the world's history when the oratory of the schools is silenced in the clash of arms. No rare experience was this for the ancient Universities of Europe. Bologna, probably the oldest of all our sisters now, was of the same age as our own University when Italy was ravaged by Frederick Barbarossa. Paris in its youth must often have echoed with the battle-cries of the Capets and the Angevins; and it was amid the bloodshed of the later middle ages that most of our great foundations took their rise. In later years our homes of learning had been spared the alarms of war. But during the last two months the venerable halls of Louvain have suffered a fate which no mediæval despot would have inflicted; and from Liège there comes the thrilling tale of how it was during one of the University examinations that the first thunder of the invaders' guns was heard, how the answers to the paper of the hour were completed and calmly handed in, and how the under-graduates then streamed out to the firing line, many of them, alas, never to return. No such high test of courage may await the members of this University: it may not be our part to—

"Translate ourselves out of the speech of peace, Into the harsh and boisterous tongue of war." Our task will rather be to serve our King and Empire by carrying on, firmly and faithfully, our allotted share of India's work,—the imparting of knowledge and the formation of character, without which loyalty would be an illusion and the citizenship of a great Empire an empty boast. I proceed therefore, in accordance with our

established usage, though on this occasion with studied brevity, to review our work as a University during the last year. I shall then touch on the general progress of education in the United Provinces; and finish with a few suggestions for further advance in the art of instruction and the cause of learning.

During the year which now closes the story of our University has been one of continuous progress on two main lines; on one hand, in encouraging our Colleges to raise their standard; on the other, in establishing our own position as a teaching body. In the former direction, we are indebted to those of our Fellows who have given much of their leisure to the inspection of outlying Colleges; and we owe genuine gratitude to the Syndicate for their jealous scrutiny of applications for affiliation,—a task of high importance, but always delicate and often invidious, to which I shall refer again. In the latter direction, the development of a teaching University, we have made gratifying progress. Two of the University chairs which the munificence of the Imperial Government has enabled us to found have been filled. From one we shortly hope to hear the ripe erudition of our old friend and colleague, Dr. Venis, whom the *Atropos* of our age rules severed from his collegiate work at the prime of his utility, but whose valued co-operation we thus happily retain. In the other chair we shall shortly welcome Mr. Stanley Jevons, the bearer of an honoured name in the field of economics, a subject which at the present day claims the most anxious care of our Indian Universities. A further pledge of growth as a teaching body was the formal opening in last March of the new Law College, to which a hostel will shortly be added. Finally, the walls of our future library are rising rapidly a stone's throw from here; and thus will be completed our group of central buildings. It is not the mere dream of a visionary to picture that future day when, from where we now sit to the Moorish domes of Muir College, there will be

one continuous vista of academic fanes,—stately halls and high-pitched roofs and towers, a busy hive of student life, and a living embodiment of the University ideal.

Turning from our material to our personal interests, we have been singularly fortunate in persuading you, Sir, to retain for another triennial period the office of Vice-Chancellor. We members of Convocation know, and the history of this University will record, how deep is its indebtedness to Dr. Sundar Lal. Profound in learning, kindly in heart, sagacious in council, this distinguished alumnus watches and guides our affairs with a patient devotion which is a permanent wonder to those of us who realize the burden of other work which he carries with a smile. This is not the only respect in which fortune has treated us well; for there is only one gap in our ranks of fellowship, apart from a few resignations. This is due to the lamented death of Rai Ganga Prasad Varma Bahadur, a wise and patriotic educationalist to whom all sections of the community have already united in their tributes. While however our Senate has undergone little change, we daily feel the necessity for strengthening it. As the scope of our activities widens, we need more expert assistance. It is the every-day executive work of our faculties which feels this need acutely. We want more strength particularly in the new faculty of commerce, in the oriental classics, and in several other branches of our work. It was therefore a disappointment to us that the Government of India were unable to grant our request for an increase in the number of our ordinary Fellows from 75 to 100. But there is no use in acknowledging defeat; and if we may not add to our numbers, I am sure that some of our colleagues who have scanty time or opportunity for taking part in University business will be ready to help us in a gradual re-adjustment which will have the same effect. In the appointments which rest with me, I have endeavoured to secure represen-

tatives both of our large and scattered congeries of affiliated colleges, and of the diverse communal interests which education touches. Under the pressure of our new conditions we may have to relax that ideal. If therefore I am unable to reappoint Fellows whom duty or distance or other accident debars from frequent visits to Allahabad, I trust they will recognize that no discourtesy to them is implied, and that the insistent demands of the faculties leave me no option.

Two years ago, when I first had the privilege of addressing Convocation, I ventured on a brief survey of the wider educational problems of this province, believing that the whole field of instruction lies within the domain of your sympathies. Since then I have received ungrudging help from members of the University in dealing with these problems, and this may be my excuse for a short account of the progress that has been made. In the realm of primary education, we have at last got a plan of campaign which ought to bring sound and durable instruction to the doors of the people. Time will be required to develop it; but our confident hope is that it will largely swell the numbers of school children, that they will be under the care of better-paid and better-educated teachers, and that they will learn not only what they will not forget but what will be of permanent value to them, whether they return to their ancestral vocations or go on to higher studies. We have endeavoured to carry the public with us; we have tried above all to enlist the interest and concurrence of the parents, whom there is sometimes a tendency to forget. Climbing to the next rung in the ladder of learning, we come to the middle vernacular schools. On the improvement of these also we are busily engaged, seeking to prolong the course a little, to make it more practical, and to give a more literary flavour to the curriculum. In this way we hope to secure more intelligent material for our primary teachers. But our

wider hope is to impart, right away from the foundation, a better knowledge of the vernacular language and literature, and thus to further two purposes in which the University is deeply concerned. You are, I am sure, at one with me in desiring to engender a closer interest in vernacular studies, and especially a more cultured usage of the mother-tongue. You are also, I doubt not, convinced that the boy who gets a working acquaintance with the structure of his own language, and acquires some knowledge of its flexibility and literary genius, is thereby immensely helped when he comes to learn a foreign language. It is in this belief that we feel that any extra time spent on a better training in the vernacular will be more than saved when the pupil enters upon the study of English.

This would lead me naturally to the last stage of our pre-collegiate work, the High School, but on that branch of our subject I do not at the moment wish to say more than a word of grateful recognition of the part which private enterprise is playing in the promotion of secondary education. Public opinion has accepted the inevitable division of labour that I have often suggested; and through the length and breadth of the province new high schools are springing up, as the result of the generosity of individuals or castes or special communities, or as memorials to distinguished men, or as emblems of patriotism and loyalty. There is no more gratifying sign of the times than this unselfish and far-sighted movement for the spread of secondary education. The Government welcomes it and gladly helps it so far as lies within the power of the public exchequer. But in this qualifying phrase lurks an element of anxiety. At present, when a new high school is mooted, the promoters have a practical assurance that they have only to prove the public demand for it in order to procure a provincial grant of half its capital cost and current expenses, while if subscribers should subsequently become lukewarm, there is a vague hope

that Government will somehow save the venture from collapse. Now I am convinced that the present scale of grants-in-aid cannot be indefinitely expended by the State. The demand for primary education at one end, and the paramount importance of strengthening collegiate teaching at the other, will impose a constantly growing drain upon the public funds; and the time is near, unless we are to have fresh taxation, when secondary schools must become more self-reliant. I take this opportunity therefore of appealing through Convocation to all who are interested in education, for a more discriminating liberality in extending secondary schools. Particularly strong is the case for judicious endowments. A school which lives from hand to mouth, meagrely housed, dependent on the caprice of subscribers, or vaguely expectant of Government grants, cannot possibly do good work. Good teachers must be assured of adequate pay, and managers should not be wholly absorbed in financial anxieties. An endowment does not produce the same immediate return as a donation for bricks and mortar; but it does no less credit to the pious donor, it is equally easily commemorated, and it is a wise investment for coming generations.

Before leaving this hurried survey of our general educational progress, I ask your permission to allude in a word to one new experiment on which I have decided to embark,—a provincial Board of Education. It has been our desire, as I have said, to take the parent and the intelligent public with us. Education is not a matter of dogma and *a priori* generalizing. It is far too living and advancing a science for that. It is a thing of test and trial, consultation and corporate experience. To secure that experience, to check the expert view by practical criticism and *vice versa*, and to borrow outside light for our departmental labours, seemed to me to necessitate some more permanent organization than spasmodic appeals in the Gazette. A con-

sultative body, as widely representative as possible of enlightened public opinion and of professional wisdom will accordingly be constituted at once, to advise on branches of education which are not directly subordinate to the University. This reservation is obviously called for if friction is to be avoided; but no one stage in our educational work is wholly independent of the stage next; it, and it would be a cause of much gratification to the Government if, as time goes on and the Board's functions are consolidated, friendly relations could be established between it and the University.

Members of Convocation, I come now to that area in the vast field of educational effort which our University takes directly under its fostering care. What I offer for your consideration on this subject is, I pray you to believe me, tinged with no shade of criticism and inspired by no mere desire for change. This University has laboured strenuously, unselfishly and with a proud disregard for possible unpopularity, to secure higher standards of work in the colleges and in the schools from which they are fed. My suggestions this afternoon are imbued with the same spirit and move in the same direction. Our aim, yours and mine, is a common one. We are jealous for the good name of the Allahabad University, and eager to see it admitted, in its academic stature and in the calibre of its alumni, to be the first in India. The proposals towards this end to which I now invite your attention are twofold; one deals with our colleges, and the other with our high schools.

No more ungrateful, but at the same time no more necessary, duty devolves on the University than the duty of deciding that a College may or may not teach a particular subject for a particular examination. As the University opens up new ranges of study for its degrees, the aided Colleges tend to claim a share in teaching them. The students, out of curiosity or intellectual interest or sometimes, it would be idle to ignore,

in the search for an easy degree, ask for opportunities of learning each new option as the University decides to recognize it. Parents make the same demand, and in any case they naturally hope that, if their son has to be moved from one College to another, he will be able to continue his study of the same subjects. Steady pressure is exercised upon the managers, which they find it difficult to resist. Reluctantly they draw on their narrow resources, procure such equipment and offer a lecturer such pay as they can afford, and then come up to the University for affiliation in the particular new subject. It becomes the task of the University to say whether the teaching arrangements are adequate, in other words to grant affiliation, permanently or for a period, or to refuse it. This task has been performed unflinchingly, but I now ask the Colleges if they cannot lighten it. The broad principles of dividing labour and specializing functions apply to education as to everything else. No single College can possibly teach every subject for which its students ask, without access to the purse of Fortunatus. With many subjects, it is better not to teach at all than to teach indifferently. With certain subjects which are now rising in favour, and I refer particularly to history and economics, poor teaching is capable of doing great harm, and good teaching means exceptionally gifted lecturers and costly libraries. Every head of a College in his heart agrees with me; but yet we see constant efforts for affiliation in these subjects by Colleges which cannot afford either the lecturer or the library. I speak in no unkindness. I recognize the great handicaps against which our Colleges contend;—the distances from other Colleges, the unavoidable migrations of students, the hungry flocks and the empty wallets. But facts have to be faced, and do you not agree with me that some division of functions—informal, it may be but well recognized—should be attempted? Would not a College be following its best interests if it decides that it

can teach certain groups of subjects well, that it will put into them all its energy and its money, and that within reason it will resist all outside pressure to diverge into other lines of study? If these propositions are not repugnant to true education, may I, with the concurrence of the University, invite the Colleges to a round-table conference a little later in the year? I shall have no cut-and-dried scheme to place before them. Each College knows best its own traditions and its own capacity. All that the Local Government will ask is permission to help it along the lines of its own greatest efficiency, so that it may be unhampered in doing the work for which it is best adapted. Some hardship may result to individuals, some disappointment to the public; but in mitigating them the Government will gladly co-operate. My hope is that the prestige of our Colleges will be enhanced, each in its own special group of studies, that teaching will be concentrated and strengthened, and that the standards of our University will thus reach forward to higher things.

The second suggestion which I tender for discussion to-day has also a relation to better teaching, but it is associated still more closely with the well-being of the student. As one visits College after College, seeing more of under-graduate life, and particularly of those whose sad lot it is to fall out by the way, there is one impression that steadily graves itself deeper on the mind. It is the impression of the terrible strain, mental and physical, which our University course imposes on vast numbers of the student community. Much has been done to alleviate it, by saner methods of teaching, by healthy buildings, by the encouragement of athletics. But its effects cannot be shaken off. You see them in the results of our intermediate examination. You see them in the prevalence of defective eyesight. You see them in the statistics of tubercular disease; and it saddens my heart to find so many bright-eyed lads from our Colleges among the patients in the

great consumptive sanatorium at Bhowali when I visited it last month. This of course is no new discovery, and the reasons for the strain are well within the knowledge of all of us. Some of them are social, some of them are economical, and so on. But the more I see of this evil, the more am I convinced that one of the chief factors in sapping the student's health is the attempt to teach him through a language which he very imperfectly understands. For too many boys enter our colleges who do not know enough colloquial English to follow the lectures. They are afraid or ashamed to admit it; and as the work goes on, always over their heads, they lose heart and interest. To make up for what has escaped them in the class-room, they throw themselves on their text-books, and a struggle to memorize takes the place of the hopeless struggle to understand. Thence follow in rapid succession, cram, inordinate hours, over-work, declining health, and failure in examinations. Finally, out of the amalgam comes that exceeding great bitterness which is distilled from a broken heart and a shattered constitution. I have no desire to paint too lurid a picture; but the evidence is indefeasible that the defective educational equipment with which so many lads start their College career is at the bottom of much of the failure, discontent and disease which are too frequently the only harvest they reap from it. Can this be remedied? I am convinced that in great measure it can. For good or evil, our University system is based on English as the vehicle of instruction; and it is too late to put back the hands of the clock in this respect. What we can do however, and what I ask you to support me in saying that it is our imperative duty to do, is to see that the student enters his College with a sufficient equipment of English to enable him to assimilate with the minimum of effort, what he is taught in that language. In what precise manner this is to be accomplished, I leave it to the experts to determine. It will presumably mean a lengthening and strengthening

of the high school course. An ideal which has been advocated by one of the warmest friends of education in this province, Mr. S. P. O'Donnell, is that the schools should take over what are now known as the intermediate classes, and that the colleges would thus be left at liberty to build up on much better material a fabric of more genuine learning. I would gladly see that ideal realized; and if it is not a possibility of the immediate future, we can at least begin the ladder by which it may be reached. But it is far from my wish to prejudge the question, which will require thoughtful study by those who are most familiar with its operative details. I propose therefore to ask the consent of the University to submit this issue also to the round-table conference which I mentioned a few minutes ago. Any steps of importance towards either of the two reforms for which I have now besought your consideration will inevitably mean financial sacrifices; and I should be a preacher of empty words if I did not assure you beforehand that the Local Government will be ready to undertake its share in whatever sacrifices may be necessary.

Members of Convocation, before asking you to consider these suggestions, I disclaimed any more desire for change. My sole aim is, and always will be, the greater efficiency of our University. There are two kinds of efficiency. One kind, wrongly so called, seeks for a mechanical perfection, an official symmetry, a standardizing of work and ideals with little thought for human weakness and human reticences. Such is the Teutonic form of efficiency, against which the armies of England and India are battling in Europe at this moment. The efficiency which we want in the India of to-day is of a different and a better type. It seeks for a steady improvement of the conditions which stimulate self-development; it does not despise the feelings and frailties of mankind; and it moves through the portals of conviction towards the goal of the ideal. It is in this sense that

efficiency must ever be the rally-cry of our University. We can never stand still but must always move forward, striving for the best, with a divine discontent for all the spurious imitations and the makeshifts which we may be asked to accept in its place. In the ordinary life of the world we have constantly to endure the second-best, or something still poorer, in art, in music, in literature, in our companionships. But let us not foist the second-best, if we can help it, on our students. The temptations to be content with it will assail them soon enough. Be it our part to give them the best we can command, and to help them to enjoy and desire it. In this way shall we raise the true efficiency of our University and ensure for our graduates their proper place in the van of Indian progress.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Definition and Scope of Economics, by Prof. H. Stanley Jevons.

The following is a portion of the inaugural lecture delivered on the 11th instant at the Senate House, Allahabad, by Prof. H. Stanley Jevons, University Professor of Economics.

Perhaps this is too abstract a statement to convey to many of you much meaning, so let me give you also the extensive definition. Primarily economics is concerned with the wants of man and with how he satisfies them by the consumption and use of all manner of goods. It deals with the production of commodities from the earth's natural resources—with the labour in field and home, in mine, workshop and factory. It studies the use of machinery and the organization of industry, its growth and its adjustment to the demand. Another branch deals with the exchange of goods, the theories of barter and use of money, of foreign trade, of currency, banking, credit and finance generally. Another great department of the science treats of distribution—distribution not of goods, but of the income arising from joint efforts at production. Labour does not work unaided—the landowner must lend his land, the capitalist his store of money; in every complex industry some one must organise, direct and control labour, and the same or another man must bear the risk of loss from which no enterprise is free. The stream of goods jointly produced by all these persons they convert into a stream of

money; but who shall say how much one has produced, how much another? Because of this uncertainty continues the unending controversy between Capital and Labour, the latter always claiming a greater share. But the wonderfully complex economic laws of supply and demand do at any moment inexorably determine the distribution of the joint product between the agents of production, subject only to possible legislative interference, the results of which may be unlooked for. Distribution means then the study of the causes of changes of supply and demand and their effects in altering the sub-division of the joint product amongst the agents of production. It is the most difficult, but yet the most fascinating field of economic inquiry.

So far I have touched only on the economics of the community regarded as an aggregate of individuals. For many purposes, however, the aggregate of individuals becomes a unified social organism, and within the nation so composed a multitude of groups of co-operating individuals are formed. It is part of the province of economics to study the economic activities of nations, and to consider national policies. Likewise the economics of co-operation—municipal, commercial and social—in producing, maintaining, and consuming, is another big field of economic study.

You see how wide is the purview of the economist, even when he confines himself only to the phenomena he finds around him in the life of to-day—a course which he cannot safely pursue. The social organism is constantly growing—expanding in its activities, developing the powers of its individuals, and re-arranging its structure. The economist is forced, therefore, to study the history of communities for centuries back, and to trace out how the economic laws manifested themselves with differing results under the different conditions prevailing in those times. Thus arises the youthful but important science known as economic history.

DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE METHODS.

Even yet I have not indicated the fulness of economic studies, for it is necessary to distinguish between the two methods of work, both needed to discover and firmly establish the truth, but so different that to a great extent they must be carried out by different persons. I refer to the deductive and inductive methods, which in varying sequence and combination constitute the method of every science. Hitherto the work of economists has been mainly deductive. Taking as their premises the commonly observed facts of human nature, and a few well-known economic

laws discovered in agriculture and commerce, they have made an elaborate series of deductions. Observation of industrial enterprises has then supplied material with which to check and extend these deductions. The few economists who possessed mathematical gifts and training have done remarkable work in establishing economics upon its true basis as a quantitative science. Amongst them Austrian, Italian and Swiss are prominent together with English writers. They have shown that deductions in economics may be best achieved by the ordinary methods of the mathematician and by a liberal use of graphs, or illustrative curves, which are most useful in bringing home to the eye the true nature of the economic variables met with in every branch of the science.

Economic truths established solely by the most careful deduction are, however, seldom complete—I mean that they rarely apply to any actually existing conditions in any particular country. Just as astronomers have needed to supplement their knowledge of the properties of spheres and eclipses by telescopic observations which have brought to light unsuspected deformations and perturbations of the planets and their orbits, so must the economist check by further observations his deductive efforts, however sustained and clever they may be, before he can be sure of reaching the whole truth. It would be possible for me to think out in the utmost detail how the laws of the supply of labour in different employments obtaining in the conditions of western Europe must be modified in a country where the caste system prevails; but it would be folly to imagine that I could thus arrive sufficiently near the whole truth for my results to be used as if true. Every stage of deduction needs confirmation by fresh observations; and the whole truth of any matter can only be ascertained by an ingenious combination of deductive suggestions with continuous observation and inductive generalisations from the observed facts. Social phenomena are so complex that no one man can collect enough facts safely to check his deductions, so that economists have to fall back upon statistics, which in modern times are extensively collected by Government and other agencies. Used with a full knowledge of their origin and meaning, which can often only be obtained by a special personal enquiry, statistics of population, prices, and so forth, are the foundation on which all exact economic generalisations must be based. The study of statistics, and the use of various complicated ways of obtaining economic laws from a multitude of facts and figures, is a special de-

partment of study in itself, and it involves work of a most lengthy and laborious character. Statistical economics is yet quite in its infancy, and much attention should be paid to developing it in the near future.

One further discrimination remains to be made before we fully understand the work of the economic investigator. A science is termed a pure, or positive science when knowledge is accumulated solely with a view to discovering the truth for its own sake. In the positive science there is no question of deciding what men ought to do and how they should do it. A positive science, such as chemistry, physics or zoology, simply describes things as they are and investigates the relations of cause and effect amongst the different phenomena. Economics—using the term in its proper and restricted sense—is a positive science—an ordered body of knowledge observing and describing the industrial and commercial world as it exists to-day, and discovering the causal relationships of the phenomena of prices, wages, rent, depressions of trade, etc.

Dr. Ray on Ancient Hindu Chemistry.

Dr. P. C. Ray, Professor of Chemistry, Presidency College, Calcutta, delivered a public lecture on the 20th inst., at Bradlaugh Hall, Lahore, on Ancient Hindu Chemistry. The Rev. Dr. Ewing, Vice-Chancellor, Punjab University, presided. There was a large and representative gathering. Dr. Ray began with a reference to the ancient University of Taxilla which was situated in west Punjab where the Jivaka known as Komar Vaccha or specialist in Midwifery and allied branches as well as Panini, the great Grammarian, and Chanakya, the Machiavelli of ancient India, received their training first in particular studies of medicine at that seat of learning. The lecturer then stated that not only were various arts and sciences cultivated in ancient India but their votaries often acquired proficiency in some of these and were regarded as specialists. Among the 64 kalas or arts and sciences which were enumerated in old work of Vatsyana called Kamasutra occur the names of Dhatubud or chemistry and metallurgy and Subarna Ratna Pariksha or examination and valuation of gold and gems and the science of colouring of gems and jewels as also of mines and quarries. The lecturer then mentioned that in the Vrihat Samhita of Varahamihir 587 A.D. the preparation of iron and mercury was recommended among tonics and to the author of Maravasya Patanjali is ascribed the authorship of a treatise

on the metallurgy of iron. *Aprpos* of the origin of Indian chemistry the learned lecturer said that among the Arabs and European nations the origin of chemistry is connected with the search of the philosopher's stone and elixir vital. The case in India was different. After referring to Dr. Thibaut's proposition about Geometry and Astronomy in India having been born out of the exigencies of Vedic and other religious rites the lecturer said that the cultivation of chemistry in India equally received a stimulus as an adjunct of Yoga philosophy. Later on Chemistry became associated with the Philosophy of Tantras and ancient authors were eloquent about the virtues of mercurial preparations and mica purified. After enumerating ancient work on this subject Dr Ray said that so great was the importance laid that a separate system of philosophy, that of mercury, sprang up. The lecturer then explained the meaning of Rasa which originally meant metallic salts and minerals as well as mercury but gradually Rasayana or chemistry was almost exclusively applied to the use of mercurial and metallic preparations as general tonics for preventing old age and prolonging life. In the treatise entitled Dhaturakaraya written about the 16th century which claimed to be part and parcel of the Rudrayamala Tantra we came across the term Rasayana used in the modern sense of chemistry. The history of Hindu chemistry was therefore emphatically the history of the progress of chemical operations grouped round the preparations of mercury.

The earliest recognised medical treatises on the therapeutic use of mercury was in 900 A.D. but in Rasarnava dated 1200 A.D. they had a repository of chemical lore with elaborate directions and details as to construction of apparatus, furnaces, hearths, etc., required for the process of distillation, sublimation, calluation, extraction of metals from crude ores and so on. This treatise showed a remarkable power of keen and accurate observation, viz., identification of metal by colouration, in imports of flame. The lecturer then referred to the progress made in pharmacy and metallurgy and said as regards caustic alkali the method was scientific that it might be bodily transferred to any treatise in modern chemistry. The canterisation of bad wounds by means of caustic alkali was an established custom in ancient India. The lecturer dwelt in this connection on the testimony of Barthilist, the eminent French chemist, and said as regards metallurgy the iron pillar adjoining Kutab Minor was living testimony. In this connection the lecturer quoted the opinion of Sir Robert Hadfield that the Hindus

were evidently first to extract zinc from its ore. The lecturer then said that the Arabs borrowed from the Hindus and carried to Europe the accumulated intellectual treasures of India including pharmaceutical and mathematical knowledge. The lecturer then dwelt on knowledge of gems and stones as possessed in ancient India and referred to the atomic theory of the Hindus which had something in common with the Greeks and referred to the theories of heat and light and sound of Kanada. In short physical science was cultivated on experimental lines and found zealous votaries. The Hindus had a glorious past and might look to a glorious future but he warned the audience against what Herbert Spencer calls the "bias of patriotism."

The Library Movement in America, by Mr. O. T. Govinda Nambiar, M. A.

Mr. O. T. Govinda Nambiar in the course of an interesting article on the subject writes:—

The pride and glory of the American libraries is their attitude towards children for whom they provide various attractions. There is a special section for them containing a collection of choice books suited to their age and understanding, and is in charge of Lady Assistants whose duty it is to ascertain the bent of mind and intellectual needs of each child. Provision is made for regular library lessons and "Children's Lectures" illustrated with magic lantern slides. Another equally popular item is the "Story hour," when the Librarian recites to a group of young children selections from the best stories in the world's literature. Of late indoor games have also been introduced. A nation whose children are so well cared for need have no concern whatever about its future.

Some of the libraries have now established what is known as the "Intermediate Department." It serves the needs of young people between the ages of 14 and 16 and contains books that are not available in the children's section or in that for the adults.

All the libraries have very intimate relations with the various schools in the country. Every school has its library, but its chief object is to help the students in the preparation of their class lessons. For everything in the nature of supplementary reading, the students depend upon the public library. There are many ways in which this library helps the school. The librarians periodically visit the schools in their respective districts, become personally acquainted with the

teachers, study the school demands and give them such information and aid as they may require. Special facilities are given to the teachers to encourage their use of the libraries. And students who have no convenience at home to prepare their lessons may go there where they are provided with all sorts of conveniences.

A very important part of the educational work of the libraries is the assistance given to those engaged in research work. The Reference Librarian who presides over the Reference Department answers all queries, assists readers in their search after information, and to some extent guides them by preparing lists of references on the topics of the day or on subjects of general interest.

Another laudable activity in which the library is engaged is that it gives recreation and enlightenment to the blind. Books in embossed type which can be used by the sense of touch are kept in a separate Department, and handled by the library much in the same way as those for the seeing.

The usefulness of the libraries is very much enhanced by inter-library loans and the system of Travelling Libraries. There is not only free interchange of books between the central and the branches or between the main libraries of the same place, but also between the main libraries of different and distant parts of the country. For the convenience of those who are not in a position to visit the library, Travelling Libraries containing collections of books of different classes are sent out.

In order to advertise the libraries and attract public attention, periodical lectures are delivered in the library buildings by distinguished and competent gentlemen.

There are many other features of the Library movement in America which one might describe, but we suppose enough has been said to give the reader an idea of the very important part which the public libraries play in the national educational system of that country, and to engender in us a desire to see similar institutions established in our own country.

Mr. Hornell on City School Life in Bengal.

The distribution of prizes of the Tantra Bhabla M. E. School in the native village of Sir R. N. Mookerjee was held on the 5th inst. The school is maintained by Sir R. N. Mookerjee, who was present with the Hon. Mr. Hornell, Director of

Public Instruction, and Mr. Swan, the District Magistrate.

Mr. Hornell, in the course of an address, said he had heard from the annual report something of the history of the school; how from a very small beginning it had developed into a M. E. School with nearly 200 boys, and that there was a general desire in the neighbourhood that the school should be raised to the status of a High School. Several weighty considerations were involved in this suggestion and he was not going to make any vague promises, but he undertook to consider the whole question of the school's future in consultation with Sir R. N. Mookerjee, and did not doubt they should be able to come to a reasonable conclusion. On general grounds he would be glad to encourage the development of the school. He was not in favour of large schools; his view was that 400 to 500 boys were as many as any one headmaster could look after. Moreover he was most strongly opposed to the herding of boys in Calcutta and provincial towns. He was glad to see a school situated in a quiet place like Bhabla with plenty of space and light and air. One of the features of the educational position of to-day was the enormous and ever-increasing demand for admission into High Schools. He quite recognised that for certain classes of the population, as things are now, High School education was essential for their sons, but he doubted whether Bengali parents generally quite realised the terrible price that some of them were paying in order that their sons might obtain this education. He admitted that the position was a difficult one, but he personally could not but deplore the conditions under which in some towns school boys were compelled to live, without care, without discipline, in insanitary surroundings, and without proper food. He reminded the audience that they were passing through a period of great educational activity. Controversy was in the air. They heard a great deal of the University of Calcutta and the proposed Dacca University. These topics were important, but he wanted every one present to realise that it was in the secondary school of Bengal that the future of the Presidency would be worked out more than anywhere else.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

Exam. centres.

It is notified that, in modification of the notification published on 15th April 1914, candidates selecting Groups (ii) and (iii) of the B. A. Degree Examination (New Regulations) will be allowed to take the examination in Part I and the written examination in Part II at Madras, Bangalore, Trichinopoly and Trivandrum. All such candidates will however be required to take the practical examinations in Madras. These will be arranged for suitable dates following the written examinations.

A new centre.

It is also notified that Guntur will be an additional centre for the Intermediate Examination in Arts of 1915.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Question of Canvassing for Appointments.

A meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate House, College Square, recently. The Hon. Dr. Debaprosad Sarbadhikari, Vice-Chancellor, presided and there was a large attendance of Fellows.

Mr. W. A. J. Archbold moved the following Resolution:—"That the Senate requests the Syndicate to propose such a regulation which will render the practice of canvassing with a view to obtaining offices or employment connected with the University illegal." He said that since the last five years he had been there, he had been closely watching the working of the University and he was always anxious for its improvements in every possible way. Some years ago they received information to the effect that they would have to send up suggestions regarding the change of regulations. In pursuance of that he made some suggestions which were sent up, but it was so long ago that he could not remember now what those suggestions were. At the last annual meeting of the Senate he wanted to make some suggestions, but they received a crushing blow. Mr. Jackson, however, corrected that and hence he had the opportunity of moving this Resolution. Turning to the subject of the Resolution the speaker said that it was a matter of common knowledge what amount of canvassing was going on there. They should take into consideration the dignity of the Senate and not allow canvassing going on. In his Resolution he used the word "illegal" in a sense to rectify the evil practice.

Mr. J. Barrow seconded the motion.

Sir Guru Das Banerjee said that canvassing as it was generally understood and occasionally practised was bad and no one could speak a word in favour of it. On the other hand, to make a hard-and-fast rule relating to canvassing was a difficult task, because there was some kind of canvassing, innocent and perhaps necessary. For instance, if a gentleman wanted to be a member of the Faculty, he was to be nominated. But how could he be nominated unless he approached the members of the Senate. In that case canvassing was not bad. Referring to the remarks made by Mr. Archbold regarding the dignity of the Senate, Sir Guru Das said that if the members of the Senate knew how to conduct themselves they would not be influenced in the least by the canvassers. In conclusion he submitted that the rule against canvassing was absolutely unnecessary.

Mr. Juanranjan Banerjee said that none could take exception to the Resolution. But there was no use passing that Resolution, as there existed such a rule. They all knew that in the case of some distinguished men, they would not have made their works but for canvassing. As a matter of fact, canvassing existed all over the world. They all knew that that great statesman, Fox, got into Parliament by canvassing and proved himself an ornament. Canvassing itself was not good and they might frame quite a large number of rules and regulations to discourage it, but it would continue.

Sir Asutosh Mukherji was afraid that it was rather hard on the Syndicate to ask the Senate to direct the Syndicate to pro-canvassing so far as the examiners were concerned. But he could assure them that no regulation would ever stop canvassing. He agreed with Sir Guru Das, who said that the only way to stop canvassing was for the members of the Senate to take a firm attitude when they were approached. If the members of the Senate were strong enough, there was no necessity of passing any such Resolution.

Mr. C. W. Peake felt a great deal of sympathy with Mr. Archbold, but at the same time he realised that there were many practical difficulties. They however all objected to canvassing. He suggested that the candidate, before the election took place, should be made to give a declaration in writing, stating that he had not canvassed nor would he canvass.

The Hon. Babu Mahendranath Ray said that the Resolution as moved was vague, especially

the words, "canvassing," "officers" and "employment." Mr. Archbold should bring forward before the Senate some specific motion with the object of reducing the evil.

Mr. E. E. Biss thought that Mr. Archbold's modesty had not been sufficiently considered. Mr. Archbold felt that the Senate would deal with the matter better than he himself and so he brought forward the Resolution.

Dr. Kedarnath Das said that the mover of the Resolution should have worded it to the effect that the Senate viewed canvassing with dissatisfaction. Mr. Bhupendra Nath Basu thought that they were grateful to Mr. Archbold for having called their attention to that question. Canvassing had been an evil which required to be checked. He supposed that no legislation had been passed with the object of putting an end to an evil, but to reduce it. As the existence of the evil was admitted, an attempt should be made to cope with it. He thought that some steps should be taken to eradicate the evil instead of rejecting the Resolution though it might involve individual hardship.

Mr. F. C. Turner said that if the rule against canvassing was a dead letter, the rule in question should be abolished.

Mr. V. H. Jackson agreed with Mr. Turner.

Mr. Archbold in reply said that when he came to that meeting he had no idea that the motion would meet with opposition. All he wanted was that the University should express its dissatisfaction against canvassing.

The Hon. Vice-Chancellor in summing up the debate, said that they had in this regulation a rule existing, which discouraged canvassing. He was not prepared to go to the length of saying that the rule had proved a failure. With regard to the remarks made by Mr. Archbold that his motion was opposed, the speaker said that the gentlemen who had spoken against it simply pointed out the difficulties in the way.

The Resolution was then put to the vote and carried.

Large Percentage of Passes.

Dr. E. R. Watson moved the following Resolution: That the Senate views with alarm the rapid increase in the percentage of passes in the University Examinations, especially the Matriculation and the B. A. Examinations, which have taken place in recent years and desires an immediate enquiry to be held as to its cause and

significance. He said that the only possible explanation to the increase of passes in recent years was that the examiners had been much more lenient and that the number of European examiners, who were stricter examiners than the Indians, were decreasing.

Mr. F. W. Sudmerson in seconding the Resolution, said that at present they were doing considerable harm to the boys.

Mr. G. F. Shirras after quoting the percentage of passes of various Indian Universities from official statistics said that there was no cause of being afraid that things were going wrong.

Dr. Hiralal Halder said that he was in sympathy with Dr. Watson so far as the Matriculation Examination was concerned. Now-a-days most of their boys passed in the First Division and the matter had come to such a pass that it was considered to be meritorious to pass in that division. In conclusion, he submitted that there was a clear case for an enquiry.

Dr. Kedarnath Das pointed out that he had sent an amendment to this Resolution but it was not circulated to the members. He therefore asked for the postponement of the debate to give him an opportunity to move that amendment.

Dr. Das's motion being carried, the consideration of the debate was postponed.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

Meeting of the Senate, Jan. 30th, 1915.

A meeting of the Bombay University Senate was held on Saturday afternoon the 30th January 1915 in the Sir Cassaji Jehangir Hall of the University, Sir John Heaton, Vice-Chancellor, presiding.

Board of Accounts.

Mr. H. J. Bhabha, Mr. B. V. Mehta and Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy were elected members of the Board of Accounts for the ensuing year.

College of Commerce affiliated.

Consideration was given to an application from the Principal, Government College of Commerce, Bombay, forwarded through the Director of Public Instruction, for the permanent affiliation of the College for the purposes of the examinations for the Bachelor of Commerce degree.

The Senate had before them in connection with this item, a report made by a committee of the Syndicate to conduct the inquiry prescribed by the Indian Universities Act. The report has already been published, and the committee

stated:—"The general impression made upon us by our visit to this College was that the College had entered on its work with very high ideals, that the Principal was resolved to see them realised and was associated in this task with a staff which was in thorough sympathy with them. The fitting conclusion of our report is the proposal with which we close, that the Syndicate should recommend the Senate to grant to this College the affiliation for which it has applied." As recommended by the Syndicate, the Rev. Dr. D. Mackichan moved: "That the Government College of Commerce, Bombay, be permanently affiliated to the University in the Faculty of Arts for the purposes of the examinations for the degree of Bachelor of Commerce with retrospective effect from the date of expiry of the provisional affiliation." Dr. Mackichan said that those of them who had read the report must have seen that the committee appointed by the Syndicate to conduct the inquiry had found everything in absolute working order so far as the present circumstances regarding the building and other college equipments were concerned. They were convinced that when the whole staff was provided for, the college would be able to instruct as proficiently as to meet the requirements of a college of commerce. The main appointment that remained to be made was that of a Professor of Economics, who was to come out from Home. When that gentleman arrived, there would be in the city a fully equipped college of commerce under the able direction of the present Principal, Mr. Antey, and he was sure that the college would maintain the reputation of the University as any other college under it did. Dr. Sorab Nariman seconded the proposition, which was carried.

Conferring of degrees.

A meeting of the Senate of the University of Bombay was held on the 22nd instant when a special Convocation was held to confer degrees to the candidates who have been successful in the last year's examinations. Out of 18 who received the degrees for L.M. and S. were two ladies. One lady took the degree in B. Sc. and among 290 B.A.'s were five ladies, two Hindus and three Parsis. 77 LL. B.'s and 40 M. A.'s also were admitted to the respective degrees.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

University Lecturer.

On Thursday the 11th instant, Prof. Jevons, University Professor of Economics and son of the famous Economist of the Victorian Era, delivered

the Inaugural Lecture on the "Economic Problems in India."

Examination centres.

The Intermediate examination at the Allahabad Centre, and the B.A. and M.A. Final examinations will be held at the University Senate House, Allahabad. The B. Sc., M. Sc., Previous and Final, and the M. A. Previous examinations will be held at the Muir Central College, Allahabad. The Commercial Certificate examination will be held at the St. John's College, Agra.

Reviews and Notices.

THE SCHOOLS AND THE NATION, BY DR. GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER. TRANSLATED BY C. K. OGDEN. WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY VISCOUNT HALDANE. (MACMILLAN & CO.) 6s. net.

The author's is a well known and highly respected name in the educational world, and most of our readers must be familiar with his views on 'Continuation schools,' and kindred topics expounded in his 'Education for citizenship,' and other writings.

The present volume is a collection of essays and addresses on a variety of subjects, practical educational problems all of them. The central theme is that both as regards their aim, and their organisation our schools are mostly defective, and that, in both directions there is considerable room for improvement.

'Social efficiency' has now come to be recognised as the end of education. The school should aim at the making of a good citizen, who should not merely be able to stand independent by virtue of his work, but should also be able to contribute to the well-being of the body politic. If such should be the aim, there is no doubt that the achievements of our schools fall far short of the ideal, the greatest defect in our educational system being, as Prof. Dewey long ago pointed out, that the school was far removed from life. Our schools are mostly 'book-schools,' that instruct but do not inspire; they are hardly calculated to develop a strong social spirit in the pupils, to equip them for 'social service.' The training given in schools should be such as can develop a pleasure in active constructive work for the common good. In the management of the school library or laboratory, in the conduct of games, in organising excursions, and in a variety of ways, pupils may be afforded opportu-

nities for doing efficient practical work for the benefit of the whole school community. To effect this object the facilities available to the teacher are many; the natural inclinations of most pupils lie in the direction of practical work. We do not, however, even with the introduction of civics, manual training and games, adequately utilise them. 'Love of work to be directed into altruistic channels' should be the aim. This is a lofty ideal, and the author is no mere dreamer. The means he suggests for achieving this ideal are eminently practical, being such as have been tested in his own experience.

As regards organisation the author lays down five essential requirements in the case of the higher schools—positions which he arrives at as the result of a lucid discussion of a topic in regard to which there is generally a slavish adherence to tradition and custom.

The whole book is full of valuable reflections that reveal the author's deep insight, and his masterly grasp of fundamental principles and it is well worthy of the introduction from the pen of Viscount Haldane.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION:—We have received a number of books on Composition for review. Mr. H. Pine has brought out two parts of a *Systematic Course of English Composition* through Messrs. Ralph, Holland and Co. The famous publishers, Messrs. Bell and Sons, offer us Mr. E. F. Bailey's *Course of Practical English* (1s. 6d.), and Mr. F. W. Bewsher's *Exercise in English* (1s.). Mr. D. B. Nicolson has prepared a *Handbook of English* (1s. 6d.) for the Cambridge University Press. We can have nothing but commendation for all these books. In those qualities which are of secondary importance, the printing and binding, none of these books can fail to satisfy even the most exacting critic. Of that quality which we justly rate higher,—their suitability for the purposes for which they are intended,—they possess an abundant measure.

One characteristic which is common to all these books should make us pause, and question if we in India are really teaching English as she ought to be taught. Mr. Pine would make English boys learn what Complex Sentences are and how passages containing 'Direct Speech' should be converted into passages containing 'Indirect Speech.' Mr. Bewsher speaks of adverbial clauses and extensions of the predicate, and devotes some pages to the analysis of sentences. Mr. Bailey does not believe that boys would

find it difficult to understand what we mean when we talk of the Nominative absolute, the infinitive mood and the gerund. Mr. Nicolson agrees with the others in furnishing us with exercises in Indirect and Direct Speeches and Analysis,—and goes even farther,—in making it necessary for students to learn Conjugation and Parsing. But Indian students, however, are not thought fit to be taught English in the manner indicated by these books. We are told, of course, that the English boy learns English as his vernacular, and that to the Indian boy, English is a foreign language, and that therefore the methods would naturally vary. But we are afraid that there is not much to be said in favour of refusing to boys of the upper forms in India a scientific knowledge of the language which is playing a role of great importance in our land. It is true that the infant brain should be taught to know and speak the language before it is taught its structure, but it is by no means advisable to leave students in entire ignorance of the grammar,—the mechanism and structure,—of the language.

The fact is that in this country we are preached to by those who do not know sufficiently the needs of our boys. Under the guidance of Inspectors who have had no special training for the duties they have to discharge and who have no adequate conception of what our boys do need, we are having perpetual oscillations from one method to another. The craze for one method completely blinds the eyes of the Inspector who is ever anxious to seem to know something about pedagogy to the merits of the system which had till then been in vogue. The poor Indian teacher, in perpetual dread of being declared antiquated, swears by all that this Inspector or that says or may at any time say. Our teachers were industriously turning literature-hours into grammar-hours, a few years back, and now they are busy about Phonetics and have forgotten grammar. The pity is that the teacher is forced to make use of the 'Direct Method,' pure and simple, or to make use of the system of grammar grinding; he would not be allowed by the Inspector to adopt a *via media*. We should think that it is only by the judicious blending of the 'Direct Method' and of Grammar that the Indian student can be made to have an adequate knowledge of English.

Grammar,—worked into the student in a course of composition,—would do much to improve the quality of English that is written by our students, and should therefore form part of the course of study prescribed for the students.

of the High School classes atleast. Then alone, will the books that we are now reviewing be recognised as valuable.

GREAT MEN: FLAXMAN: (THE INDIAN LITERATURE PUBLISHING CO.):

This small book is the first of a series of small books dealing with the lives of great men which the Publishers are desirous of issuing at the rate of one a month. The annual subscription is one rupee. The life of Flaxman is extracted from one of the books of Smiles. We confess we do not like the printing and the 'get up, and we cannot but think that the subscription is too high for books which are not original productions and the printing of which is not very satisfactory.

THE DHATURUPA MUKTAVALI.

This is a handbook of Sanskrit grammar and is designed for use in schools and colleges. Pandit P. K. Duraiswami Iyengar is well-known for his Sanskrit scholarship and his long experience as a teacher of Sanskrit in a big High School has enabled him to bring out a book which, we trust, will meet the demands of many a teacher and student of Sanskrit.

The second edition, which has just been published, is in two parts, the first being intended for use in the Lower Secondary Forms and the second in the High School Forms. The courses of study sketched out by the author himself will be found to be a sufficiently sound guide to the teaching of the subject. In revising the book, the author has evidently spared neither pains nor money to bring it to the most desired level.

Sanskrit Grammar was raised to the dignity of a science by Panini and perfected by the labours of the three sages; and students of the science of Grammar and Philology will undoubtedly derive much inspiration and benefit from their pages and from those of their commentators. But the students of our High Schools and Colleges have, ordinarily, neither the time nor the application, nor the power of grasp necessary to master the intricate structure and elaborate terminology of this science of sciences. And, unhappily, they are obliged to have recourse to treatises in English for their knowledge of Sanskrit Grammar. This method is hardly satisfactory and it is no wonder that

students are scared away from the study of our noble tongue through sheer disgust.

Pandit Duraiswami Iyengar's plan is original, his exposition is lucid, while the scope of his work is comprehensive. It is a remarkable attempt at combining the European with the Indian method, and we are sure he has succeeded in it. Three features have struck us as adding to the excellence of the book. Firstly, the arrangement of the subject matter is more intelligent than that adopted in the ordinary grammars of the present day. Secondly, the Dhatus are classified not only according to the *Gana* arrangement, but according to the *Vikarana*, so that students will be able to master the subject with ease and precision. And thirdly, the modernised rules in English are co-ordinated with the original Sūtras. The study of the science is thus made realistic and hence easy and impressive. We are sure that the book will provide students of Sanskrit with the equipment necessary for acquiring a fairly good acquaintance with the complicated structure and idiom of the language.

In bringing out this second edition of his useful book, the author has drawn further still from his experience as a teacher and has tried to carry out, with fair success, the suggestions made to him by other Pandits and scholars. The correlation of the science of Grammar with the literature of Sanskrit has been adopted, so far as it has been possible, in the case of students for whom the book is designed. The selections in verse and Prose form an admirable addition, making the book serve the purposes of a Grammar and a Reader at the same time.

We are therefore happy to be able to recommend the book to such High School and College students as wish to learn Sanskrit accurately and well, and trust that it will be a decided success.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Chart of Natural Orders in Botany for B.A. and B.Sc. Students, by Manilal K. Desai, B.A., Wilson College, Bombay. 4 4s.

Hazell's Annual for 1915, edited by T. A. Ingram, LL.D., London: Hazell. 3s. 6d. net.

Thomas Carlyle's Abbot Samson, edited by F. A. Cavenagh, M. A. London: Macmillan. 1s.

Commercial Geography, by T. A. Smith, B. A., F. R. G. S., London: Macmillan. 1s. 6d.

What do we mean by Education, by J. Welton, D. Litt, M. A., London: Macmillan. 5s. net.

Indian Educational Notes.
MADRAS.

Victoria Hindu School, Tiruvannamalai.—The thirteenth Anniversary of the Victoria Hindu School was celebrated recently in the school premises. Mr. F. J. Richards, M.A., I.C.S., Collector, was to have presided over the meeting but on account of sudden illness he was forced to be absent. His place was taken by Mr. T. Sundaram Aiyar, B.A., B.L., District Munsif.

The school was started in 1902 and since then has been steadily progressing. The report that was read at the meeting was a very successful one. The school was visited during the year under report by the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer, C.S.I., C.I.E., by Mr. F. Evans, for sometime Collector of North Arcot, and Mr. F. J. Richards, the present Collector. They have all left very good reports of the school on the Visitors' Book. The special feature of the school is the particular attention paid to religious instruction to Hindu boys.

In the morning there was a religious lecture delivered by Mr. S. V. Vijayaraghava Chariar, B.A., Pleader. In the evening the boys treated the audience to a variety programme of conversations and recitations. Then there was the prize-distribution. Special prizes were awarded called "The Evans Prize" founded by Mr. T. Sundaram Aiyar, Dt. Munsif, to perpetuate the connection of Mr. Evans, I.C.S., with the District. Though Mr. Evans' stay in the District was short, he was such a good, social and sympathetic officer, that the public of Tiruvannamalai were very glad that his connection with the district should be perpetuated in this manner. In the night, the boys staged "Sundara Murti Nainar's Charithram" in which the actors acquitted themselves well.

Coles and Ackerman Memorial High School, Nellore.—A public meeting was held in the premises of the C. A. M. High School on the 23rd instant, in connection with the anniversary of the institution. The meeting was presided over by Mr. M. Chengiah Pantulu, B.A., B.L. Prizes were distributed to all the winners of first and second places in the school examinations by Mr. Smith. The hall was very tastefully decorated with flags and festoons and presented a delightful appearance. The meeting commenced exactly at the appointed time with a prayer. The programme was a long one, consisting of many items of amusement. The amusement part of the programme was a long one and after it was gone through, the report of the school for the year under report was next read by Mr. Smith, Principal of the School. The following points extracted from the report will be of interest to the readers:—

The services of Mr. Kolundavelu, who served this institution for a period of 18 years ceased with this year and he has joined the High School at Kurnool. His ardent devotion in the work, his faithfulness

The Laws of Algebra, by A. G. Cracknell, M. A. B.Sc., F. C. P., London: Clive.

High Roads of Geography, Book VI. London: Nelson. 2s.

T. N. Ganguli's Swarnalata, (Scenes from Hindu Village Life in Bengal) translated by Dakshinacharan Roy. London: Macmillan.

Selected English, by Ray Philips. London: Macmillan. 2s. 6d.

Story Poems, by Percival C. Wren. Bombay: Cooper. 10 4s.

English Composition, by R. S. Bate. London: Bell.

The Partition of Europe (1715—1815), by Philip Guedalla, London: Milford.

Travels in the Moghul Empire, by François Bernier, revised by Vincent A. Smith, M.A., London: Milford. 6s. net.

The Study of Sanskrit, by Shree Mahabhadgavat, M. R. A. S., Kartkotli, Dist. Dharwar.

History of Elementary Education, by C. Birchough. London: Clive.

Books from the P. T. I. Book Depot, Bangalore. (Wholesale Indian Agency for Messrs. Harrap and Heath's Publications.)

Character Training, by E. L. Cabot and E. Eyles. London: Harrap. 3s. 6d. net.

How to tell Stories to Children, by Saracone Byrant. London: Harrap. 2s. 6d. net.

Stories of Robin Hood and his Merry Outlaws by J. W. McSpadden. London: Harrap. 1s. 6d.

Stories from Thucydides, by H. L. Havell, M.A. London: Harrap. 1s. 6d.

Sir Walter Ralieggh, by B. Marshall. London: Harrap. 1s.

This England of Ours, by Edith S. Elias. London: Harrap. 6d.

In Eastern Wonderlands, by Charlotte Gibson. London: Harrap. 1s. 3d.

The Story of Jeanne D'Arc, by E. M. Wilmot. Buxton, F. R. Hist. S., London: Harrap. 1s.

A Practical Course in Secondary English, by G. Ogilvie, M.A. and E. Albert, M.A., London: Harrap. 4s. 6d.

Marie Antoinette, by Alice Birkhead. B. A., London: Harrap. 1s.

Favourite Greek Myths, by L. S. Hyde. London: Heath. 1s. 6d.

and energy have been appreciated on all hands. The Sanskrit Munshi also retired due to his old age. We have had new members of the staff, who have been showing the greatest enthusiasm and efficiency in the discharging of their duties. The strength has increased by more than 100 students during the year and our results were on the whole very satisfactory. Specially in English one of our boys got 72 marks, another 71 and a third, 68. The school average was 48 per cent, while the Presidency average at the public examination being 43 per cent. The Technical Department has been very popular during the year. The following results secured in the Government Technical Examinations held in April 1914 speak well both for the Instructor and for the Department. Out of 16 in typewriting, 13 passed, with 4 in first class; in shorthand 4 appeared, 3 passed, 2 in first class; in Book-keeping all the 4 passed, with 1 first class; in Commercial Correspondence, out of 7, five passed, with 1 first class. One of the most interesting is the Kindergarten Department. Mrs. Smith and Mr. Solomon are in charge of this Department. During the year the Science classes were equipped with Rs. 3,000 worth of apparatus, and gallery for the convenience of the class has also been constructed. The Library is improved by the addition of 235 volumes presented by the generous donor Mr. Ackerman Coles. Much activity has been displayed by the boys during the year in athletics and games. Our boys won at many of the foot-ball contests and they were successful in winning a Silver cup instituted by Mr. Govinda Reddi for Badminton. The annual Sports which were conducted on the 12th December 1914 were very successful. The Hostel is now under construction and by this time next year we would be in a position to accommodate a number of boys in the hostel which is to be known as George Ackerman Memorial Hostel.

The next item was the distribution of prizes by Mrs. Smith. Mrs. Smith was garlanded by the students and then she kindly gave away the prizes to the successful candidates.

This being over, the Chairman rose amidst loud cheers and made his eloquent and impressive speech. His suggestions and hints to the student population on the Teutonic war that is going on and how to study it were eagerly followed by the audience.

The annual Griggs' Memorial Medal Sports for the Guntur District, together with the A.E.L.M. College Track and Field Trophy Competition, took place on the grounds of the A.E.L.M. College at Guntur recently. Preliminaries in all but two of the events were held on a previous day. N.E. Marjoribanks, Esq., I.C.S., Collector of the District, presided and distributed the prizes. Mrs. Strook, wife of Rev. J. Roy Strook, M.A., Principal of the College, was "At Home" to the Europeans and Anglo-Indians of the Station, while the College

Athletic Association was "At Home" to the Indian community.

The Trophy consists of a Silver Cup, valued at Rs. 100, presented by the staff and students of the College, together with a few friends in Guntur. It will be handed over permanently to the institution winning it for three successive years.

The Griggs' Medal was won by J. Raja Row, Fifth Form, A.E.L.M. College, and the Silver Cup was won by the A.E.L.M. College which secured 82 points out of a total of 126.

RESULTS.

100 yards Race:—Final heat—Raja Row (A.E.L.M.) and Baboo Row (A.E.L.M.), 1 (tie); Ayyuru (Ongole), 2; Kristna Row (Bapatla), 3.

Half-mile Race:—Final heat—Raja Row (A.E.L.M.), 1; Krishna Row (Bapatla), 2; Ramayya (A.E.L.M.), 3.

High Jump:—Jacob (Ongole) 1; Mohideen (A.E.L.M.) 2; Durga Row (T.H.S. Guntur), 3.

Putting the Weight:—Subbayya (Ongole) 1; Kotayya (A.E.L.M.) 2; Devara (Ongole), 3.

120 Yards Hurdles:—Final heat—Mohideen (A.E.L.M.) 1; A. Aziz (Masulipatam) 2; Baboo Row (A.E.L.M.) 3.

Throwing the Cricket Ball:—Rajaratnam (A.E.L.M.) 1; Hussain (A.E.L.M.) 2; Josiah (Ongole) 3.

Long Jump:—Baboo Row (A.E.L.M.) 1; Mahaboo Ali (Masulipatam) 2; Bhikari (A.E.L.M.) 3.

220 Yards Race:—Final heat—Ayyuru (Ongole), 1; Raja Row (A.E.L.M.) 2; Baboo Row (A.E.L.M.) 3.

One Mile Race:—Ramayya (A.E.L.M.) 1; Venkateswara Row (Masulipatam) 2; Ishmael (A.E.L.M.) 3.

Pole Jump:—Rajaratnam (A.E.L.M.) 1; Paul (Ongole) 2; Jesuratnam (A.E.L.M.) 3.

Quarter-Mile Race:—Final heat—Baboo Row (A.E.L.M.) 1; Kotayya (A.E.L.M.) 2; Rajaratnam (A.E.L.M.) 3.

220 Yards Hurdles:—Final heat—Mohideen (A.E.L.M.) 1; Narayana (Masulipatam) 2; Subbaya (Ongole) 3.

One Mile Relay Race:—A.E.L.M. College (Rajaratnam, Bhikari, Kotayya, Baboo Row) 1; Noble College, Masulipatam (Venkateswara Row, Mahaboo Ali, Narayana, Ramachendrayya) 2.

Events for Juniors took place between the various Cup events. The Tug-of-war (not counting for the Cup) was won by the A.E.L.M. College, Guntur.

The points secured by the various institutions are as follows:—A.E.L.M. College, Guntur, 82; A.B.H. High School, Ongole, 22; Noble College, Masulipatam, 18; B.H.S., Bapatla, 3; Town H.S. Guntur, 1; T.H.S., Tenali, 0.

The Native High School, Palghat—The twenty-ninth Anniversary of the founding of the above school and of the literary societies were celebrated on the 2nd inst., with a large gathering of the "old boys" followed by a *soiree*. The public meeting was held later in the evening in the Pentland Gardens, the approaches to which were tastefully decorated. Mr. T. A. Ramakrishna Iyer, retired Sub-Judge presided on the occasion and there was a large attendance consisting of the *elite* of the town.

After the Chairman's introductory speech the Secretary of the School Societies read the annual Report on the working of the Societies.

Mr. T. A. Ramakrishna Iyer, B.A., L.T., of Chittur, read a long paper on "Ideals and Methods in Education."

Several toasts were proposed, the toast to the King-Emperor, the toast to the public, etc., which were honoured with great enthusiasm.

Mr. S. Narayana Sastri, B.A., L.T., on behalf of the staff and students presented an address to Mr. Parameswara Iyer who made a touching reply. He felt proud that he was only an instrument of one from above who guided their destinies in starting that school and having been the means of imparting instruction to the youth of the country.

Sri Mahant's D. H. H. School, Vellore—The teachers and pupils of the S. M. D. H. H. School, Vellore, celebrated the passing of "the Tirupathi Devasthanam Schools Bill" into law, by holding a social gathering at the school premises on the 21st inst. The school premises were well decorated with flags and festoons and all the teachers and pupils assembled in the Central Hall. There were recitations both in English and in the vernaculars, Mr. P. N. Ramasawmier of Madura also giving a sample recitation from the *Merchant of Venice*. Refreshments were next served on a lavish scale to all present, after which the following Resolutions were unanimously passed with loud and enthusiastic cheers:—

I. Resolved that this meeting of the teachers and pupils of the Sri Mahant's D. H. H. School, Vellore, records its most grateful thanks to the Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar and the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar for their unselfish and patriotic labours for the "Tirupathi Devasthanam Schools Bill," which was passed into law in the Madras Legislative Council in November last and which has since received the assent of H. E. the Governor-General of India as Act VI of 1914.

II. Resolved that this meeting of the teachers and pupils of the Sri Mahant's D. H. H. School, Vellore, offers its most respectful and grateful thanks to the Government of Madras for the support given by them to the "Tirupathi Devasthanam Schools Bill," which was passed into law in the Madras Legislative Council in November last

and which has since received the assent of H. E. the Governor-General of India as Act VI of 1914.

Copies of the first Resolution have been communicated to the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyar and the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar. A copy of the second resolution has been sent to the Government of Madras. The inaugural meeting of the Literary Society attached to the School also took place the same evening at 5.30. Dr. D. P. Thakore of Madras, delivered a long and stirring address on 'Education' which was well appreciated by the *elite* of the place who had assembled there to hear him. Mr. T. A. Narasimhachariar, B.A., B.L., the District Munsiff of the place, occupied the chair and introduced the lecturer to the audience as an old friend of his.

The Hindu High School Old Boys' Association, Madras—The second Anniversary of the Hindu High School Old Boys' Association, Triplicane, was celebrated in the premises of the school with the Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar, Dewan Bahadur L. A. Govindaraghava Aiyar, Rao Bahadur M. A. Parthasarathi Aiyengar, Mr. R. A. Srinivasa Aiyengar, Mr. T. A. Sundaram Aiyar, Mr. S. Anantanarayanan and the Hon'ble the Zemindar of Polavaram were among those present. A business meeting followed by conversation among the old boys of the school lasted for a very long time. The party had tea after which there were good pieces of comic recitation in English, Tamil and Telugu. Toasts were then proposed to the King-Emperor and the Empire, to the Hindu High School, to the past and present staff and the guests and were all suitably responded to.

Bishop Corrie High School—The annual prize-distribution and the celebration of the 78th Anniversary of the Bishop Corrie High School and Bishop Gell Girls' School took place in the premises of the B. C. High School.

His Excellency Lord Pentland presided. Her Excellency Lady Pentland distributed the prizes.

A large number of ladies and gentlemen of the European and Domiciled community attended the function.

The proceedings of the evening commenced with singing of the Hymn "Soldiers of Christ, Arise" by the pupils of the institution. Then prayer followed. The songs, "the Merry Wanderer and the Woods," sung by the girls of the Bishop Gell Girls' School were much appreciated. The performance of physical exercises by the boys of the B. C. High School and the singing of the action songs by the young pupils of both the institutions were splendidly done.

The Report for 1914 read by the Headmaster gave a short history of the School from the year 1886 up to the current year and made a passing reference to the period of financial depression and

the unstable condition of the school in 1910. The Grants-in-Aid from Government in 1913 saved the school from extinction. The two schools were amalgamated in 1906. From that time the progress of the united institution continued to be very satisfactory. Her Excellency Lady Pentland distributed the prizes to the prize-winners.

His Excellency in bringing the proceedings of the evening to a close made a speech in which he referred to the very interesting programme of entertainment which the pupils had given them. The proceedings showed that the school did not proceed on any narrow lines and reflected the greatest credit on the careful thought bestowed on the subject of education by the school authorities.

The Sethupathi High School, Madura.—The twenty-sixth anniversary and prize-giving ceremony of the Sethupathi High School, Madura, an indigenous institution controlled and managed by the Madura College Board, came off on the 5th inst. and the function was as usual celebrated with much enthusiasm by the teachers and pupils. There was a crowded gathering of gentlemen present, and the proceedings which were all lively and entertaining, were presided over by Rao Bahadur W. L. Venkataramayya, the District and Sessions Judge of Ramnad. After prayer in Tamil, the Headmaster Mr. C. Narayanaswamy Iyer presented the report on the working and progress of the school during the year 1913-1914. The report indicated marked improvement all round. The year opened with 898 pupils on the rolls and closed with 969. The percentage of absentees was only 7 and the average attendance was on the whole good considering the strength of the school. The remarks of the successive Inspectors of Schools repeated year after year in their inspection reports, the Headmaster said, emphasise the insufficiency and also scattered nature of the accommodation and the necessity for bringing closer together the several classes that were now dispersed over a large area so as to render the supervision work less difficult and more effective. A separate Science Hall with a laboratory attached to it, and also accommodation for the location of the School Library and the Reading Room are among the most pressing needs of the school. Not less urgent is the removal of the thatched sheds and the creation of substantial structures in their place. The total receipts for the year amounted to Rs. 24,245-2-8, and the charges to Rs. 23,345 3-8, as against Rs. 21,819-9-1 and Rs. 21,161-0-8 respectively of the previous year. The results of the S.S. L.C. and other Government examinations were very fair. During the year under report the school was inspected by Mr. T. O. Hodges, M.A., Inspector of Schools, and the following is the impression as recorded by him.—My last inspection was held only in March of this year (1914) but since that time there has been a marked improvement. The teachers seem to be earnest and up-to-date and the

general condition of the school is such as to make it in many ways quite one of the best in the circle. This reflects great credit on the Headmaster. The boys evinced keen interest in games and sports and won trophies and medals in the athletic and gymnastic contests Shield in the year under the auspices of the Madura Interscholar Athletic Association. The strength of the hostel rose from 61 to 70 in the year. The health of the boarders had been very good in spite of the prevalence of epidemics in the city. The staff took great interest in the imparting of moral instruction to boys while a systematic course of religious instruction was given by Pandits appointed for the purpose.

Reading of the report over, a varied programme of music, song, recitations and dialogues followed. The lower class pupils enacted a Tamil drama as well as an English farce in the beautiful miniature stage specially erected for the occasion, so excellently well that, the cultured and appreciative audience repeatedly cheered. It reflected great credit on the Headmaster and his staff for the able way in which they had trained these young boys who had hardly passed their twelfth year, to act so exceedingly well on the stage in Tamil and English. Mr. M. S. Ramaswamy Iyer, High Court Vakil, addressed the younger generation on the importance and value of building up of character on right lines.

Rao Bahadur W. L. Venkataramayya, after giving away the prizes to the successful pupils, made a short and interesting speech. He said that it had been a great pleasure to him to have presided and taken part in the proceedings of the anniversary function. The Headmaster had supplied him with the annual reports of the School for the past three years and studying these documents, it had been brought home to him most forcibly that this institution was one which even such an advanced and leading city as Madura could well be proud of. Ever since he came to Madura a few months ago, he had seen ample evidence of the fact that this town, famous in ancient times as a city of learning was still in the twentieth century maintaining its reputation as a source of intellectual life for the growing generation. It was indeed a hopeful sign of the times and it showed that amongst the men of light and leading in this great and important city, there were many who besides spending their time and energy in pursuit of their own profession or calling, had also realised the great importance of well conducted and thoroughly equipped educational institutions for the town and were giving ungrudgingly of their help to the management and development of such institutions. It was indeed a matter of gratification to him to find that this School should be associated with the late Baskara Sethupathi, the Raja of Ramnad, who was a student in the Madras Christian College over a quarter of a century ago. When it was his privilege to be connected with that great educational institution, he came into intimate relations with the Raja in several ways, chiefly as his tutor in English. Hence it was gratifying to find that

he endowed and helped this institution so liberally that they had all thought fit to commemorate his connection with the School by naming it after him.

It was indeed a promising sign of the times that the landed aristocracy, and the Zemindars of the country, were daily realising in an increasing measure their responsibilities to the country. He found, looking at the activities of their wealthy landlords throughout the Presidency, that the day seemed to have long gone by when there were men who merely thought of accumulating as much money as possible from the ryots and having a good turn for themselves without thinking about the duties they owed to the country. At the present day, they had in the Legislative Councils members of this landed aristocracy who were playing their part there not unworthily. They had indeed in the long succession of Sethupathis of Ramnad, a class of whom the country might well be proud. The sacred house though dated back to very ancient times—times that were almost pre-historic, it was satisfactory to find that it still continued to wield great influence over the country specially in the matter of recognising their duties to their neighbours and helping the educational institutions such as this.

The Chairman then touched upon various points in the report and in the end congratulated the management on the rapid progress that the institution had been making in the last few years. He appealed to the public of Madura to largely and liberally endow this institution in order to meet its growing demands as an up-to-date and popular High School.

The National Anthem was sung and the meeting came to a happy close.

U. F. C. M. High School, Chingleput.—A pleasant function took place on Thursday, the 18th instant, at 5-30 P.M. when the laying of the foundation stones for the extension of the U. F. C. Mission High School buildings and the Christian Hostel were performed under the presidency of Rev. J. Stewart. Rev. A. Andrew and Mrs. Andrew laid the stones for the above buildings respectively and declared to have well and truly done so amidst a large gathering of ladies and gentlemen assembled under a neatly decorated pandal. A short history of the School from its inception till what it is now was given by Mr. Andrew who has been associated with the School for the last 35 years. This was followed by the Chairman's speech when after its conclusion the National Anthem "God Save the King" and a vote of thanks to the chair brought the proceedings to a close.

Government Orders.

The Government sanction the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to institute, in lieu of the existing six post-graduate scholarships of the value of Rs. 20 each per mensem, eight scholarships

of the monthly value of Rs. 14 each, tenable for two years, to be awarded to poor and promising students who, after passing the B.A. degree examination, wish to appear for the B.A. Honours degree examination, taking a further course of two years under Regulation 203 of the University Regulations. The proposal to award the scholarships irrespective of the subjects selected is also approved.

The Government sanction the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to open a special class for training manual instructors in the Teachers' College, Saidapet, from the date of the re-opening of the College after the Christmas holidays.

The Government of Madras have sanctioned the distribution of a subsidy of Rs. 4,23,977 to 22 District Boards and 81 Municipal Councils for the completion of elementary school buildings already begun and for improvements and repairs to existing buildings. The Government say that they must decline to sanction at present any grant for new buildings.

The Walajapet Municipal High School Teachers' Association.—Under the auspices of the above Association, an ordinary monthly meeting was held on Friday, the 19th instant, under the presidency of M.R.Ry. D. V. Vasudeva Rau, 1st Assistant of the High School when a short paper on "Moral Education" was read by M.R.Ry. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar Avergal, B.A., L.T., Headmaster of the High School. He greatly dwelt upon the necessity for moral education in schools side by side with physical and intellectual education. Then two or three members of the Association made very interesting and instructive remarks in the way of supplementing the paper read and all of them including the Chairman were of opinion that no text-books on Moral Education are necessary and that it should be imparted casually and without the knowledge of the pupils themselves. The Chairman then said that Mr. Mayhew also was of the same opinion. The Chairman himself offered to read a short paper on the *Teaching of English up to the Third Form* at the next monthly meeting. Then the meeting terminated.

The S. P. G. College Day, Trichinopoly.—The annual distribution of prizes and the celebration of the College Day of the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, and the educational institutions under the S.P.G., came off on Saturday the 13th inst. Mr. Lionel Vibert, I.C.S., Collector, presiding. There was a large gathering of gentlemen and students. Prominent among those present were Mr. R. H. Shubrick, Mrs. Vibert, Mrs. Lonsdale, Mrs. Charlton, Miss Smith, Mr. H. C. Papworth, and Mr. J. A. Schofield. There was a number of Indian Christian ladies also present.

After referring to the lamentable death of Father Sewell, of the St. Joseph's College, the Ag. Princi-

pal, the Rev. W. H. M. Lonsdale, M.A., read the annual report sent by the Rev. Allan F. Gardiner, M.A., F.M.U., from Naples. Mrs. Vibert then gave away the prizes, after which the Chairman delivered an address. He said that one thing that particularly struck him was the serious need for extension. Almost all educational institutions needed larger play-grounds. He would suggest applying to old boys for funds. He was glad to see a prize given for commercial subjects, and also of having been given an opportunity of visiting a very well-equipped science laboratory. He congratulated the students on their success in sports, and announced that His Excellency Lord Pentland had a very handsome shield to be presented to the best hockey team in a competition among the Colleges of Southern India. The details would be given after consultation with Madura, Tinnevely, and Tanjore.

With a vote of thanks to the Chairman and Mrs. Vibert and the singing of the National Anthem, the proceedings terminated.

Madras Engineering College.—The need for a well-equipped laboratory for electro-technical work at the Madras College of Engineering was being increasingly felt in recent years. Mr. W. H. James, Principal, who has been striving to improve the usefulness of the college in every possible direction promptly took steps to fulfil the need and, thanks to the liberality of the Madras Government, he was provided with ample funds, with the result that practically a new electrical engineering laboratory has now been installed. The Governor informally opened the laboratory on the 8th instant. His Excellency went over the new buildings, inspecting the plant, etc., and then sat the dynamos working amidst applause. A few of the other departments of the college, including the workshops, were also visited by His Excellency, who warmly complimented Mr. James on the efficiency of the college. With this up-to-date equipment the Madras College of Engineering can now provide courses of instruction up to the highest standard demanded for engineering work in India.

The Mackintosh Memorial.—The students of the Presidency College held a condolence meeting on the sudden demise of young Mr. J. H. Mackintosh, Additional and Acting Professor of English. Mr. Mark Hunter presided and Dr. Simonson and Mr. S. E. Ranganathan and other gentlemen and ladies were present. Three Resolutions were carried out in due form, after a brief, touching recounting by the President, of the services of the departed, and his eminent popularity, and work among the undergraduates of the University. The first Resolution expressed the sorrow of the students at their loss, and their sympathies with the parents and family of Mr. Mackintosh now left bereaved. The second Resolution referred to the perpetuation of his memory in the College, by the endowment of a prize for proficiency in Shakespeare and Shake-

spearian criticism. The third Resolution was about the formation of a committee consisting chiefly of Mr. S. E. Ranganathan, President; Mr. T. R. Rajarama Rao, Secretary, and G. R. Josye, Treasurer, to collect funds and work out the second Resolution. The President being requested to convey the family of Mr. Mackintosh, the sympathies of those assembled, the meeting concluded.

The Teachers' Association, Salem.—A meeting of the above Association was held in the College Hall, Salem, recently, when Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar, B.A., L.T., the Headmaster, Mayavaram High School, delivered the inaugural address of the Association. Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., the Principal, Salem College, presided. The lecturer spoke at great length on the responsibilities of the teaching profession and the need for the better equipment of its ranks. He expressed his abhorrence of the old methods by which discipline and instruction had often been secured at the sacrifice of individuality and interest and sounded a warning note to the teachers generally against the practice of stifling individuality in the rising generation. He exhorted them rather to supervise the work of the pupils as from a distant watch tower than guide them at every step without giving opportunities for a free play of their faculties. He hoped that teachers would turn out more valuable work by devising to themselves some definite constructive programme of work and not merely submit themselves to a fortuitous course of meaningless routine which defeated the very aims of education.

The President thanked Mr. Seshu Iyer for his interesting address and expressed his appreciation of the manner in which the various topics connected with the profession of teaching were discussed by him. He also referred with regret to the disadvantages under which the teaching profession laboured. He instanced the want of playgrounds for boys when they were asked to encourage outdoor games and deeply deplored the necessity which made the large majority of teachers work on starvation allowances, impairing efficiency of work. He also paid a high tribute to the remarkable developments that had taken place in the world of Indian education in recent years.

With a vote of thanks proposed by the Secretary, the meeting terminated.

Doyton Girls' High School, Madras.—The distribution of prizes to the successful pupils of the Doyton Girls' High School took place at the Museum Theatre when Her Excellency Lady Pentland presided. The proceedings commenced with a prayer by Rev. Meston which was followed by songs and school drill. The annual report was read and adopted. The report showed signs of progress in all branches of the school work during the year under report. Her Excellency Lady Pentland distributed the prizes. Then she congratulated the Lady Principal,

Miss Samson, and the staff of the school on the excellent work and progress made by the school during the year under report. Her Excellency then gave sound advice to the young girls and said that if they wanted to make their future home happy they must read Hygiene, Science, etc., and they must practise gentleness and humility. Rev. Meston proposed a vote of thanks to Her Excellency and the proceedings of the evening were brought to a close with the singing of the National Anthem.

TRAVANCORE.

Education in Travancore.—The following is extracted from the address of the Dewan of Travancore to the Sri Moolam Popular Assembly:—Education continued to make steady progress. Though the total number of recognised schools showed only a slight increase from 1,763 to 1,771, their strength rose considerably from 2,04,971 to 2,25,341. Taking the school-going population, at 15 per cent. of the total population, 43.8 per cent. received instruction in recognised schools, against 39.8 per cent. in 1088. The minimum age for candidates appearing for the Elementary School Leaving Certificate Examination was reduced from 14 to 13 in the case of boys and 12 in the case of girls. The concession of half-fee rates was extended to the Pariah community.

The appointment of Personal Assistant to the Director of Public Instruction was sanctioned, to help him in his office work. An Additional Inspector and six Additional Assistant Inspectors of Elementary Schools for Boys were appointed, the State being divided into 3 Ranges with 6 districts for each Range.

The B.A. Honours classes in English and History were opened in His Highness the Maharajah's College for Boys, from the beginning of the current academic year. Sanction was accorded to the addition of the College staff of a third Professor of English and of a Junior Professor and an Additional Assistant Professor of History. The new Professor of English is expected to be a specialist in Philology. A suitable person is likely to be selected soon. The salaries of the European and Indian Professors of the College were equalised. The staff of His Highness the Maharajah's College for Girls was revised.

The revision of the staff of Elementary Schools was completed. Six more departmental Lower Grade Training Schools for male teachers were opened, thus raising the number of these institutions to 10. Orders were passed on the report of the Vernacular Education Committee. While agreeing with the Committee generally in the view that the instruction imparted in Elementary Schools admitted of improvement, Government pointed out the necessity for building on the existing foundation, extending the course of the School Leaving Certificate "gradually" from seven to nine years, revising the curriculum, and improving the teaching staff and the efficiency of inspection. The revision of the Inspectorate noted above, and the opening of new

Training Schools for Elementary School teachers were the outcome of that order. It is contemplated to institute a Vernacular Higher Examination, but to restrict its scope to teachers in recognised schools. The Resolutions passed at the Second Conference of the Head Masters of recognised Secondary Schools were considered and orders passed thereon. One of the chief recommendations at the Conference was to do away with the Public Service Endorsement in School Leaving Certificates. Apart from the general misapprehension that the endorsement implied success in the examination, the Government found that this arrangement, which had been adopted purely for the sake of administrative convenience, did not work satisfactorily, and resolved to leave the choice of candidates for employment to heads of departments, who could be guided by the marks recorded in the certificates of applicants. The system of endorsing the certificates for the Public Service was therefore abolished.

The Sanskrit Patasala was recognised and raised to a College under a Principal. In regard to Mahomedan education, the Government regret to note that the number of Mahomedan pupils attending recognised schools fell from 4,957 to 4,853 and that the advantage of free education now given in Lower Grade Elementary Schools is not availed of by the community to any appreciable extent. The Government asked the Director of Public Instruction to investigate the question of Mahomedan education further, and submit practical proposals. The Director held a Conference of Mahomedans on the 21st December 1914, and his report has just been received. The policy of throwing open schools to all classes of His Highness' subjects is being persisted in steadily. The question of the institution of a Provident Fund for the benefit of the licensed teachers of recognised Private Schools was taken up for consideration and a Committee was appointed to frame a scheme for instituting the fund. The report of the Committee has been received and published in the Gazette. His Highness has commanded that the opinion of select members of this Assembly should be taken on the subject. The question of refusing admission to married boys into the schools was brought up at the last two sessions of the Assembly. The subject has received the careful consideration of His Highness' Government and a G. O. has been issued recently declaring the inadvisability of importing any such restriction into the Education Code. The Text-Book Committee has been reorganised and the Malayalam Sub-Committee strengthened, members outside the Education Department having also been appointed. It is a matter for regret that the Educational Boards had to be abolished, as it was found that they were not doing any appreciable work. A Public Service Notification has been issued prescribing not only the qualification for admission into the Public Service in general, but also the special qualification required for the technical departments of the State.

You will note from the figures given in para 209 of the Administration Report that the gross expenditure on "Education" in 1089 went up by over

three lakhs of rupees, i.e., from Rs. 12,84,450 to Rs. 15,89,080. The expenditure is bound to increase still further. Although the Government fixed the budget allotment for the current year at about eighteen lakhs, additional funds to the extent of Rs. 50,000 had to be granted for additional staff and for relieving the congestion in the Higher Grade Elementary Schools by starting new Lower Grade Elementary Schools. The growing expenditure under "Education" calls for serious consideration.

CALCUTTA.

The Scientific and Industrial Association.—The following communique has been issued from the Association Rooms 3, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta, under the signature of the Secretary Rai Jogendra Chandra Ghosh Bahadur:—

The Association has resolved to award one scholarship of Rs. 50, two of Rs. 25 each and six passages only this year as the scholarships of last year were not availed of on account of the war and as the scholarship holders of last year are willing to go this year if possible. The students should be sent only if the war ceases or the passage to foreign countries is otherwise safe. Intending candidates are to apply stating age, qualification, amount of scholarship, countries they wish to go to and the districts they belong to. They should also state exactly their subjects of study and submit two certificates of respectability and character from two well-known gentlemen and letters of consent from their guardians.

Every selected student is to deposit either with the Association or in a Bank, the difference between his scholarship, if any, and Rs. 1,200 required for his expenses for one year. As regards boys going to Japan, the probable annual expenses are considered to be Rs. 500 and of those going to the Western States Rs. 1,000 for the above purpose.

The Calcutta Literary Society.—The thirty-ninth anniversary of the Society was held at the Uttarpara Government High School; Her Highness Princess Tara Devi of Nepal presided and there was a large gathering. Her Highness in the course of her presidential address said: The country which I belong to is famous for its achievements in the Sanskrit language, in the arts of armoury and is powerful in swordsmanship, indeed. But, gentlemen, knowledge is power and it is mightier than the sword itself. Real knowledge can command everything in the world. In my humble view English language is one of the richest languages of the world, by virtue of which one can have glimpses into the glorious literature of the English people as well as have a knowledge of the various sciences of the world. In our country there are neither schools, colleges nor literary societies for ladies to move in public life. Such institutions have not as yet come into existence. It is knowledge alone which can improve the

morality of the society we live in, and thereby it promotes the welfare of our fellow-beings. To lead an ideal life it behoves one to be humble, loyal, honest and religious. In our country the children, whether male or female, are taught these few moral precepts at the very outset of their education by their parents and guardians and the effect of their teachings uplifts even the hilly people in the beginning of their life.

BOMBAY.

Government College of Commerce.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint the following gentlemen to serve on the Advisory Board of the College:—*Chairman*, (1) The Hon'ble Mr. W. H. Sharp, Director of Public Instruction. *Members* (2) Mr. Percy Anstey, Principal of the College; (3) (Vacant for the present.); (4) Sir James Begbie, Kt., Secretary and Treasurer of the Bank of Bombay; (5) Mr. H. G. Cocke of Messrs. A. F. Ferguson and Company, Chartered Accountants; (6) Mr. K. Subramani Aiyar, B.A., L.T., F.S.A.A., Incorporated Accountant; (7) Mr. D. F. Mulla, M.A., LL.B., Advocate of the Bombay High Court; (8) Mr. A. K. Donald, Bar-at-Law, Judge of the Court of Small Causes, Bombay; (9) Sir Jugmohandas Vurjivandas, Kt.; (10) The Hon'ble Sirdar Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal, Bart., C.I.E.; (11) Mr. H. A. Wadia, Bar-at-Law, Representative of the Trustees of the N. M. Wadia Charities; (12) Mr. J. S. Wardlaw Milne; (13) Mr. W. A. Haig Brown, Representative of the Bombay Chamber of Commerce; (14) N. N. Wadia, Representative of the Bombay Mill-Owners' Association; (15) Mr. Dinshah Edalji Vachha, Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau; (16) The Hon'ble Mr. Manmohandas Ramji, Representative of the Bombay Native Piece Goods Merchants' Association; (17) Mr. Mangaldas Girdhardas Parekh, Representative of the Ahmedabad Mill-Owners' Association.

The Principal of the College will officiate as Secretary to the Board. The functions of the Board shall be to advise Government on questions of policy, organization, buildings, equipment, curriculum, rules of admission, and any other subject connected with the College on which Government may require its opinion. The Board will be closely associated with the College visiting it periodically, and should accordingly be in a position to take the initiative in suggesting improvements and reforms. The Director of Public Instruction, or, in his absence, the senior official member present, shall preside. The ruling of the Chairman in regard to all questions of procedure shall be final. There shall be one ordinary annual meeting of the Board held at Bombay, but the Chairman shall be at liberty to convene an extraordinary meeting whenever he may consider it desirable to do so. Notice of the time and place of meeting shall be issued to each member by the Secretary under instructions from the Director of Public Instruction at least

sixteen days in advance; Six members of the Board, exclusive of the Director of Public Instruction and the Principal, one or other of whom must be present shall constitute a quorum. *Note.*—Should the quorum fail and should the President consider the meeting as constituted specially competent to discuss the issue in point, the proceedings shall go forward, the opinion of the other members being subsequently obtained by circular. A report of the proceedings at each meeting shall be made by the Secretary to the Director of Public Instruction for the consideration of Government. *Note.*—In the absence of the Director of Public Instruction, the report shall be countersigned by the officer who presided at the meeting. The Board is authorized to call in experts for the consideration of any question on which expert advice is required, and to recommend the appointment of sub-committees to deal with particular questions or with special branches of the work of the College. Before consulting any expert whom it is proposed to remunerate for his advice, the Board shall obtain the sanction of Government to the payment of the remuneration proposed. It is expected of members that they will from time to time pay personal visits of inspection to the College, thus keeping in touch with its circumstances, its work and its needs and aspirations, and also that they will, so far as possible, take a practical interest in the after-career of the students and in affording them facilities for practical training.

The Bombay Education Society.—There was recently celebrated the centenary of the Bombay Education Society's High Schools at Byculla. To this Society modern education in India owes a good deal. Its chief work during its century of existence has been the foundation and support of the Byculla Schools and it was the first educational society in this country to carry on its work by means of voluntary subscriptions. In its schools was first tried the experiment of Grants-in-Aid which now form such an important part of Government's educational policy. It was the first society to undertake the task of placing in the hands of native scholars, books in their own vernaculars. It was the first to turn its attention to native education as a thing apart from missionary enterprise. From it sprang in 1825 the Native Education Society which for some years was practically the only association in Bombay concerned with education of Indian children. Finally it made the first attempt in this Presidency to provide some technical education. In a word it has been the founder of many educational movements which have now grown out of all proportion to their humble beginnings.

H. E. Lord Carmichael on Sanskrit education in Bengal.—His Excellency Lord Carmichael was invited to preside at the annual Convocation of the Eastern Bengal Saraswat Samaj held at Northbrook

Hall, Dacca. His Excellency addressed the meeting as follows:—

"Gentlemen, I am glad to welcome you once more in conference." I thank Professor Bidhu Bhushan Goswami for what he kindly said about me. I have been asked to convey to the Pandits of Eastern Bengal a message of sympathy from their fellow-Pandits in Calcutta. It is contained in a telegram which my Private Secretary has received from the Hon'ble Sir Asutosh Mukerjee, President of the Board of Sanskrit Studies in Calcutta. I will now read it to you:—"Kindly ask his Excellency to convey to Saraswat Samaj the message of good will and congratulations from Calcutta pandits, also my personal felicitations on their successful endeavours to promote our ancient learning." It is meet and right that sympathy such as is herein expressed should exist between the learned Pandits of Eastern and Western Bengal and I feel confident that the existence of separate organisations in Calcutta and Dacca for the encouragement of Sanskrit learning will be for the good of all. The rivalry which no doubt exists is the healthy rivalry of different schools and will but lead to the great advancement of learning. There is one face which we sadly miss here to-day, the kindly face of my old friend and your distinguished Secretary, Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Prassanna Chandra Vidvaratna. There are many here who called him friend. In fact his heart was so large and his sympathies so catholic, that I might almost put the statement in another way and say there are few here who did not count him among their friends. He was a true pandit, a devoted scholar, but a kindly man with human interests, extending far beyond the covers of his books. His enthusiasm and his capacity as an organiser and sound man of business were abundantly evident in the work he did, during the last 35 years, as Secretary of the Saraswat Samaj. It was, I know, a great disappointment to him that his expectations of seeing the Samaj placed on a permanent footing were not realised in his lifetime. He had fondly hoped that the scheme on which he took so keen an interest would be sanctioned by Government, while he yet lived but the wheels of Government moved very slowly and he was disappointed. I only trust there are others ready and willing to keep the torch of his enthusiasm burning until his great object is attained. I frankly tell you I am myself disappointed that more progress has not been made. When we met here almost exactly a year ago, I spoke of the scheme as one in which I could not hold out hope of an early decision but I did not then anticipate that the decision would be so long delayed. That there are financial difficulties connected with the scheme we all recognise and that it is difficult at the present time to get sanction for any new scheme which involves expenditure such as is involved in the scheme put forward by the Samaj. I know only too well. But if we are to wait till we get all the money we would like to have before coming to a decision on the principles of the scheme, we shall have to wait for a very long time. I most sincerely hope that it may be possible to give to the

Samaj at a very early date a reply regarding the principles involved even if the reply regarding the funds asked for cannot at the present time be altogether favourable. There is one matter in connection with your finances to which I would like to refer. As the Secretary has spoken of it, through the lamented death of the Kumar of Bhowal the estate has passed into the hands of other members of the family and the Kumar's generous subscription of Rs. 1,000 a year has ceased. The late Kumar made no provision for the permanent endowment of the Samaj. His heirs therefore can

continue the subscription or not as they feel disposed. The expenditure of the estate has had to be cut down considerably but the ladies have kindly agreed to continue to pay from the joint estate a sum of Rs. 800 per annum and perhaps in the near future when they find how their affairs have prospered, it may be possible, for the Samaj to appeal to them for their personal support to an institution of which the Kumar had so much at heart.

His Excellency then specially addressed the Pandits of the Samaj in Bengali.

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IT'S BRITISH.





THE LATE HON'BLE MR. G. K. GOKHALE, B.A., C.I.E.

The Educational Review.

In the death of the Hon'ble Mr. G. K. Gokhale, the Empire mourns the death of one of her most distinguished citizens, and India one of the most self-less patriots she has had in recent times. It was the boast of an English poet that it was not once, nor twice, but many times over in the island story of England that the path of duty was the path to glory. Whether India can make a similar boast we cannot stop to discuss. But this much can be truly said that such distinction as Mr. Gokhale has achieved he won in pursuing the straight path of duty. It must be a matter of pride to the educational profession that the training and the equipment that made Mr. Gokhale's career in the field of politics a career of brilliant achievements, were in no small measure due to the start that Mr. Gokhale had in life as Professor in an Indian College, and to the general discipline that the self-denying ordinances of an educational career in private employ impose on all who enter upon such work, and to the special discipline that the service in Fergusson College imposes on those who dedicate themselves to educational work on its behalf.

"Charity will hardly water the ground, where it must first fill a pool," said Bacon. Public work gets so little attention here in India because so much of men's time is engrossed by work for self-betterment. And the far-seeing patriots in Bombay in their Deccan educational societies and in other organisations provided nurseries for the growth of patriotic workers who would dedicate themselves competently and cheerfully to the work of political education of their compatriots and

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of *rapprochement* between the Government and the governed. And if we mention the "Servants of India" Society, to the starting and equipment and organisation of which Mr. Gokhale devoted so much of his time, it is only as an educational organisation for the training of serious politicians. It is but in the fittingness of things that the crowning educational work of Mr. Gokhale should be this organisation for the perfecting of the most responsible studies, of a post collegiate and super-professional kind, of Indian manhood.

As an educationist, Mr. Gokhale naturally attached a great deal of importance to the advancement of education on up-to-date lines in India and he advocated measures that would make for educational progress in all directions. The manifold evils that afflict Indian Society are evils bound to disappear with the removal of the dense mass of ignorance that clogs wholesome progress. Education and ever more and more of it is the only remedy. And Mr. Gokhale's Elementary Education Bill was brought forward with a view "to provide for the gradual introduction of the principle of compulsion into the elementary education system of the country," as the only effective way of diffusing widely elementary education among the mass of the people. 1·9 p. c. of the whole population receiving elementary education as against 19 p. c. in Great Britain and Ireland, 1d. per head being the educational expenditure as against 10s. in England and Wales were contrasts that harassed the advocate of Indian advancement on the side of political privilege and political obligation. This glaring contrast must be removed. He said in introducing the Bill: "An American legislator, addressing his

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countrymen more than half a century ago, once said that if he had the Archangel's trump, the blast of which could startle the living of all nations, he would sound it in their ears and say: 'Educate your children, educate all your children, educate every one of your children.' The deep wisdom and passionate humanity of this aspiration is now generally recognised, and in almost every civilised country, the State to-day accepts the education of the children as a primary duty resting upon it.....Elementary education for the mass of the people means something more than a mere capacity to read and write. It means for them a keener enjoyment of life and a more refined standard of living. It means the greater moral and economic efficiency of the individual."

"Deep wisdom and passionate humanity" characterised all his public utterances. Any one that had the privilege of catching a glimpse of his multifarious activities and of the quick and unrelenting way he worked must have guessed that he was conscious of the near approach of the fell sergeant and that he was eager to leave as much of solid achievement behind him as was humanly possible. He magnificently spent himself. Such prodigality of ebbing energies was perhaps the height of prudence when conscious of the stealing apace of the night when no man can labour.

Fruitful in manifold directions have been the activities of the Hon'ble Mr. G. K. Gokhale and more fruitful of good to his country would be the beacon light of his life if his example be even distantly followed.

South Indian education has lost a veteran worker in the death of the late Rev. Father Sewell. Rev. J. D. W. Sewell, S.J., for long, manager of the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, but latterly, since he undertook to discharge a lion's share of the work of the Madras University Syndicate, practically a resident of Madras. The daily press has referred to the main incidents of his life and we shall speak here only of his educational activities. His main work in life was the raising of the St. Joseph's College to the position of the premier mofussil College in the Madras Presidency. This college was originally located at Negapatam. It was originally a College of Jesuits, a place of residence for Jesuit Fathers where they lived, exercised their priestly functions and dispensed some elementary education to a few Roman Catholic Indian pupils. The institution was held in the suburb of Velipaliam, a mile to the north of the old port of Negapatam. The college was held in a house which had been from the early Christian era occupied by Buddhist monks. The chief shrine in those far-off days was a rich temple called Tiruvelligopuram—the tower of silver. During the Pallava supremacy, tradition has it that the minor chief and Vaishnava saint, Tirumangaimannan, robbed this shrine of some of its wealth and devoted it to the construction of Vishnu temples. The Buddhist colony of Velipaliam, though it gradually declined in numbers and influence in the XI century, was yet sufficiently important to receive a grant of land and privileges from the great Kulotunga Chola Deva, one of the greatest South Indian Emperors. In the early XIX century Tiruvelligopuram had been to some extent destroyed by the hand of time

and a picture of the interesting ruins can be seen in Yule's *Marco Polo*; but soon, as Yule reports, the religious zeal of the Jesuit Fathers got the better of their archaeological enthusiasm and they razed this relic of antiquity to the ground and built a "Study Hall" on its site.

The necessity for the Study Hall was the gradual growth of the St. Joseph's College, though even then it was but a boarding institution for Roman Catholic boys and its non-Christian day-scholars could be counted on the fingers of one hand. Small though the college was in those days, it embodied in its organization the principles of education which the Jesuits have perfected through three centuries of steady effort and have thoroughness as their aim. Then Father Barrow, an Oxford Don who became a Roman Catholic, at the same time as Cardinal Newman, re-organized the work of the St. Joseph's College and added to the efficiency of Jesuitical methods the stimulation of individual initiative among scholars, which is the distinguishing mark of Oxford. Notwithstanding all these advantages, the St. Joseph's College was but little known in the Madras Presidency. During its long location at Negapatam, it did not produce more than a dozen B.A.'s; only two of its students became famous, viz., the late Mr. A. M. Chinnaswami Pillai, M.A., author of the heavy tunes on Indian Music, now unfortunately out of print and the Hon'ble Dewan Bahadur L. D. Swamikannu Pillai, Registrar of Co-operative Societies and author of the learned treatise on *Indian Chronology*.

In 1883, Father Sewell conceived the idea of transferring the St. Joseph's College to Trichinopoly. He saw that its geographical position was such that it commanded a huge

supply of students. He brought to bear on the re-organisation of the College at Trichinopoly all his talents developed during the long period of service in the Military department. His untiring industry, his wonderful tact in dealing with pupils who belonged to various castes, flocked from various parts of the Presidency, and spoke various languages, his judicious dispensation of charity when it was needed, his choice of the right men as Professors, both from among the Jesuit Fathers and from laymen, both Catholic and Hindu, all these resulted in the St. Joseph's College soon becoming the leading mofussil college. His work at Trichinopoly reacted on local patriotism also; the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly received a new access of vitality by the powerful rivalry of the St. Joseph's and a purely Hindu school—the National High School—was also started and organized on sound lines. Thus was the once sleepy town of Trichinopoly suddenly evolved into the chief mofussil educational centre of the Presidency—all due to the energy of one retired English Military officer and Jesuit Father.

Another phase of Father Sewell's educational work began with the passing of the Indian Universities Act by Lord Curzon. That event made it possible for the foundations of education to be examined afresh and relaid in accordance with modern ideas. Just about that time Father Sewell had been elected to the Syndicate and he was naturally given a seat in every committee that has since sat for the purpose of revising the organization and reforming the methods of public education in this Presidency. That through the long period of ten years in which this work has been in progress Father Sewell supported whole-heartedly those who fought for reform and up-to-date methods need not surprise

those who knew of the psychology of the dear old Jesuit Father. A man who, after he retired from active military duties at an age when most people's minds are crystallized, had the courage to re-examine the bases of his religious beliefs, had mental elasticity enough to sympathize with a new faith and adopt it, and enter a religious order whose iron discipline is generally believed to be obnoxious to the spirit of Britons, such a man is young of heart however old be his limbs, and it is this ever-upwelling youthfulness of energy that Father Sewell constantly displayed as a member of Committees, as a Syndic, as a member of Colleges Inspection Committees, indeed in all educational meetings, official or unofficial. We shall miss him for many a long day in South India.

By the sudden and wholly unexpected death of Mr. John The late Mr. Henry Mackintosh the J. H. Mackintosh. Presidency College and the University of Madras have lost an educationist of great capacity and much promise. Born at Inverness in Scotland, Mr. Mackintosh was educated at Keswick School and at Queen's College, Oxford, in which University he graduated with much distinction, his Honour School being that of English Language and Literature. His tutor was Mr. Tiddy of Trinity College, and he was besides the pupil of such well-known scholars as Mr. Nichol Smith and the distinguished critic and man of letters Sir Walter Raleigh. We have good authority for saying, and indeed it is no matter for

surprise, that Mr. Mackintosh's teachers at Oxford were greatly impressed by his exceptional ability, his sound critical judgment and breadth of view, as also by the range of his reading which was remarkable in one so young. Mr. Mackintosh was appointed to the Indian Educational Service at the end of 1911, and at the beginning of the next year joined the Presidency College as Additional Professor of English. It was in this year that the new B. A. courses, Pass and Honours, first came into working, and it was signally fortunate for the College that it was able to secure at such a time a Professor of English possessing exactly the qualifications and training required for the guidance and control upon right lines of English studies on the 'literature' side. The conduct of the Honour Course in English Literature, as distinct from English Language, at the Presidency College was from the first placed almost entirely in Mr. Mackintosh's hands, and the success of the English Honours course, the popularity of which greatly surpassed expectation, has been very largely due to the excellence of Mr. Mackintosh's teaching, and the confidence he inspired in his pupils. The Honour students in English perhaps will miss him most, but he worked with all the English classes. All have reason to be grateful to him, and all unite in mourning his loss.

In his Professorial duties Mr. Mackin-

tosh was intimately associated not only with the English staff at the Presidency College, but also with the Professors of English at the Madras Christian College. With all these he worked in the completest harmony, and from all he won the highest esteem. In the small inter-collegiate group of workers who have been hitherto chiefly responsible for advanced studies in English in this University, he has left a gap which will not easily be filled.

For the greater part of the past year up to just a week before his death, Mr. Mackintosh, as acting Professor of English, was responsible for the general supervision of English studies and of the Department of English at the Presidency College. To the University he rendered very valuable services as an Examiner and as Member of the Board of Studies in English. He also delivered two courses of University lectures which were largely attended and much appreciated. He was Honorary Treasurer of the South Indian Branch of the English Association, was a regular attendant at the meetings of the Branch, took a prominent part in its discussions, and in various ways helped forward its activities.

The regard entertained for him by his pupils, amongst whom the English Honours students of the Christian College were included, was conspicuously shown by the large attendance of students from both Colleges at his funeral and by the

beautiful wreaths sent by them as last tributes of affection and esteem. More than one movement is on foot at the Presidency College to perpetuate his memory and to mark the regard in which he was held by the students of the English classes generally, by his own particular pupils in the Honours classes, and by his colleagues on the Professorial staff.

Mr. Mackintosh was only twenty-seven when he died. In his short period of work in Madras he had accomplished not a little, and in his special province held, and deservedly held, a place of prominence and exercised an influence out of all proportion to his years and experience. But the sense of loss in his case is, in a peculiar way, enhanced by the sense of promise unfulfilled. He possessed a rare combination of qualities and a quiet efficiency which, had he lived, would undoubtedly have enabled him to render very valuable services to high education in this country, and in this, and in other ways, would have found for him a range of usefulness far wider than the comparatively restricted sphere in which he was actually permitted to work.

We have spoken of Mr. Mackintosh as an educationist, possessed of intellectual gifts and attainments fitting him in a pre-eminent degree for the special duties he was called upon to discharge. Those who in private life knew him best will think rather of the qualities which

equally distinguished him, and which made him in his quiet way a delightful companion, a valued friend, and a peculiarly attractive and lovable personality.

We commend to the attention of our readers a remarkable letter on the 'Best University for India' by Professor Patrick Geddes, in this number of the *Educational Review*. From its very nature it is general in its terms, but still embodies suggestions of a far-reaching character which those that have to do with the organisation of new Universities or the re-organisation of old ones will do very well to ponder deeply over, in connection with their work. Professor Geddes notes that the mediæval University arose from the transformation of the monkish schools into lay, by the absorption of Arab and other distant culture, as typified in the University of Paris. When the Renaissance broke out in Europe the mediæval University widened still further by the absorption of Greek learning which brought Europe into direct touch with Aristotle who was known till then only through the Arabs. The next stage of development brought the Renaissance-University into the modern (German) University by the adoption of the unofficial but literally encyclopædic culture of the French "Philosophes." The various subjects of the Encyclopædia were endowed with chairs and lecture-

ships open freely to the exposition and elaboration of each. This revival and freedom of special research with the necessarily minute and increasing division of labour has thus become the special glory of the Berlin and other Universities, of Germany primarily, and of most modern Universities fashioned upon German models. The main dangers of this specialism as the Professor points out, are "that loss or at least deficient sense of intellectual unity, that paralysis of moral purpose, which a too exclusive absorption in any specialism tends to produce."

We would point out here the rather close analogy that there is between this course of development of University education in Europe and that which would answer to this University education in India generally. But this normal development shows the tendency to advance on new lines by absorbing into the already wide scheme of studies "the comprehensive theories and synthetic ideals of non-academic thinkers, for instance the evolutionists, the sociologists and so on." Normal as this course of development seems, it suffered an arrest in its course by the introduction under the Empire of Napoleon of a uniform system of examinations for degrees whose purpose was to produce 'the respectable functionary and the docile tax-payer.' This system of hide-bound uniformity was imported in

gradual stages by the Liberal movement in England, and culminated in the University of London on the model of 'the University of France.' This we only know too well was copied in India, and the older Universities of India were professedly constituted on the model of London. It was only recently that it was discovered that this kind of a University has no legitimate place in the development of higher culture, and the Haldane Commission has gone a good step forward in transforming the London University into a teaching body. But the general movement of University progress in Britain, as elsewhere, has been the process of modernising which has been carried out more thoroughly in the United States. Most of all, however, this tendency to modernise has been in evidence in the reconstruction of the French Universities since the war of 1870-71. Higher studies and research elements are getting to be greatly and increasingly developed so much so that in the University of Paris there are as many as 40 specialists in History alone. While thus out-germaning the German in specialising, the University of Paris continues to be French in the best sense. The "French spirit is acting on and incorporating the German specialisms, giving them its characteristic lucidity, unity, and clearness, and preparing a new systematisation of culture. And further it is becoming directly "social." That is, its science is becoming more

fully applied to art, its theory to practice, its speculation to the needs of human life and the times."

The University of the near future is being thus foreshadowed in a combination of the dispersive specialists' progress and a co-ordination of the various elements of the specialisation into an ever-growing unity. This has been brought about according to the Professor by the fact that the French educational organisers exhibit in the course of their work 'that their most abstract and disinterested work has been infused with this spirit of enlightened and humanized patriotism.' This was exactly the character of the German University movement at the beginning of the 19th century. May we hope that it will be the character of the present day University movement in India? One special feature deserves serious attention, viz., that while the greater Universities are of a universal character in regard to their culture, there are a number of others which deliberately adopt a narrower range and become regional in their character. The Professor points out the obvious application of this to India.

The Professor considers that contact with the French system would be beneficial to India as France has much that is in common with India, being a country of small agriculturists, artisans, and intellectuals.

The Professor draws pointed attention to the geographical basis of humanistic studies in France, and considers the science of evolution in India 'one of the finest subjects for the new foundation, and one ideally adopted to the native investigator once brought abreast of European, not simply English, thought.'

He draws attention further to the unique character of the "Universite Nouvelle" of Brussels which broke away from the existing official University specialising in the social sciences, and insists that the University movement in India should pay particular attention to the new tendencies to infuse unity in the specialised studies of the modern University. He would have us note further that science is getting to be necessarily and increasingly international in character and would adopt for India the eclecticism of Japan in this respect. He considers that the results of the present system, based on a bad model as it has been, are far from discouraging. In respect of the importation of Professors from Europe he would adopt the Japanese method of bringing in specialists for short terms gradually replacing them by trained and travelled Indians. We are, however, of opinion that this kind of a tutelage cannot go on for all time and the educational system of India should be so transformed as to give all the culture that may be necessary for

any work in the country, leaving the necessity of foreign travel to the exigencies of any particular work for the time being. He insists and insists rightly that it is not the Professor alone who makes the University but it is a proper cut of pupils, and recommends special efforts to gather round a Professor the quality of pupils to create a centre of culture.

He comes last of all to the question of Europeanising Indian education. He condemns the production of an educated Indian as a more or less faithful and weak reproduction of a European, in culture. He would rather have the Indian educated to give him the capacity 'to utilise his vast ancestral inheritance' his ancient world, to fertilise his lotus-seedlet with our far-blown and strangely active western Pollen, and considers that that 'is the way to new life, the new development India needs.' He recommends the return to the study of India with the best western evolutionary geography, anthropology, and economics. While he considers that the modern specialists' skill of the European is eminently desirable, the cosmic sense of the Indian mind should not lightly be abandoned. This could be done according to him by the infusion and deepening of the keener but less profound western thought with a renewal of our own poetry, our own philosophy and our ancient science. We cordially agree with

him and although these hints and suggestions of his seem too vague and theoretical, the working out of the necessary details appears to us quite practicable. Any really national culture worthy of the name ought certainly 'to preserve and continue the past, to purify and to enrich and to combine its social heritage.' This ought certainly to be the ideal of the educationist and statesman in one. This ideal it was that was carried to such fulness of fruition in Japan by the Statesman-Educationist-Emperor. Vaster as India is, various as have been its cultures there is still visible an underlying unity of culture and this ought to come in for consideration in any scheme of higher education and culture.

The tremendous commercial dislocation caused by the war has moved the Government to institute enquiries as to how the industrial development of India can best be brought about. The Universities of India, especially as represented by the numerous Science Professors and Lecturers, have taken absolutely no part in such enquiries. In India the University is regarded as an exalted academy of Pandits who would feel it beneath their dignity to tamper with such mundane questions as handicraft or trade. When some years ago the question of a college of commerce was mooted in connection with the Madras University it was pooh-

poohed by the Fellows. But there are Universities which do not feel it to be unacademical to provide for the teaching of trade; the University of Leeds employs a Professor of Applied Chemistry whose duty it is to investigate and teach the best methods of leather manufacture. Of a recent occupant of that chair, who vacated it on account of his nationality on the outbreak of the war, Mr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, writes in the pages of the December number of *Modern Language Teaching* as follows:—"Of all the younger men who have devoted themselves to the scientific problems involved in the leather industries, no one living is more eminent than Dr. Stiasny. The science of the leather industries, a branch of Applied Chemistry, has enabled a fundamental need of civilized life to be met with greatly increased economy in the expenditure of time and labour. Its value has for many years been known to students of industrial and economic questions, and has now been made clear to the world at large by the experience of the European war, in the course of which a quick supply of trustworthy boots and of other leather equipment is vital to the efficiency and health of the troops. For the last twenty-three years the University of Leeds, with the help of the Skinners' Company, and with the advice of a representative committee engaged in science and in industry, has maintained in its Leather Industries Department a centre of research and advanced teaching. This department

has made material contribution to the welfare of the industry in both hemispheres, and has naturally attracted to itself a large and increasing body of students from all countries. Owing to its strength in Applied Chemistry and to the fact that Leeds has for many generations been the centre of the leather industries, the University of Leeds was in a position to establish this department of research and teaching." One is tempted to ask whether Madras is not a large centre of exports of hides and a small centre of leather industries. Has the Madras University ever thought it possible to correlate its science teaching with local needs? Or for the matter of that, has any University of India felt that it is its duty to order the whole or part of its work so as to stimulate Indian economic or industrial life? Or is Applied Science not so much in keeping with University dignity as old Tamil Poetry, mediæval English History or modern Bengali literature? Why are the few scientific institutions in India, we mean, Agricultural colleges, Pasteur institutes, etc., carefully dissociated from the Universities which alone are the proper foci of all higher learning and research?

The address delivered at the Convocation of the Allahabad University on the 14th November 1914, keeps up the tradition of the Convocation Addresses of that University in not being the string of platitudes which is the ideal of the annual Madras University Convocation orator. On the con-

trary, the Allahabad address critically discusses the year's educational work of all kinds. One of the most striking things mentioned in the address is the extremely generous help the United Province Government gives to private schools. "At the present, when a new high school is mooted, the promoters have a practical assurance that they have only to prove the public demand for it in order to procure a provincial grant of *half its capital cost and current expenses*, while if subscribers should subsequently become lukewarm, there is a vague hope that Government will somehow save the venture from collapse." In Madras, no High School can ever dream to get from Government half its capital, or half its current expenses. A well-established efficient High School *can hope* to get half of what the management contributes from its own resources other than school-fees, etc., but *actually* gets anything varying from 1 p. c. to 25 p. c. of that sum. In another portion of this address is a description of the strain which Indian University work imposes on the average student, an admission remarkable in a Convocation address. "As one visits college after college, seeing more of under-graduate life, and particularly those whose sad lot it is to *fall out by the way*, there is one impression that steadily graves itself deeper on the mind. It is the impression of the terrible strain, mental and physical, which our University courses impose on vast numbers of the student community. Much has been done to alleviate it, by saner

methods of teaching, by healthy buildings, by the encouragement of athletics. But *its effects cannot be shaken off*. You see them in the statistics of tubercular disease; and it saddened my heart to find so many bright-eyed lads from our colleges amongst the patients in the great consumptive sanatorium at Bhowali when I visited it last month. This of course is no new discovery, and the reasons for the strain are well within the knowledge of all of us. Some of them are social, some of them are economical, and so on." The only remedy for this is to temper the wind to the shorn lamb. Every University ought to provide two degrees, an easy degree for the average student, who will not and cannot become an admirable Crichton, a degree which he can attain to without wrecking himself in the attempt to reach it and a stiff Honours degree for those of stronger fibre, those few whom Nature has endowed with the brains necessary for higher intellectual work. But in most Indian Universities, there is a strong majority of men, unluckily those who have the ear of Government, who, in the name of a high standard of efficiency, fight against the attempt to separate the work of the Pass man from that of the Honours man. Before the moloch of this efficiency is laid in sacrifice the health, the fortunes, nay, the lives of many young men who, under other conditions, will prove useful and efficient men and citizens.

The Rev. Mr. Knowles, the untiring advocate of the introduction of a simple Romanic alphabet for India (i.e., modified Roman) alphabet for India has sent us a further appeal and a copy of his memorial to the Secretary of State for India. Unfortunately latter-day Hindu Revivalism sees many questions out of perspective and will not even trouble to read what the advocates of the Romanic alphabet have to say. Nay, there are some who even pretend to believe that some of the Indian alphabets are of superhuman origin. All these alphabets are plethorically full of symbols as the tropical forests are over-full of foliage. As the Rev. Mr. Knowles points out, there are but 53 elementary sounds in all the Indian languages and about 20,000 elaborate types have to be used for printing the Indian representations of them, each language requiring 1,000 to 2,000 of types. The people of this country are too much given to sentiment to be able to attempt to reform this: but the Government can very well take it on hand. At least for the benefit of its various officers who have to learn so many languages, it might print its vernacular notices in Indian alphabets as well as in the Romanic. The side by side presentation of the awkward alphabets now used and the simple Romanic ones will gradually train the people of this country to overgrow sentiment and see the immense advantages in the matter of the spread of learning and of the increase of the efficiency

of administration which the adoption of one script for the whole of India is sure to secure. We hope the Secretary of State will give his sympathetic attention to the representation of the advocates of the unification of alphabet in India.

After all, the Government of Madras has sanctioned the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to open a special class for training manual instructors in the Teachers' College, Saidapet. Some private schools in this Presidency and the Educational Department in Mysore Province have for many years recognized the need for the training of the hand in our young men and provided for it; in our own columns we have so frequently denounced the Panditry that alone is provided in our educational institutions as the only pabulum for our boys, that we are glad that the Government of Madras have taken some steps forward in lessening the severe academicity of our school training. We wish that the Director had not called it manual training but had adopted the other name of 'educational handwork.' We fear the 'manual instructors' mentioned in the G. O. are likely to be selected from professional carpenters and the result will be one more subject added to our school course. We do not want to make carpenters of our boys, we do not want that they should learn to make boxes in addition to pouting extracts

from Byron or Pope; but we want that the work of the hand should be correlated with the work of the age in school work. To secure this end, the Saidapet College should train not carpentry-teachers, but teach handwork to every teacher under training, more especially Science teachers, so that educational handwork may become an organic part of school work and not a mere superadded activity to the heavy work which already weighs on our school boys. We invite the serious attention of all our readers, and educationists in particular, to the valuable and instructive contribution on *Educational Handwork* by Mr. Cecil R. Porrett of the Teachers' College, Saidapet.

We congratulate Prof. K. Ramunni Menon, M.A., of the Presidency College, Madras, on his election to the Syndicate in place of Dewan Bahadur Govindaraghava Iyer. For many years our lawyer friends have dominated the Syndicate. However estimable these gentlemen may be, they are not expected to know much of the modern educational developments and hence their influence as members of the Syndicate was always thrown on the side of reaction. We are therefore glad that at last the educationist has come by his own. The proper place of the Lawyer is the Faculty of Law whence he could deal with the law courses which after all represent the least important part of the University activities.

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THE BEST UNIVERSITY FOR INDIA.

A LETTER TO AN INDIAN FRIEND*

BY PROFESSOR PATRICK GEDDES.

Before entering on your very large and general enquiry as to what may be the best form of a new foundation of University character, and, especially for India, we require in the first place an outlook on the whole University movement throughout its history, so as to see what progress is pointing to. Let me try to reduce this to the very briefest outline.

1. The Mediæval University arose when the monkish school became laicised, and when it learned, from crusaders and pilgrims, something of Arab and other distant culture; thus recovering Aristotle, and arousing a centre of teaching and discussion in Paris, and thence later in many cities, both great and small. Learning and discussion, however, both degenerated in ways we need not here follow.

2. The Mediæval University became the Renaissance University by absorbing the new learning from fugitive Greeks, the new astronomy from persecuted heretics, and the results of the new art of printing from wandering scholars and craftsmen. This then gradually stagnated in its turn.

3. The Renaissance University developed into the modern (German) University, through the absorption of the unofficial, but literally encyclopedic, culture of the French

"philosophes." The "Grande Encyclopedie" of Diderot (of which our "Britannica" and "Chambers" are the direct descendants) was broken up, so to speak, into its constituent articles, e.g., algebra, anthropology, Arabic, archæology, architecture, and so on right down the alphabet; and chairs and lectureships were opened freely to the exposition and the elaboration of each. The current ideal of "Liberte," "Egalite," &c., was translated from the political into the intellectual sphere, and acclaimed as the new freedom of teaching and learning ("Lehrfreiheit and Lernfreiheit"). This modern revival and freedom of special research, with its minute and increasing division of labour among many workers, is thus the glory of Berlin and of the German Universities. Its main dangers are, of course, that loss, or at least deficient sense, of intellectual unity, that paralysis of moral purpose, which a too exclusive absorption in any specialism tends to produce.

4. Now this modern, or German, type of University is again tending to develop afresh. It is absorbing the growing science of the world around, e.g., from travellers and inventors, from scientific societies and congresses, from museums, and even from those vast temporary museums of the present which

* This letter was written in reply to Sister Nivedita, who had written informally on behalf of the late Mr. Tata, who was then enquiring as to the best method of directing that extensive benefaction which has since been employed towards the foundation of the Tata Institute in Bangalore.

we call International Exhibitions. It is absorbing also the comprehensive theories and synthetic ideals of non-academic thinkers, for instance the evolutionists, the sociologists, and so on.

5. In direct contrast and opposition to these progressive movements was introduced, under the Empire of Napoleon, a system of education consisting of the memorising of artificially formulated and authoritatively imposed programmes, for examinations for degrees, calculated to repress investigation and mainly to produce the respectable functionary and the docile tax-payer. This was the "University of France," since 1878, however, in process of being dissolved.

6. The Liberal movement of England has turned essentially upon the importation of the essential ideas of the opening period of the French Revolution,—of course properly diluted and taken very gradually. But well-intentioned Liberals committed the mistake of importing also this type of examination institution from the Napoleonic Empire, and calling it the University of London: while others transferred it in essence to India. This whole development, however, is now generally recognised as having been in the main little more than a vicious parenthesis. At any rate, it cannot be said to have had vital use or place in the general progress above outlined, save as delaying it. Returning then to (3).

7. The general movement of University progress in Britain hitherto,—so far as we can yet be said to have had any general movement—has been the necessary process of modernising or Germanising, which has been carried out more fully and thoroughly in the United States. But the most remarkable line of advance at present, even in this respect,

though still too little known in England, and presumably still less in India, has been (4) the reconstitution of French Universities since the war of 1870-71, a reconstitution no less thorough and effective than that of the Army. And I would specially press on the attention of anyone desiring to found or improve a University, the work of M. Liard, who has for the past twenty years been permanent Under-Secretary of State for Higher Education, thus practically more important than has been any French Minister of Education, though M. Leon Bourgeois (twice Minister) is also worth hearing. His work has been not only to rebuild and reorganise the University of Paris, until it now corresponds, in sheer number of students and staff, to all the teaching Universities of England and Scotland put together, and in spirit and efficiency greatly surpasses these, but also to re-establish seven or eight "regional Universities" in the leading cities, *e.g.*, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Montpellier, Lyons, Marseilles, Nancy, Lille, &c.: to which besides we must add the foundation of a number of incomplete Universities (*i.e.* without faculties of medicine, law, &c., such as Clermont, Caen, &c.). So much for the magnitude of his task, which as you see many times exceeds the work of the Presidents of Chicago or Harvard, much more anything in Britain. Next as to its character. A great step has been to give up the mechanical unity of the University of France, with its programmes and examinations as the sole conditions of intellectual existence. This is now being rapidly dissolved, while the higher studies and research elements are being greatly and increasingly developed. Of course this change is still far from complete, but the policy is clear. Note in this regard that the University of London is also becoming a

teaching institution; so that you may fairly look for a corresponding relaxation of the examination system, for and in India, before many years. But the matter which most directly concerns this new Indian scheme of which you tell me, would be the "Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes,"* of which printed particulars are easily obtained. But, you may ask, how does this new, indeed still only nascent, French development differ from the familiar German type, with its off-sets in America and England? In this respect, as I have already said, *German* means *modern*, and in that sense the University of Paris is now immensely the largest of Germanic Universities,—with its innumerable specialists, *e.g.*, over 40 in history alone. But while thus more German than the Germans, it is also French in the best sense also. It is yet more widely open,—the "Universite de Paris" again beginning to denote not only the sum of all the faculties, but of all the institutions of higher culture. It is also more systematic. The French spirit is acting on and incorporating the German specialisms, giving them its characteristic lucidity, unity and clearness, and preparing a new systematisation of culture. And further it is becoming directly "social." That is, its science is becoming more fully applied to art, its theory to practice, its speculation to the needs of human life and the times.

8. (Again 4). It is thus beginning to constitute a new academic type, ahead of the present modern one—the Nascent, the Incipient University, which the past Exhibition and the opening century alike have been beginning more clearly and boldly to formulate,—the University of the (near) future, of which the ideals are already becoming apparent. It

will continue and intensify all the dispersive specialist progress of the modern type, but it will be characterised by the progressive co-ordination of this into an ever-growing unity. By the application of these specialisms to action, an open synthesis will be brought about, becoming—through the greater and greater harmonising of the thought and action of the whole world toward a peaceful unity—the synergy of a widened and deepened human sympathy. You ask, in what way is this being achieved? This generation of French educational organisers, just like the Army re-organisers, have had to make their country anew. From nearly 25 years' personal knowledge of French higher education, *e.g.*, of Pasteur or of Lacaze, and their pupils, as well as of half-a-dozen other of the great schools of science, I can tell you that their most abstract and disinterested research has been infused with this spirit of enlightened and humanised patriotism. (Their actual watchword has been "Il faut refaire la patrie!") And it is worth remembering that the German University movement of the beginning of the century arose in a fully similar way.

Another point most noteworthy is that while Paris and the greater Universities have a universal character, and are being equipped with all the imaginable institutes of physics, chemistry, physiology, botany, &c., upon the first-rate German level, some of the smaller of which I spoke are becoming the most truly 'regional' in the world. For instance that of Clermont is largely characterised by admirably working out the geology, meteorology, natural history, anthropology, &c., of its historic province and natural region of Auvergne. The application of this to India is surely obvious.

France—a country of small agriculturalists,

* Practical School of Higher Studies.

of artists, and intellectuals—is in each of these ways peculiarly analogous to India,—much more so than is Britain. And her example, therefore, ought to be studied by Indian educational organisers in the fullest possible way. Thus I submit that the influence of Pasteur (and of course a direct touch with the Pasteur Institute,—at present probably one of the most active centres and foci of fruitful research and general progress in the world, *e.g.*, in general and special hygiene, in the question of the fertility of soil, and in larger agricultural matters generally,) would be found of the highest importance. Take even as a minor instance the production of silk; and then think of its profound reaction on the hygiene of the home, on the arts and industries, and, not indirectly, even upon the status and education of Indian women. For while agricultural detail may be left to agricultural colleges, the proposed new foundation might well include an institute of bacteriology. Similarly you require a French contact to vitalise your studies in other subjects, say anthropology and political economy. For while the manufacturing, mercantile, and financial economy of England is not directly related to the needs of India, the peasant proprietorship and rural syndicates of France, like the Agricultural banks of Germany and Italy, are of immediate and practical interest (and perhaps even example) for the Indian economist. I, of course, strongly believe that our Indian rulers would become greatly more efficient by this change in their economic point of view—from their present insular and urban one of the manufacturing and exporting, the financial and governing city, to that of Continental economists, agricultural especially, and here as I have just said, not only French, but German and Italian also.

Again, while English anthropologists, like German Sanscritists, have undeniably done good, even fundamental, work in the past, the modern French movement originating with Le Play and now revolutionising both anthropology and economics, is still almost unknown in both these countries, although it is just beginning to find its way into one or two lecture rooms of Edinburgh, Oxford and Cambridge. For with the School of Le Play, instead of beginning with language, or with race as our initial principle, we begin with the geography of the chosen region; we investigate how this determines the essential occupations, and how from these evolve the family type, the clans and castes of the people, and ultimately their appropriate ideas and even ideals also—these in turn reacting upon the whole, through institutions, spiritual and temporal, through philosophy and education, æsthetics, symbolism and art.

This would constitute an almost new (*i. e.*, a reorganised) science—that of the Evolution of India—surely one of the finest subjects for the new foundation, and one ideally adapted to the native investigator, once brought abreast of European, not simply English thought.

So much then for some of these French developments. You should be in immediate touch, with *e.g.* M.M. Lavissee and Liard (the latter now Rector of the University of Paris) and with specialists of most kinds. Similarly with those of Germany also, though here the great founders were of an earlier generation, and are no longer surviving. Yet there are in Germany men from whom you may be assured of valuable counsel if you want it; for with their eager evolutionism, they inherit much of the spirit of the generation of Goethe.

Another University type well worth study-

ing is that unique one of the "Universite Nouvelle" of Brussels which broke away from the existing official University, and has gone on now for five years, almost without money, by the voluntary and unpaid labour of its large professoriate. It is already one of the most living of smaller European centres, especially in the social sciences. All this of course is a matter of international comparison; and it is at present one of your many educational misfortunes in India that you only know the acute insularity of Oxford and Cambridge when you get outside the examination machine of London; except in so far as the (essentially Scottish) medical or missionary or technical College may have influence. The introduction of the German level of specialism I am of course not undervaluing; but we may assume that you are safe to get this if the present project goes on. Hence I insist on the later French developments, that of what I have called the Nascent University beyond the modern one, of which moreover too few Englishmen have heard. (It is fair to recognise that the older members of the professoriate, who of course form opinion more than I can, only knew France, if at all, before the war, *i.e.*, during the second Empire, when she was perhaps at her lowest level for centuries.) Of the present revival of old prejudices against France I need not speak. It cannot last indefinitely; we especially are too serious losers by it. Pray note also my insistence on the necessary and increasing internationalism of science. Science which, like ours in England, too often loses touch with the Continent and with America, is not wide enough to inspire India, which must in this respect be as free and as eclectic as Japan. Here the Indian student, like the Japanese, needs to travel.

and no less widely. Why not have travelling fellowships? It is time you diminished your reverence of our academic pretentiousness, and realised (1) that most of the great names of British science, Darwin, Wallace, Spencer, Joule, Lyell, Murchison, Faraday, Davy, Huxley, Tyndall, &c., are no more regular products of the Universities than are the poets or the inventors; (2) that when distinguished and official, like Lister, Kelvin, and Tait, they are very often like these, Scottish professors, not English; and (3) that the younger generation of distinguished men of science, &c., *e.g.*, Ramsay, Dewar, &c., are still largely Northern or German graduates. This very notably reduces the scientific authority of the two great English Universities, where, despite an increasing infusion of respectable specialism, the old traditions of classics at the one and mathematics at the other, of social convention and intellectual routine at both, still far too largely hold good. It is from the latter class that your Indian professoriate is already, in my judgment, far too largely drawn. With this spirit and with the machinery of the University of London still mainly dominating Indian education, it is a wonder to me that your results are as good as they are. But a new institution on fresh lines may soon do wonders, even for the existing Universities; since, to do these justice, a feeling of needed progress is becoming more common.

Of course you are right to wish to import some of our good men. Every country and every line of culture needs its special missionaries, the representative academic missionary to my mind being, for example, Max Muller in Oxford, with his undeniable services in popularising there the educational mythology of his time. But have you not quite enough at

present in India of the mythology of England in our time?

Here it is that the Japanese have been so wise, in selecting the Cambridge mathematician, the German chemist, the Glasgow engineer, the American psychologist, and so on, to head their respective departments for seven years or so, of course occasionally re-appointing them for a second or even a third period when specially desirable, but steadily replacing them with trained and travelled Japanese as these gradually presented themselves.

Weissmann has again and again told me that the ablest student (German or other) he has ever had, was a Japanese, now a professor in his own country. Though I have not chanced to have many Indian students, and have not come across any genius, I have found the Indians as good as others. Another point, constantly forgotten by European and even American founders is that science is not in buildings nor even in laboratories, is neither in the instruments nor the libraries; and that when you got the biggest and best of these, and even have selected your professors as carefully as you can, you have not yet got very far. Every intellectual movement requires not simply an originaive mind, but the friction of a ground of a kindred mind. It is largely, perhaps mainly, for lack of this that culture movements so readily die out. Your best Professor is but a conductor; you must find him not only room and instruments, but an orchestra. I have now rambled for two seasons among American Universities: and more than by all the wealth and variety and magnificence of Harvard or Columbia or Chicago I have been impressed by the intensive unity of the small Clark University of Worcester, which Boston does not yet appre-

ciate. Here there were not funds enough to start a complete University, and so it was decided to develop especially the Faculty of Education, already the most important faculty in the estimation of America, though the one we still care least about in England. Here, then, round a psychologist and educationalist of genius were grouped eight or ten chairs only, those judged by him most essential. And the rest of the income from the foundation was devoted to the supply of about 50 post-graduate fellowships of which one-third are awarded annually to men of promise who have concluded the ordinary course in other American Universities. For this University does not waste its funds in preparing under-graduates at all, leaving these to the innumerable existing institutions for that purpose.

May not this principle be suggestive beyond the United States?

Enough details perhaps for the present: if you want information about foreign Universities, or specific institutes, such as the Pasteur Institute, &c., it is as easily obtained as about our own.

Yet a last word remains, perhaps the most important of all, since it raises the vast question of the true relations between our respective civilisations. Read or hand this letter to some of the many good and kindly and sensible, honest and patriotic, but not educationally travelled people among your friends, in London especially of course, but for that matter anywhere. Read it to an actual or a retired official, of the vast majority, the unquestioning sort. I mean those who, taking life and society, education and empire, as they find them, try their best to do their duty as they understand it, and as it is laid down.

Try it too on one of the rising, clever and successful men, one of those splendid and happy creatures whom it is a real glory of England to produce, and the natural and healthy human admiration for whom is the inmost and organic secret of our world-prestige of our far-extended rule, one of those men who have come easily and creditably through both playing field and cram-shop, who have taken both College cups and honours, and who can now administer the law, or collect taxes, or compile lectures and read them in an Indian College as well as another. Try your average citizen at home, of whatever class and party, who has all his life been thanking God that we are not as these foreigners, as these Frenchmen, as these Irish or at least hearing his neighbour and his paper say so. See whether my point of view to each of those minds, firmly sustained by the point of view of its order, does not necessarily seem extreme, unpractical, if not positively irritating—at best outlandish, indeed literally so. Here (will you not surely be told?) is one of those radicals, not indeed perhaps a little Englishman, but even worse, for he seems to have gone outside England altogether! Internationalism and nonsense! But now ask him—has *he* not in this very tight little island, after the usual years of preliminary contempt and resistance, adopted (and had to adopt) from the foreign devils, photographs and stethoscopes, screw-steamers and ironclads in one generation, or new cycles and automobiles, smokeless powder or submarine boats in another? And in all those particular cases from the French, and that without ceasing to be patriotic: nay, some of them in the very name of country. Then, too, may not I say, had we not better be more in touch with the thought, know more of the educa-

tion, which produces these things? Am I unpatriotic, however unpleasant, if I say of the Conservative or the Liberal M. P. as I meet him, the member of their respective governments as I read him, the Oxford or Cambridge or Edinburgh man as I know him—that in educational matters he does not appear to me to be fully awake in the present world, but for the most part is dozing in a departed one. He is resting on his laurels if you will; but still more in a fool's paradise of material comfort and leading articles—both only varied by occasional starts and panicky nightmares of "foreign competition." This is as yet happily relieved again by banquets, or vicariously by reports of the same; at which Lord Salisbury's sardonic gibe, Mr. Balfour's gentle flippancy, Lord Rosebery's ready wit, and the Duke of Devonshire's solemn nullity, all regularly succeed each other; all leading up to the same practical and intellectual activity on the part of speaker and audience. For do we not learn that "the right honourable gentleman resumed his seat," and that "amid loud and prolonged applause."

Education! Science! Our statesmen on education? on Science? Always read them attentively. It is as good as the Royal Academy banquet, where you can hear them once a year on Art. For they patronise art; at any rate a public speaker has to be ready to dine with strange fellows. As for Belshazzar's dinner-party, it may not be ready in our time. It is all very well to chaff our statesmen, and, of course, it is very easy: everybody does it: a member is used to being "heckled," so he bears you no malice. Perhaps he has his tongue in his cheek already: at least he knows it is his sort of technical education for Parliament, so he is

rather obliged to you than otherwise. To say we have in this or that and the other eminent "Educational Body" as many modern educationists as there are modern military strategists in the Tsung-li-Yamen is admitted to be a mere common-place of statistics; it is not an offence, nor a warning. But to attack in sober earnest (in the business morning, not merely after dinner, as I am afraid we are beginning to do) the most powerful group of trade's unions extant, that of public schools and universities, of clubs and Services; to tell them we are not educating India: that we had better first re-educate ourselves: that whether or no India will in any case mainly have to educate herself, is more serious; and surely heresy almost as bad as Lord Ripon over again—the old foe with a new face.

Yet the higher, that, is the further-sighted patriotism, I claim, is on my side. Let the Indian student come to us by all means; he still needs to; we have many things to teach him, but not, I think, merely to be a more or less faithful or weak reproduction of ourselves, be it at sport or games, as minor functionary, or other convert. Not even if he were to attain or surpass our ideal. Prince Ranjitsinghji is most welcome: he has done us no end of good; he has raised the popular esteem and respect for India in the man in the street more than a new Buddha would have done. We admire him like the Saxon Ivanhoe overthrowing the Norman champions at their own tournaments. Yet Ivanhoe, masquerading in a culture foreign alike to his deepest traditions and his highest aspirations, was, as an acute critic points out, but the first snob after all, a false and misleading example to this people; and the initiator to this very day of what is the mischief of English

society. No, to educate Indians like ourselves till they are our equals or superiors, alike at lessons and play, and then disappoint them as we do, as on present lines we must,—there is the really dangerous policy.

What is the remaining alternative? What but a true, a deep, a living development of Indian culture? Already we see it in progress. Already we sometimes meet the Indian student who is neither turning his back upon his old traditions, nor upon ours; but who feels, even if he does not as yet clearly see, that to utilise his vast ancestral inheritance, his ancient world, to fertilise his lotus-seedlet with our far-blown and strangely active Western pollen, is the way to the new life, the new development India needs. There are many Englishmen who clearly and frankly recognise this. The question is how can we help to bring this about? Without being foolish enough to rush in with a policy, even I, who do not know India, can see that the clues are being found. I have suggested one or two above, notably that of returning to the study of India with the best Western evolutionary geography and anthropology and economics. So the young medical man goes from Edinburgh or London or Paris to the study of Indian diseases. Soon one will interpret a whole multitude of caste observances and symbols in terms of the bacteriology of past times; perhaps throw this or that new light back into European bacteriology, as Calmette brought back to his Pasteur Institute at Lille, to its brewers and bakers, new yeast from old China; making both an industrial and a chemical step in one.

Pass, however, to larger matters. To say that our Western mind is primarily objective, your Eastern one preponderatingly subjective, is a commonplace; yet if so, may we not

profitably follow this like any other commonplace observation into fuller theory, even corresponding practical result? Never mind at first the objections; use them to strengthen the general proposition. For was not your occasional practical genius most commonly a conqueror or a king, who had by the very nature of things "to do and do and never dream?" And our sporadic flower of poetry or dream of metaphysics, is it much more than an occasional Celtic birth-stain upon the strenuous, masterful Viking, a rare weakness in the sturdy Saxon breed?

If this main contrast exists between East and West, what of its details? Enterprise and power, commerce and governments, riches and rule are what mainly interest us, and fill our lives and histories; as your gentle ethics, your vast systems of religion have fascinated you. We want wealth and health; we love good housing, good eating, and life-long assurance of both, and so bring home the gold and the fruits of the earth to brighten our cloudy isle. You seek wealth through poverty, health through simplicity. We seek the mastery of man and beast; you know the spirit that is in them. Little wonder that it is mainly a technical education which interests us; that it is the spiritual education which interests you. In science it is we who have dissected the body, we who have classified and named the plants; but it is amidst the strange symbolism of your temples that has first and most fully been shadowed forth the secret of the growth and renewal of all things living—for us the outward forms of life and death, for you their inner mysteries. We can tell you of evolution in concrete detail, as of horse from clumsy tapir, flower from humble weed; but you caught first the breath of Brahma: the antithesis of anabolism and katabolism with its

physiological details and their outcomes, the mighty rhythm of birth and reproduction, and destruction and rebirth, we have never seen so broadly, stated so vividly as you. The geologic strata we have mapped and their fossils noted down; but the succession of world formations was in your oldest teaching, modern philosophy and ancient science in one, generalising the world-pulses of creation and destruction untold ages before our catastrophists and uniformitarians of yesterday. Ours in a word, is the modern specialist's skill, but yours has been the cosmic sense. With a renewal of your own poetry, your own philosophy, renew your ancient science, infuse and deepen our keener yet less profound Western thought.

The great mechanical industries are what we bring you, the webs of our coarse looms: yours the woven wind, the silks beyond compare, the carpets beyond price. In sculpture and painting we are surely your betters: yet age after age in architecture, save at the very most that of our cathedrals, the honours lie with you. The love of visible beauty, the joyous and healthy lust of the eye, is strong with us, as with our children: the meditation of the mystery of beauty, the vision of the flowering of the universe, lies far deeper in you. Physical science with its weighings and measurings, the precise transformations of chemistry, are still mainly ours. Come and learn them in our laboratories, go home and teach them; but do not fail to regain from your subtle wits of old the speculative insight now so much needed by the physicist to penetrate the Protean mystery he calls matter—to chase and trace through all its varying modes and moods the manifestations of the Eternal Energy.

We have been the better geometers, but was it not from you that the Arabs brought us algebra? Here perhaps we have an ancient

keynote of destiny : we concrete as you abstract, we your masters in the measuring as in the ruling of space : but you our *gurus* in the unriddling, the deciphering of time. I but half told the story above of the rise of the modern German University from French parentage ; the other main line was an Indian one. One of its very greatest elements was the re-discovery of Sanskrit, that Greek of a new, perhaps greater Renaissance, even yet but beginning. Each in turn for thousands of years has stimulated the other : each, in isolation has suffered—we ever hardening into external growths within which the inner life shrivels : you concentrating yourselves into this inner life, till the external is depressed or forgotten. The strength of our youth is ever sallying forth resolved to gain the whole world, sure it will profit him ; the silent depth of yours retires to seek the saving—the finding—of his own soul, which profits him much ; yet each may let the other die. Has not each now in turn to share the conquest of the other's kingdom, each in turn to help to save the other from his supreme danger—himself ! Here is the excuse of our blundering beginnings of mutual education. Yet let us have done with trying to educate Princes into public school boys, Pundits into honours graduates, Babus into cheap clerks, peasants into proletarians. As well make our forest officers into hill-men, our magistrates into fakirs. It is not the best use of each.

Yet we cannot all stay as we are ; we must assimilate each other's culture ? Assuredly, yet let it be to the enrichment, the completion, not the mere uprooting, the mechanical replacement of our own. To the warp of the one let us add the subtle weft of the other. Merely to reject, to break, to undo the long labours, the vast and complex heritage of the

past, racial and individual, as the thoughtless schoolmaster or professor or missionary, whatever his good intentions, has too often done, too often still does, we now see to be little better than paving and facilitating the descent towards social and moral, individual and general ruin. But to preserve and continue the past, to purify and to enrich and combine its social heritage,—is not that the ideal of statesman and of educationist in one ?

To begin carrying this out into practical everyday educational work in India ; that is what your new educational endeavour must do, or fail. Utilise all that is best in Europe : but do so, by help of all that is best of India, not by abandoning it. Your new school of science would thus acquire an individuality and an interest of its own, as indeed here and there an isolated Indian investigator has personally proved already ; and in half a generation it might be your turn to stimulate Western thought, and so richly repay the substantial draft on us with which you will begin. Here would be the real gain to our European learning ; what matters to our Universities a somewhat diminished export of their mandarins and missionaries, if there be an enrichment, a renaissance of your thought, a strengthening reaction upon ours also. In such idea of interchange lies the highest gain, the real world significance of the British-Indian Empire ; not a mere externally imposed order, however just, but the kindling of a new current by the junction of the two remotest poles of the Indo-European family. The old enthusiasm of the great discovery of our common origins in race and language, has indeed ebbed ; it is with this mutual completion of our still too imperfect Indian and European cultures into an Indo-European whole, and no longer merely an Anglo-

Indian and Eurasian one, that our sympathies may again begin to flow. Modernise then your education by a wise use of the great opportunity now before you : Europeanise it in the best sense, and at the highest level : yet look also to orientalising us in the best sense in your turn. As naturally more interested in home and in Europe than in the India I have not yet seen, it is this extension of your best actual and coming thought here, even more than that of ours with you, that I look forward to. For we are coming to need your subjective impulse if possible even more than do you our objective one ; yet for you to help to arouse (as with such new developments I again say you may do in the

next half generation) our universities and cities, our centres of science and education—London, Cambridge, Ebinburgh, and the rest—from their complacent routine, their prosperous fatness, their far-spreading famine of ideas, drought of ideals, would in turn bring another impulse to you.

This is no dream : it is only the way the world goes round : it is the course of things, the unending spiral of evolution. Our Western glories ever rekindle in the East ; your Eastern dawn travels surely towards the West. It may be our hour at present, but yours is coming ; and even more may be hoped from it. "Ex Oriente Lux !" Oriens, fiat Lux!—*The Hindu*.

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A VALEDICTORY ADDRESS.*

GENTLEMEN:

YOU have done me great honour in asking me to address you on this occasion, when, having received your training in an institution which is deservedly of wide repute, you are about to enter the duties of your calling as teachers—which, I take it, is to be your vocation for life, at least in the great majority of cases. On an occasion of this nature, gentlemen, it is proper that you

should invite distinguished educationists to address you words of advice and encouragement on the threshold of a career, which has like most other courses of human life, its brighter and darker lines along the whole spectrum which experience can project. I do not lay claim to be an educationist of any standing, much less to be one of any distinction. I have done a little more than a score of years of educational work both in the tutorial and administrative branches of education in one of the more sequestered spots on this side of India and it is this that made me bold to agree to meet you this evening and offer to you my felicitations upon the completion of the equipment to fit you for the profession which I have always thought it an honour to belong to, through storm and sunshine alike, of which, in my own humble sphere, I have had my share.

Having undertaken the task, I was confronted by a serious difficulty at the outset, namely, what it is that I could say to you. To speak either of the principles or practice of teaching to you, gentlemen, on whom has now been set the seal of the authority of a College in the particular line, of the standing and

* This Address was delivered by Mr. S. Krishnaswami Iyengar, M.A., M.R.A.S., F.R.H.S., University Professor of Indian History and Archaeology, at the Teachers' College, Saidapet.

authority of the Teachers' College, would belong to the category of the ridiculous Shakespeare speaks of. It might be possible to turn on to another theme. You all have heard the dictum, perhaps of experience, that teaching is the noblest of professions but the sorriest of trades. You have heard the first half elaborated on various platforms and by various eminent men. Of the second I would fain not discourage you at the outset of a career. There is time enough to consider the matter, and organisation for pressing your claims upon the attention of the authorities is not lacking.

I should think, however, the risk of repetition is not so very great, if I should point out to you the very grave responsibility that will fall to your share in entering the profession that you have elected to make your life's calling. Education has always been a very serious problem, but the magnitude of it and the difficulties that attend it, have increased manifold with the advance that has been made all round in the last century, from the French Revolution onwards. General as the problem of education as a whole is, the character of the problem alters a great deal according to the circumstances attending the problem in various countries developing along different lines of progress. As one with a certain amount of experience I thought I might usefully invite attention to the problem as it affects us at present. Writing in the June of last year, Prof. Welton has the following in regard to the state of education in England: "We live in an age

of educational unrest. For many years enthusiasts have preached 'education' as a cure for all social ills, and vast sums have been expended on schools. Yet the result is a very general dissatisfaction, and the voice of the doubter becomes more insistent as the demands on his purse increase. Parents are often apathetic, sometimes hostile. Employers of all grades complain that young people come to them from the schools badly trained wanting in initiative and adaptability and in power of serious concentration. Social reformers confess that there is little sign of a general elevation of the national character, even when they do not lament its decadence. Everywhere it is frankly questioned whether the country is getting an adequate return for the money it expends on its schools. Yet, never have teachers, as a body, been more intelligent, more enthusiastic, more advanced."

Those of us that can remember the last decade of educational history here can have no difficulty in understanding this description of the position in England. The existence of a lively dissatisfaction in regard to a matter of vital importance like this is a sign of life. The Universities Commission of 1904 and the various committees and conferences connected with it have had the effect of hauling education in this country over the coals of a careful investigation which has resulted in far-reaching changes that have hardly settled into working order. To mention only a few of the educational questions of the first im-

portance that demand the attention of all engaged in education, we have first of all the question of a vast expansion in the education of the masses, in lieu of a scheme of compulsory education with which the honoured name of the late Mr. Gokhale will for all time be associated. Intimately connected with this is the cultivation of the vernaculars of the country—through which, and through which alone, could any possible scheme of this expansion be carried into effect. These two connected questions open broad vistas of educational discussion and activity of various kinds. Any expansion of education for the masses would be possible only if there be a sufficient supply of teachers available, teachers whose equipment, both in-born and acquired, must be very considerable. This supply of teachers and their efficiency in respect only of width alone—not regarding the depth for the time being—makes the development of the vernaculars absolutely necessary.

In regard to secondary education a step in the right direction has been recognised, sooner than perhaps, is our wont. But the working of a scheme, which removes the dominance of an external examination calls for the display of the best qualities of a teacher both mental and moral to such a large degree that thinking people begin to question the wisdom of the step. The subordination of an examination test to real education at school raises inordinately, and without any gradation whatsoever, the responsibility of the teaching profes-

sion. This responsibility is enhanced by the apathy of the parent and the indifference of the public on the one side, and the mis-judgment of the student on the other.

Higher education coming on the top of all makes demands upon the lower schools which have to send into the portals of the University an unfailing stream of votaries for higher education, the stream sometimes becoming a flood. The secondary teacher, which I take it most of you will be for some time at any rate, will have to be janus-faced, looking up to the University on the one side, and to the various vocations open to the average student upon the other. A careful examination of the whole system will perhaps show a certain want of co-ordination but let us hope it will come sooner or later—sooner rather than later. Here arises the question what is education? Is it to be the training for earning a livelihood, or something higher and better than the teaching of a trade? There is no such separation possible except subjectively, and the attempt to confine it to the material needs alone destroys the very essence of education. To put it in general terms education ought to aim at the ennobling of the life of man and cannot stop short at a training which would merely quicken the intelligence or enhance the skill in the manipulation of mechanical instruments alone, though these must form integral parts of any scheme of education. Gentlemen, the difference in opinion that we meet with in regard to this matter

has been with us since the days of Aristotle more than two thousand years ago. Speaking of an educational system for the State, he has the following observations: "But we must not leave out of sight the nature of the education and the proper manner of imparting it. For at present there is a practical dissension upon this point; people do not agree upon the subjects which the young should learn, whether they take virtue in the abstract or the best life as the end to be sought, and it is uncertain whether education should properly be directed rather to the cultivation of the intellect or the moral discipline of the soul. The question is complicated too, if we look to the actual education of our own day; nobody knows whether the young should be trained in such studies as are merely useful as means of livelihood or in such as tend to the promotion of virtue or in the higher studies, all of which have received a certain number of suffrages. Nor again, if virtue be accepted as the end, is there any agreement as to the means of attaining it; for at the very outset there is a difference of opinion respecting the nature of the virtue that is held in honour and consequently, as might be expected, a disagreement as to the method of training young people in it."

In all this flux, what is the responsibility of the teacher? The teacher is one of three forces that by their combined action, produce the resultant phenomenon, the educated person. The teacher is the active agent, the taught

the material which the agent fashions—not passive pliable material but one actively responding to stimuli, and the environment of the taught which more or less indirectly affects the shaping of the material by the agent. In the present circumstances of the country, the environments, comprising within them the home and the community, are themselves in a somewhat unsettled condition for discharging their normal duty in the education of the young satisfactorily. Education with us then comes to mean very largely the influence of the teacher upon the young mind, now and then turned awry by ill-organised influences of the home, and the somewhat unsettled influences of the society round about. The honour and shame of the education as exhibited in the educated product is naturally enough ascribed to the teacher—a burden he is ill-able to bear under the best of circumstances, which he is hardly justified in accepting if he accept at all. All education does not begin and end with the school room, and the schoolmaster cannot be alone responsible for it. Granting this, the responsibilities of the teacher are still very heavy.

The success of an educationist consists actually in the adequate recognition of the heaviness of this responsibility and the efficient discharge of the duty that, in consequence, devolves upon him. The first essential to the proper performance of this duty is a recognition of the difficulties that have to be faced, and a clear understanding of what is intended

to be done. In other words it is the understanding of the ultimate aim of the educationist, and how his ideal can be best reached. You will find, gentlemen, that there is very rarely a clear notion of what education aims at even among the most enlightened, and on close analysis you will often find that the term 'education' is used in different senses on different occasions, so much so, that the latest book of Prof. Welton, from which I have already quoted, is one entitled "What do we mean by Education?" I shall not attempt to take you through all that the Professor has to say upon this vital question, but will only place before you what he considers education to be. "A true education is concerned with the whole-being; not with body alone nor with soul alone; still less with some one aspect of the spiritual life such as intellect. It is equally concerned with the whole width of life: not with utilitarian occupations alone nor with intellectual or æsthetic pursuits or even with morality of conduct alone. It recognises that man is both an individual responsible for his life and a constituent in a community in relation to which he has both rights and obligations, and that the latter of these is as essential a part of his nature as the former." "The whole of educational effort," according to the Professor can be summed up in the term "incentive"

"I count life just a stuff
To try the soul's strength on, educate the man,"
as the poet Browning says.

Gentlemen, this is a very high

ideal to attain to, and may well seem impossible of achievement; but you must note we are trying to include, under stimulus of special circumstances, what is called religious and moral instruction in the scheme of our schools. It is a thorny question and one ought not lightly to venture into a discussion of it; but Professor Welton's synthesis of educational ideas seems to me to be so appropriate that I make no apology for quoting him again. "In brief and plain terms, man's life is not only material but moral and social, and yet more religious. Consequently, the theory of education we are attempting to set forth is one which assumes that the activities of life should be evaluated according to a special standard which finds the highest good of man in the perfection of his spiritual nature, in nobility of heart and mind, in reverence and awe in the contemplation of the divine perfection, in love of all that is great and good, in hearty acceptance of duty, in strenuous endeavour, in earnest longing for truth, in appreciation of duty, in an estimate of the things of life consistent with the view that what a man is far outweighs what he has, whether of material or of intellectual possessions. It seeks to work out the principles of educational activity which follow from these fundamental conceptions, principles the verification of which must be sought in experience of the actual training of the young." This is a sublime ideal quite worth striving for. You have to look for help in the attainment of this ideal both to the home of the

pupil and the society in which he lives; the ideal, however, must be yours, and you must regard it your duty in thought, word and deed to make others understand this ideal and shape your educational means to the attainment of this end. The discouragement would be great, the dissatisfaction perhaps intense in this utilitarian age, but you must forge ahead, faith within, in the nobility of the mission, and God overhead.

In every attempt you might make to realise this ideal you must bear in mind that the end of education is to form the unformed spirit so that it sees and accepts what is good and true, and rejects the opposite; and all the means you may employ in the education of youth, and all those that may be suggested to you will have to be tested by this standard. The means that you adopt will be effective only when they are close to real life, so that the education that is provided fits one for life both in its material and spiritual aspects.

This brings us to the question of giving the whole of our system of education a distinctly Indian bias. That is, the training given ought to be such as to turn out the educated person to be Indian in spirit, to be Indian in life. I am not speaking here in any sense as a 'nationalist'. What I mean is that the time is come for education to be given a turn so that it may not be dissociated from all that was best in the past. It ought to be such that while we adopt from the West all that may be necessary for the altered conditions in which we find ourselves,

we do not abandon all that was best in the culture of the East. If we do, education can never attain to the ideal set before you above. Let Eastern and Western cultures mingle their floods like the Jumna and the Ganges, and carry the united waters to fertilise the future. All this work lies before you, gentlemen, and your achievements will be in proportion to your efforts. Success or failure, never relax in your efforts in this good cause. 'Effort is man's, result is God's,' says the Gita.

ANGLO-INDIAN POETRY.*

THE subject of Anglo-Indian Poetry is of interest to students of English literature at least in this country, as it refers to a new line of development and to a special contribution which may come to some distinction in the future. Its relation to the evolution of English literature will probably be best understood by its comparison with an aspect of the progress of Latin. It must be patent to every student of the history of Latin literature that its later developments were affected materially by the extensive empire over which the language was spreading itself. The world of Latin literature had to admit within the ranks of its writers, the Romans, who pursued the Muses in the distant provinces and colonies, and even men of foreign birth belonging to their empire, who aspired successfully to literary composition in Latin. It is not too much to say that a similar phenomenon is expressing itself in the history of recent

*A paper read by Principal P. Sesbadri, M.A., at the Senate House, Madras, under the auspices of the Madras Literary Society

English literature. To the future chronicler of the achievements of English literature, the region to be dealt with will not be Great Britain and Ireland merely, as in the past, but all the great empire of which the poet has said with legitimate pride:

Her broad roots coil beneath the sea,
Her branches sweep the world;
Her seeds by careless winds conveyed,
Clothe the remotest strand.

The continent of America has already passed into such recognition with the imperishable work of Longfellow, Lowell and Whitman, and even Australia and South Africa are fast coming into notice, with real, if less valuable literary work. India must take her place too, for the Anglo-Indian and the Indian in the land have been exhibiting some achievements in the line, not negligible in point of merit, and certainly full of hope for the future. And judged by the standards which must be applied to such pioneer work, in a new environment in the case of the Anglo-Indian and in a new medium of expression in the case of the Indian, the situation seems to be one full of promise. It is hoped the following brief survey of the work in the most important department of literature, in poetry which may be regarded as the high-water mark of literary genius, the examination will lend substantial support to this optimistic faith.

II.

Two distinguished Orientalists, Sir William Jones and John Leyden, who consecrated their lives to Eastern culture and laboured strenuously for its resuscitation in English—they had the privilege of starting Anglo-Indian poetry. The work of poetical composition was not the primary vocation of Sir William Jones, he was certainly greater as

a scholar, but no apology is needed for counting him among the poets as some of his verse-translations are really memorable and he is capable of embodying in English the ideas of oriental literature with remarkable ease and naturalness. The various Odes he has written to Hindu Gods form an astonishing example of the real insight a foreigner can have into the mythology and religion of a people by patient study and a sympathetic imagination. The Hindu has before him Indra, and Surya, Lakshmi, and Narayana, Saraswati and Ganga presented with all their hallowed associations in a spirit of poetic fancy, though somewhat sobered by details of special knowledge. It is now Narayana, The spirit of spirits who through every part, Of space extended, and of endless time Beyond the stretch of labouring thoughts sublime,

or the all powerful God of love,

God of the flowery shafts and flowery bow,
Delight of all above and all below

whose power even Lord Krishna himself could not resist. Or it is again the Indian Jupiter who "unmoved, unrival'd and undil'd, reigns with Providence benign," and suggests a more glorious creator to the bard lost in rapturous devotion.

It must be confessed the verse is sometimes marred by an exhibition of the details of scholarship, a defect which seems to have come upon him by too close a study of some of the original models in Sanskrit and a too scrupulous anxiety to be as literal as possible in his treatment of the subject. He is free from such a blemish however in his narrative poems adopted from Sanskrit, for instance, in that episode from the *Mahabharata*, the *Enchanted Fruit* or *The Hindu Wife*. It may be

mentioned in passing that he was the first Englishman to widen the intellectual horizon of the West by his translation of Sanskrit masterpieces like *Sakuntala* and *Hithopadesa*, and by his epoch-making researches, generally in oriental philology and literature.

The friend of Sir Walter Scott, the contributor to the *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*, the bard who sung the Maid of Colonsay, and the scholar who spent years of unremitting toil in the East studying her baffling systems of religion and language, that is the second pioneer, John Leyden. It cannot be denied that he has written some passages of real poetic merit, two of them, *The Ode to an Indian Gold Coin* and the *Mermaid*, are quoted from with approbation, in Chambers' *Cyclopædia of English Literature*. It is interesting to note that in the recent work on *The Romantic Movement*, in which Arthur Symonds draws attention to the various impulses operating on the literary tendencies of the age, the critic takes note of the influence of this poet who "bore a sad and lonely heart to pine on India's shore." A spirit of lofty restraint, dignified melancholy and genuine sincerity of feeling constitute the main features of his work and his achievement is by no means contemptible in vigour of poetic diction and in mastery of general poetic technique. There is a Miltonic touch, in his *Battle of Assaye*, where he describes the tremendous odds against which the English had to contend, the forces being more terrible than those which came on Greece or Macedon,

When they shook the Persian throne,
'Mid the barbaric pomp of Ispahan.

Many an Anglo-Indian toiling in this distant land will enter into deep sympathy with the passionate anguish of his *Ode to an*

Indian Gold Coin and will sorrowfully join the poet in saying:

For thee, for thee, vile yellow slave,
I left a heart that loved me true;
I crossed a tedious ocean wave,
To roam in climes unkind and new;
The cold winds of the stranger blew
Chill on my withered heart.

Another point of interest, at least to students in this country is his effective treatment of local colour and history in his Indian poems as when he bids farewell to the "moat-girt towers of Vellore," or recalls his wanderings in sweet Malabar where "suns shine with softened light through summer showers" or pauses with pleasure on each sweet scene "from Curga's hills to Travancore," or stands aghast on sea-girt Sagur's Isle watching the bloody and cruel rites of Kali worship.

It is a matter of regret that Bishop Heber who could lay claim to undoubted lyric capacity and who has actually to his credit some of the finest hymns in the English language should not have turned oftener than he did for poetic inspiration to Indian life and scenery. His noble career of usefulness was brought to an abrupt and tragic end by his accidental death at Trichinopoly, and it was as great a loss to Anglo-Indian literature as it was to the Christian Church in India. But he has enriched English poetry in India with two contributions of permanent interest, his descriptive account of an evening walk in Bengal with its reproduction of minute details of life and scenery, based on intimate knowledge, and his lines addressed to his wife with its simple and dignified note of sorrow:

If thou wert by my side, my love
How fast would evening fail

In green Bengala's palmy grove,
Listening the nightingale;
If thou my love wert by my side
My babies at my knee,
How gaily would our pinnace glide
O'er Ganga's mimic sea.
But the grim call of duty allows of no
such hesitation:

Then on, then on, where duty leads,
My course be onward still;
O'er broad Hindusthan's sultry mead
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It is interesting to note, the late Mr. Gladstone was so fond of these verses that he translated them into Latin himself.

Room must also be found here for the comparatively obscure name of the Eurasian poet, Henry Derozio the memory of whose lovable personality is still cherished by the people of Bengal. As one of the earliest teachers of English in the country, his was the privilege of opening the treasures of western culture to the first generation of leaders in Bengal who have testified to the great inspiration they received from his teaching. Within his short life of twenty-five years, he won the additional distinction of writing a narrative poem of some tragic power, *The Fakir of Jangheera*, setting forth the pathetic story of a Brahmin widow, Naleeni, saved from destruction in the dark rite of Sati and destined to undergo further intense suffering before coming to her final peace. But he deserves to be remembered for the deep and passionate longing with which he cherished his love for this country. It has actually been suggested that he should be regarded the National Bard of Modern India and the enthusiasm with which he identified himself with his Indian countrymen must serve as an

inspiring lesson to the Eurasian community to-day. Here is his lament for the fallen country which is as much his own as that of the Hindu or the Moslem:

My country, in thy day of glory past,
A beauteous halo circled round thy brow,
And worshipped as a deity thou wast,—
Where is the glory where that rever-

ence now?

The eagle pinion is chained down at
last,

And grovelling in the low dust art thou:
The minstrel hath no wreath to wreath
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Save the sad story of thy misery.

III.

With Sir Edwin Arnold and Rudyard Kipling, we come to poets of a much higher order whose work is so rich and varied that it cannot receive any adequate treatment here. It seems necessary to draw attention to a persistent misinterpretation of Kipling which seems quite widespread in this country. It cannot be denied he is sometimes the boisterous prophet of a pernicious imperialism, too ready to recognise the privileges but not the responsibilities of empire, but his poems reveal an intimate acquaintance with Indian as well as Anglo-Indian life and there are numerous pieces in which the poet is prepared to extend his warm sympathy to aspects of Indian life and civilisation. This element may appear somewhat inconsistent with his unqualified approval of the work of Englishmen in India, but it exists in him as we have seen from his successful attempts to deal with the emotional workings of the Indian mind or describe with enthusiasm the Indian background of his poems. There is some truth in Chesterton's paradoxical

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remark that he has "an Indian element which makes him exquisitely sympathetic with the Indian; a vague Jingo influence which makes him sympathetic with the man that crushes the Indian; a vague journalistic sympathy with the men that misrepresent every thing that has happened to the Indian."

Those who are not tired of speaking of Kipling's want of sympathy with India forget the real affection which the poet has expressed for the land of his birth. In his dedicatory lines to his *Seven Seas*, he is proud of claiming Bombay as his mother:

Surely in toil or fray
Under an alien sky,
Comfort it is to say
Of no mean city am I.
Neither by service nor fee
Come I to mine estate,—
Mother of cities to me,
For I was born in her gate,
Between the palms and the sea,
Where the world-end steamers wait.

They have also done him the great injustice of representing him as a prophet of disunion, anxious to emphasise the differences of the two races that have met in India. His oft quoted couplet, "East is East and West is West and never the twain shall meet" occurs as is not unfortunately generally known, in a passage intended to emphasise the common nature of humanity, for the next lines run:

But there is neither East nor West
Border, nor breed, nor birth
When too strong men stand face to face,
Though they come from the ends of
the earth.

With regard to his poetic qualities it may be enough to say he has great command of

poetic vocabulary, an astonishing fund of energy, a very fine sense of humour though with occasional lapses into violence, an imagination ranging from scene to scene with considerable ease and a commendable freedom of poetic expression. The active side of modern India has found in him a powerful exponent indeed.

There has not been a warmer admirer of Indian life and civilisation and a more sincere friend of the people than Sir Edwin Arnold and with his undoubted capacity as a narrative and lyric poet, his volumes of verse furnish the Indian mind with a world of delight. It is difficult to imagine anything more profound in the nature of realising the religious and philosophical consciousness of another race, than what has been achieved by Sir Edwin Arnold in his Indian poems. It is on a level with the intensity with which Walter Savage Landor, Matthew Arnold and Walter Pater have been able to realise the Hellenic genius, and the Indian will find himself quite at home in his writings. In some places the Hindu reader can fondly imagine him to be one of his own ancient poets come back to life in western garb. Keats is complimented by William Watson on being near allied to Grecian Gods, and the same may be said of Edwin Arnold with regard to the Hindu pantheon.

It is only possible here to glance at the chief productions of the poet. *The Light of Asia* is on a high pedestal by itself interpreting the lotus-eyes lord of the Buddhists to the modern world, in a spirit of deep emotional fervour. The faithfulness with which he has delineated the Indian atmosphere is no mean attraction of the book. The music has a haunting charm and judged even purely as poetry the book deserves a fairly high place.

His translations from the Sanskrit have accomplished the very difficult task of combining faithfulness to the original with intrinsic poetic beauty and their entertaining form need create no suspicion of their accuracy in the reader's mind. There are the episodes from the *Mahabharata* taking us through the love romance of Nala and Damayanti and moving us to tears with the vicissitudes of Savitri, the Indian Liodamia. There are the spiritual ecstasies of Jayadeva's *Gita Govinda*; the pictorial charm of Kalidasa's *Rithu-samhara*; the pregnant wisdom of the *Hilthopa-desa*; the passionate love-lament of the *Chaurapanchasika* and the spiritual sublimities of the Lord's message on the field of Kurukshetra. All ancient Hindu wisdom is there, presented not with the somewhat misleading freedom of Friedrich Rückert's *Brahmin's Wisdom*, but with the faithfulness of a Hindu ascetic who might have suddenly burst into English song. The peaceful serenity of the Indian temple described by him in his *Lotus and Jewel* and the richness and splendour of the Taj by moonlight which forms the background of his *Sadi in the Garden*, seem to typify his poetic genius and accomplishment.

Sufficient attention has not been drawn to the numerous verse-tales of Indian life with which Edwin Arnold has enriched Anglo-Indian literature. The interpreter of the mysteries of the Upanishads is transformed in them to a delightful teller of tales who can keep the reader's attention in keen excitement and entertain it with stories old and new. It is now a tale of Rajput chivalry, of a nurse giving her child's life for that of her royal ward; it is now the singing girl, a mere Nautchnee, saving the Brahmin baby from the very jaws of the tiger; it is again the

Anglo-Indian Judge successfully seeking inspiration in his dilemma from the ordinances of Manu; it is now a tale of heroism from the land of the five rivers, the Hindu princess giving up her life for avenging her husband's imprisonment by a Moslem tyrant; it is now a tragedy of love and sorrow enacted in a humble Behari home;—there is enough of excitement and emotional power in them for any lover of romance, especially to an Indian.

IV.

Sir Alfred Lyall's *Verses in India* bring us to the next important name in the history of Anglo-Indian literature, the poet himself being well-known in two other spheres of activity as an historian and as a distinguished administrator. It is necessary to call attention to the two parts of his poetic work, the historical poems which bring vividly before our imagination the disordered political circumstances of India before the introduction of the peace and settled Government of to-day, and the poems relating to the religious and philosophic consciousness of India which are quite profound and have the energy of the West engrafted on the contemplativeness of the East. Though an administrator of the British Government he entered into the spirit of the rebels who held the Government at bay at the time of the Great Indian Mutiny and wrote of them in his poetry with perfect understanding. Here are the foiled Rajput Rebels with their plaintive note of defeat:

From the banks of Ganges holy,
From the towers of fair Lucknow,
They have driven us surely and slowly
They have crashed us blow on blow.

There is again the old Pindari who can no longer live in India as the old adventurous

time has gone, and he is asked to pay taxes and send his children to school. He would rather "go to some far-off country where Mussulmans still are men, or take to the jungle like Chittu and die in the tiger's den."

But the passages most useful to the Indian are those relating to his analysis of the Oriental and Occidental consciousness. India needs very badly the message from the West:

Your life is sad in the dust and the sun,
You dream and gaze at the brazen sky;
Let the Gods be many, or God be none
One fate stands ever; that all shall pie
* * * *

"Fast and pray," said the sages of Ind;
We know not what penance and prayer
might give,

For visions are fading and words are wind,
The faith we bring you is *Labour and*
Live.

The faith must enter deep into the mind of a nation which has till now looked forward to the contemplative *Sanyasin* like the one sketched in Matthew Arnold's *Southern Night* as the highest ideal in life.

It is with a recollection of the lyric intensity of "burning Sappho," that one comes to the *Garden of Kama* and *Indian Love* by Mrs. Violet Nicholson, or Lawrence Hope. They include some of the most passionate utterances of love in all recent English poetry. Their exquisite music and voluptuous fullness of expression are qualities sufficient by themselves to attract permanent interest; and the sweetness of their Oriental colouring is like that of a land of mirth, music, and moonlight. The lyrics have often an intense tragic depth and the reader can only surrender himself helplessly to their tremendous emotional power. Purists may condemn the somewhat

frank treatment of love in the poems but there is no denying the fact that there are moods and periods of life, when the soul is led into active sympathy with the philosophy of her Rameswaram Temple Girl who pleads for enjoyment before her youth and beauty are gone.

But the passionate heart of the poetess has also found some repose in the East:

Here, where some ruined temple
In solitude decays,
With carven walls still hallowed
With prayers of bygone days,
Here, where the coral outcrops
Make flowers of the sea,
The olden peace yet lingers,
In hushed serenity.

It is a long way from the erotic outpourings of Lawrence Hope to the witty trivialities of the *Lays of Ind*, of Major Yeldahm or Aliph Cheem. But no account of Anglo-Indian poetry can be complete without a reference to his brilliant humorous verse, which derives its interest not from subjects of topical importance, but from the ingrained weaknesses and vanities of society. The satire never passes the bounds of sympathy and the author's spirit is full of uniform kindness, and the characters make a lasting impression on the reader's mind. There is the baughty girl from Home who will not think of marrying any person below the rank of a pucca Judge, and lives to mourn the decision as an old spinster, unwoo'd even by subalterns and petty civil officers; the junior captain Sprint who will go to an uninvited dinner dressed as an Indian waiter and thus win his wager; the Munshi who had arranged for his master's success in the Higher Standard Examinations in the vernacular by tampering with the Sepoy

who was to test his colloquial powers and the master's failure in spite of all that, as he was mistaken by him for another candidate; and the hero of *The Matrimonial Indent*, the member of the Basel Mission who wants a wife for the third time, and finds to his horror that the lady sent by the Home Board has carrot hair, just what he wanted to avoid in a wife.

V.

A writer of somewhat kindred genius is Professor Trego Webb of Bengal, the author of the delightful volume of verse entitled *Indian Lyrics*. His humour is less boisterous than that of Aliph Cheem and there is also a vein of subdued sadness in all his poems. He sees poetry in all classes of Indian servants with whom he has come into contact, and even Kipling the creator of the faithful Ganga Din, the regimental water-carrier has not idealised such a large number of types. It is true Professor Webb finds it very difficult to suppress his tendency to make a spicy insinuation here and there, but the satire is nowhere unkindly. Here is the half-slumbering punka-wallah—alas! he has begun to disappear from our midst—sometimes leaving "the rope to wander where it please" and going to sleep prostrate and motionless. By way of remedy, Professor Webb proposes not a kick as has often been tried with fatal consequences in this country but the sprinkling of water from a pan when "up starteth he and pulleth all he can." There is evidently some romance even in the life of the Ayah—she allows another servant in the family to softly whisper in her ear, "letting the children clamour as they will." The syce understands something of DeQuincey's glory of motion and shouts proudly to gharries of "inferior breed to yield the way, though he

must sometimes rob the horse of its food. If Coleridge wrote an Ode to an ass, Professor Webb will write a sonnet on the dhobi, following "his patient donkey laden sore with heavy-drooping bags." Here is the picture of the Indian coolie coming very near that of the Stoic philosopher, for we are told that "clad in scantiest vesture he learns to flout the rain and sun."

Professor Webb is quite as successful in the sketches of his own society, though the humour there is naturally held in greater restraint and is less cynical. There is the civilian clad in mofussil suit of holland brown and helmet topi, or in the well-fashioned vest and silken hat which mark the graceful inmate of the town, so versatile as to mount with equal ease the bench or the saddle, inspect a jail or a school or uplift a voice of warning on finance or famine. His conclusion has often been approved in a very practical manner by many a lady in this country—"surely one so wise and prosperous were worth a lady's eyes." Professor Webb sees only pathos in the career of the Judge of the High Court—"marching in the van of social rank, he struts his little span, then home returned is lost in shadows dense." He gently glideth from the public eyes, but it must be some consolation that it is "with pension large and knightly honours won." As a grateful counterpoise to "rank civilianism," there is the full-fledged barrister but he has his own problems to face, for "he is oft void, alack, of briefs for daily needs." It must be no small disappointment for College Professors to know that they expound "the mazes of mathematics" and "selected Johnson unto ears that hearing understand not," but for the feeling that the writer's love of satire seem to have got the better of his love of truth

here. The various national types among the Professors are easily recognised. Here the northern Scot with his broad accent and there the son of Erin, but the Wight of German stock has since vanished. The Mem-Sahib is also an object of pity in the *Indian Lyrics*—"thin she is now, alack, and pale of cheer, and much she thinketh on her children dear, who reared by strangers, seem her own no more." The Mem-Sahib's life has its own relieving features: "Light are her household cares, for smoothly tread white-robed domestics, through the matted rooms, each with his several office." Her chief dread, however, is the daily market bill. We are told again that the Eurasian "deems no native a good man and true"; nor can the other on his part "be brought to own his worth." Professor Webb's India is a happy land where unmarried maidens can queen it, for very Phyllis here hath Corydons in plenty at her feet. His picture of the Bengali Babu is the traditional, but unreal one—we are told of the countrymen of Dr. J.C. Bose and Rabindranath Tagore, that they care not for Nature, Time and Space, provided they win a post in Government pay and gain their superior's grace. Not the least attractive of Professor Webb's *Indian Lyrics* are his *Rhymes of the P and O*. The voyage is often lightened by some flirt with results that are sometimes bridal. Maidens are therefore warned that they ought not to sit in corners on ropes in negligent fashion or lean on the ship's side to see the sparkles on the waves for such positions encourage a tender passion.

It is a delightful spirit of buoyant humour that greets us in the work of another poet of the same school, associated by ties of affection with our own city, the *Chutney Lyrics* by

R. C. Caldwell. The volume does not pretend to any high level of metrical excellence, consisting as it does of mere humorous doggerel, but its exhilarating mirth is no small attraction. There is Captain Brown of the Police, threatening to wed a Pariah maid and rear a score of children by way of terrible vengeance on Alice for having jilted him—and then, he would smash the head of his rival, "that goose Jenkins of the Revenue Survey. On a par with Mr. Pickwick's archaeological find, there is the wonderful discovery by the geologist Dr. Saline of odorous petroleum, in the dribblings from a hill-side where bats and doves abode. Who has not laughed over the ducking of Fanny Doss Cursetjee as punishment for his indiscreet behaviour in a convivial mood at the Jollipore Ball, and Sir Gammon Row's diplomatic championship of Brahmin ascendancy in Cocanutcore? If Caldwell's spiteful and merciless analysis of Miss Mantrap's physical imperfections is in bad taste, he has made enough amends for it by his attractive picture at the end, of the domestic felicity which might have been theirs, when with children about the knees *she* would have thought less of dresses and *he* less of rupees. There is also that spicy narrative after the manner of the Spectator's Will Honeycomb of Chutney's amorous adventures with the maids of Bangalore, Madras, Pondicherry and Trichinopoly. He has no scruple in confessing it has been his, to seek rose-lip and lily-cheek.

It is to a more serious poet, a civilian with strong leanings towards religion and philosophy that we come when we begin to examine the *Indian Ballads* of William Waterfield. His subjects are chosen from a

very extensive range of Hindu religion and mythology, from the hymns of the Vedas and the episodes of the Puranas to the Hindu pilgrim of our own day wending his steps towards Haridwar. With all the careful attention paid to his work, Mr. Waterfield reaches no high level of excellence, probably for want of genuine poetic inspiration.

For obvious reasons, it is hardly possible to make this study quite exhaustive but there are some other writers deserving of at least passing notice. There is Professor Griffith with his voluminous, though readable translations from the Sanskrit and H. G. Keene who has sometimes turned his attention from his historical labours to court the Muse of Poetry, in his *Gold-Finder* and *Peepul Leaves*. The latter has a good sonnet on the Taj Mahal at Agra, the monument is "an aspiration fixed, a sigh in stone," and there is the author of *Nemesis*, Mr. John Bruce Norton, a name well-known in Madras.

A very recent Anglo-Indian writer, deserving of some special mention here is Mr. Herbert Sherring, who created some sensation in literary circles five or six years ago by his *Romance of the Twisted Spear*, a volume of thrilling narratives in verse dealing with the Romance of Rajasthan, first familiarised to English readers by the monumental labours of Colonel Todd. In a leading article in the *Contemporary Review* there was then an elaborate appreciation of Mr. Sherring's new blank verse, very much less rigid than the conventional type, but not degenerating into any riotous unconventionality. His latest volume, *Nadir the Persian and Other Verses* sustains his former poetic reputation. We have before us a picture of the Persian Vandal's triumphant march in the East,

towards the Indian cities stored with a rich harvest for the robber, in passages which remind us of some of the stirring lines of *Tamburlaine* where Marlowe pursues the progress of an equally greedy conqueror.

Curiously enough, there are several comic verses in the same volume in defiance of what Corneille and the French classicists would have said in such a matter. There is not the slightest exhibition of the contempt for things Indian which often mars the verse of the Englishman in India. There is the faithful Ganga Din who narrates the story of his dismissal from service for his well-meant intrusion into his master's bed-room; the Afghan packman who tyrannises over a whole Indian village; the old Major who explains his baldness to the Commander-in-Chief as due to several juniors stepping over his head; and Chittu the swine-herd's daughter who cleverly manages to marry the village gallant, Larky Lall—there is matter enough for hours of enjoyment.

VI.

The need for sufficient time to assimilate a foreign language has necessarily made the Indians begin later and for obvious reasons, they are comparatively fewer in number, but they have been able to demonstrate the future possibility on their part also, with no uncertain voice. Such an acknowledged authority in literary matters as Mr. Edmund Gosse has declared that the history of English literature must devote a page to that "exotic blossom of song," Torru Dutt, the authoress of a *Sheaf Gleaned from French Fields*, and the *Legends and Ballads of Hindu Song*. In the latter, which must constitute her main claim to poetic glory, tales of ancient Hindu life and mythology are

narrated in poems alive with profound sympathy and enthusiasm. Hindu ideals of life and character are presented in a spirit of reverence. The cycle of nine ballads and legends strung together in this work must be of considerable interest to every Indian who has any pride in the characters that adorn the mythological gallery bequeathed to him by the ancient bards of his country. There is no necessity to plead for indulgence in the critical estimate of the poetical work of a person like Torru, who like the hero of *In Memoriam*, "perished in the green"—she was twenty-one at her death. She was one of those "inheritors of unfulfilled renown" as Shelley calls them and India will always continue to cherish with "love the memory of this half-blown floweret of song.

But for his absorption in official duties and historical research, the late Mr. Romesh Dutt should have turned out some very valuable work in addition to his able rendering of the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*, and his volume of *Indian Poetry* consisting of beautiful translations from the Sanskrit from the most varied sources. An Italian proverb brands all translators as traitors, but the good compliment may be unhesitatingly bestowed upon Mr. Dutt that he has been able to be quite loyal to the original while making the translation readable and attractive enough to the student of to-day.

It is a delicate task to venture upon any survey of living Indian writers of English verse, but mention must be made of Mrs. Sarojini of Hyderabad, the lyric sweetness of whose verse deserves the highest commendation. *The Golden Threshold* and the *Bird of Time* will deserve a place in the

smallest libraries of Anglo-Indian literature. To her delicate fancy and enviable command of the music of words, she adds her instinctive sympathy with Indian life and surroundings, and as a result we have some exquisite verse which makes a special appeal to the Indian mind. It is now the Indian bride peeping in shyness, through the folds of her silken robes, or Radha the milkmaid hawking the curds, white as the clouds in the sky, in the streets of Mathura; it is now the Rajput maid that would fain bind her lover as a jewelled clasp around her sleeve, or her lover who would have her as the radiant, swift, unconquered sword that swings at his side; the sunset bathes the towers and minarets of Hyderabad in crimson glory; the joyful songs of the palanquin-bearers greet our ears this moment as it floats along gaily like a pearl upon the string; there is the old woman, 'neath the boughs of the banian tree, holding a battered bowl in her tremulous hands and blessing the wayfarer who drops a dole; we are now suddenly introduced into the awe-inspiring presence of the Lord of the Lotus-eye himself and treated to the ecstasies of spiritual glory—the fascination of her verse is quite varied and enthralling. She has achieved her own aim in life:

To priests and to prophets,
The joy of their creeds,
To kings and their cohorts
The glory of deeds;
And peace to the vanquished,
And hope to the strong...
For me, oh, my master,
The rapture of song!

She has it and will impart it to all who have the privilege of reading her works.

The two gifted Ghose brothers of Bengal, must also be mentioned, the Professor at the

Presidency College, Calcutta, who collaborated while at college with Stephen Phillips and Lawrence Binyon and the more gifted leader of the nationalist movement in India, Aurobindo Ghose who has recently produced a brilliant translation of one of the plays of Kalidasa, the *Vikramorvasiya* in poetry full of classic grace and dignity.

Rabindranath Tagore is undoubtedly the greatest of modern Indian poets and his works lend strong support to the future of English poetry in this country. His translations are unfortunately in prose, though of a poetic kind, and one may be allowed to say in spite of the high authority of Sidney, Wordsworth and Shelley, that the highest lyric effects can never be produced in that medium. But what is relevant to our purpose is the essentially poetic nature of his inspiration and his wonderful command of the poetic vocabulary in English. If the *Gitanjali* is too mystic and obscure for the average reader and its appeal cannot be quite universal, the *Gardener* comes home to the hearts of mankind with its passionate utterances of love and sorrow. It may be said of the poet as Watson has said of Wordsworth:

He sang
A lofty song of lowly weal and dole.
Right from the heart, right to the heart
it sprang,

Or from the soul leapt instant to the soul
and in the recent volume of lyrics entitled
the *Crescent Moon* he has sung of the innocence and beauty of childhood with a new and inspiring charm.

VII.

At the end of this brief survey of the poetic achievements of the Indian and Englishmen in this country, it is necessary to draw atten-

tion to another possible source of contribution to Anglo-Indian poetry in the future—from poets in the British Isles themselves. Without any attempt at belittling the perennial poetic interest of Britain at least for her own children, it may be ventured that their muse must soon seek additional material in parts of the British Empire which still have an air of romance for them. The unexplored colonies, and India with its baffling mysteries for the foreigner, must serve as 'fresh woods and pastures new' for the English poet of this century. Several sources of poetic inspiration for the Britisher have dried up during the last four or five centuries. The world of Latin and Greek literature will not bear further exploitation; the mine of Italian literature has been worked by successive generations of poets from Chaucer and Spenser down to Rossetti and Swinburne. France yielded up all her treasures in the eighteenth century; a sufficiently severe strain has been imposed on Germany and the North and the Englishman can no longer turn in these directions for poetic interest. If there may be some indulgence in the spirit of prophecy in such matters it can be pointed out that some of the richest treasures of English literature in the twentieth century are likely to be associated with the aspects of life and scenery in parts of Greater Britain, and India as the representative of a civilisation much more ancient and mysterious than that of the colonies will claim a large share of such attention. The pilgrimage of the coming Childe Harold will include India within its range; a later Browning will long to spend his days in the beautiful valley of Cashmere or on the snow-clad heights of the Himalayas; there will be poems by Englishmen idealising the experiences of a journey in India on the

model of Wordsworth's *Memorials of a Tour in Scotland or in France*; it may even be, that the love romance of the Shelley of the next generation will be with the dark-eyed girl of an Indian home, expressing itself in a new *Epipsychidion*. Almost all aspects of the country are likely to appear transformed in a halo of poetic glory at the hands of English poets.

But the poetic interpretation of India, its life and civilisation could be most effectively discharged only by the Indian as he is the son of the land—he lives, moves, and has his being in her, unlike the foreigner, or even the Anglo-Indian for whom she is only a temporary home. The Anglo-Indian poet praises the scenery and life of the land with material reservations. He always longs for the surroundings of his own foreign home, in obedience to a very laudable instinct of patriotism. The feeling of an exile comes upon him even when he is praising a beautiful landscape of this country. The ceaseless speech of the little, little *koil*, singing on the *Sirish* bough is to Rudyard Kipling only the tolling of the Knell of Exile and he could only exclaim:

I am sick of endless sunshine, sick of
blossom-burdened bough,
Give me back the leafless woodlands.
where the winds of spring-time range;
Give me back one day in England, for
'tis spring in England now.

He could only put this question to the Indian bird:

Can you tell me aught of England, or, of
spring in England now?

Years of stay in this country and lofty service
in the cause of her people did not, naturally,
alter the situation for Bishop Heber.

In his *Evening Walk in Bengal* on the Ganges, he is forced to confess that English fairies never trod so rich a shade, so green a sod. But he is not able to suppress the longing for England's 'good greenwood' for her 'hawthorn glades' and a mere sight of her oaks again.

This is no place to enter into a discussion of the principles involved in the question of the possibility of Indians achieving sufficient mastery in the English language to enable them to indulge successfully in literary composition in English, but the work of the past and the signs of the present do not certainly seem to argue against such a consummation. Will not the sons of India glorify in English verse:

"That sweet Indian land
Whose air is balm; whose ocean spreads
Over coral rocks and amber beds;
Whose mountains pregnant by the beam
Of the warm sun with diamonds teem
Whose rivulets are like rich brides;
Lovely with gold beneath their tides;
Whose sandal groves and bowers of spice
Might be a Peri's Paradise?"

THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCH.

ARCHAEOLOGY IN BURMA.

A GOOD deal of very valuable and very interesting materials have been brought to light by the labours, researches and excavations of Prof. Duroiselle, the Superintendent of Burmese Archaeology, in 1913-14. Burma was, in ancient and mediæval times, very much influenced by Hindu (i.e. Buddhist) civilization and culture, and her history will always possess a singular interest to the student of Indian History. The labours of Prof. Duroiselle have brought to light many memorials of such an Indo-Burmese connection, and it may not be unwelcome to the readers of the *Educational Review* to have a summary of his discoveries and conclusions. When the official year 1913-14 opened, Prof. Duroiselle had four tasks in view—the completion of the architectural survey of the Mandalay Palace, the compilation of a monograph on terracotta plaques with Jātaka scenes from the Petleik pagoda (Pagan), the compilation of a monograph, historical and descriptive, of the Ananda temple, and lastly, the examination and excavation of certain ancient historic sites in Pegu. Of these four objects, Prof. Duroiselle was able to almost accomplish the first and the third. He was not able to complete the second item as 225 out of the 550 representations of Jātaka stories were missing at Petleik and had therefore to be obtained from elsewhere. Of these missing, as many as 110 have already been photographed from the Ananda temple, and so the remaining 115 alone have to be taken and utilized. This will be done in the next few months, so that we shall soon have, in this work, "a unique and most interesting

pictorial illustration of those famous stories," which will be of great use for the study of the origin and evolution of art in Upper Burma. In regard to the last item, Prof. Duroiselle conducted excavations at Yathemayo (*Hermits' city*) in Pegu, but the results were uninteresting, as they did not bring any city to light but only the remains of a big central monastery surrounded by those of a cluster of smaller ones, all built on a mound and surrounded by traces of a brick wall. He however was able to obtain certain interesting finds—as many as 64 glazed and unglazed terracotta plaques at the Shwegugyi and Eissapala (Ajapala) pagodas near by. Besides these, Mr. J. A. Stewart continued some excavations at other sites in the vicinity of Pegu and discovered some more documents of Talaing lithic inscriptions.

THE MANDALAY PALACE.

A few details of each of these will not be without interest. The Mandalay Palace is, in Prof. Duroiselle's opinion, a pan-Asiatic rather than a Burmese structure. Its intrinsic interest, he says, lies "not so much in the fact that it was the residence of the last king of Burma and the scene of some dreadful murders, as in the fact, very important, that it is the sole example of wooden civil architecture now extant in Burma which, in its general plan and design, repeated from century to century with an almost blind adherence to the plan of other palaces that have since long disappeared, reproduces to some extent the style of wooden civil architecture, of ancient India before and after the great Asoka began to replace it by stone buildings." Prof. Duroiselle points out that the principal features of a palace among Asiatic nations were a superstructure of timber on an elevated

masonry basement, the latter often assuming the form of a rectangle, while the city walls were usually square or very nearly square. Even the Palaces of Nineveh were built in this way. "The prototypes of the palace at Mandalay were found scattered over a vast stretch of country, from Patna to Peking; with varying details the palace and the city in the centre of which it stands are but a repetition, in their general plan, of those of Indo-China, Java and China; so that their character is pan-Asiatic rather than Indian or Mongolian. The Mandalay palace then and the city surrounding it with the fortifications protecting them, should enable us somewhat more readily to realize the descriptions which old records have preserved to us of ancient Asiatic palaces and cities."

BUDDHISTIC MONUMENTS IN PEGU.

Prof. Duroiselle's detailed descriptions of the excavations carried out in Pegu are full of historical information. He points out how a large part of the building activities in this region was due to the taste, the piety and the energy of a mediæval king named Dhammaceti (1458-92). He it was that founded the "hermit-city" above-mentioned at Yathemyo, a monument which was intended to celebrate the names of the three Kasyapa brothers and their 1000 followers at Uruvela who were converted by the Buddha. Between 1472 and 1475, this pious monarch sent two embassies, one to Ceylon and the other to Northern India, the former to secure the ordination of a few monks in the Mahāvihāra monastery there, and the latter to examine and report on the nature of the monuments erected over spots sacred to Buddhist history. The results of these two embassies were the institution of an apostolic

see in the Talaing country for the benefit of the Talaing humanity and the erection of a series of monuments near Pegu in imitation of those at Buddha Gaya and elsewhere in Hindusthan. Prof. Duroiselle gives details of the remnants of such buildings, their sculptures, their architectural features, etc. The ruins of the edifices at Shwegugyi, for example, commemorate the greatest event in the career of the Buddha, viz., his attainment of the supreme knowledge under the Bōdhi tree, and had, amidst other things, a representation of the Bōdhi tree, the trunk of which was of iron and the leaves of gold and silver, with the Buddha in the *Bhūmisparsa mudra* on a throne in front, and with huge brazen images of the Earth-Goddess, Indra, Brahma and the vanquished *Māra*. The army of the latter, both in a posture of attack and in that of defeat and flight, is represented by a number of beautiful terracotta plaques, glazed and unglazed. Different sections of this army of evil are represented in different, but equally fantastic, fashions, some with the heads of monkeys, some with those of camels, others with those of horses, and still others with heads of other animals and all sorts of imaginable monsters. The Ajapāla shrine near by was similarly built for commemorating the Buddha's stay under the *Ajapāla* or goat-herd Banyan tree for a space of seven days after his discovery of the supreme wisdom. It was here that the meditating Buddha was subjected to temptation, but in vain, by the three daughters of *Māra* with a view to retrieve their father's shame and defeat, and this incident is represented by a number of plaques, all representing women in various stages of life and in the various forms they assumed,—some as young and mothers of one child, some of women who have borne

twice, some as middle-aged and others as old and decrepit.

Students of the history of Buddhism know what a profound influence the career of the Buddha in his previous birth as King Vessantara has had in the mythology and religious creed of Buddhist peoples, of especially the Burmese people. The *Jātaka* of Vessantara has always been a favourite with them, and naturally we find ample artistic portraiture of its incidents. The excavations at Wingabu, Pegu, for example, have brought to light the ruins of the representations of that remarkable scene in the Vindhyan Mountains (the Burmese Vankapabbata), wherein the contemplative Vessantara gave away in alms his wife and children.

HISTORY OF PEGU.

Even more interesting and instructive are the results of Mr. Stewart's excavations at the ancient site of Pegu. Founded by a king named Thamala in 573 A.D., under fabulous circumstances, Pegu is next mentioned in the reign of Punnārika, a king of the 8th century. King Dhammaceti abandoned it in the 15th century, and a new city, the modern Pegu, was built about 1566 by King Bayin Naung. Pegu has thus a history of 1000 years, but the whole is very obscure. Mr. Stewart is said to have discovered materials which will go very much to dispel this obscurity. Here it may be noted that his finds seem to prove that Burma was influenced both by Vaishnavism and S'aivism. It has been hitherto conceded that the maritime provinces at least were largely subject to Vaishnavite influence, but it has not been known that S'aivism had any influence on Burma. The finding of what appears to be a *yōni*—the thing is doubtful however, and

moreover no *linga* has yet been found—seems to favour the theory of the existence of phallic worship. Another inference from Mr. Stewart's finds is that the influences of Cambodia and Siam also were felt by ancient Burma, as seen in the presence in Pegu of the peculiarly Cambodian figures of four Buddhas back to back and in Siamese inscriptions beneath some images. As regards inscriptions, Stewart found nine of them, one dating from the 13th century, one from the 14th, 3 from the 15th, and the rest later. The inscription of the 14th century is in the name of King Rājādhiraj.

OTHER ANCIENT MONUMENTS.

Amidst the monuments recommended for conservation during the year are an East India Factory at Haingyi (Negrais) Island, the remnants of the S'arabha gate in the old city wall at Pagan, and a number of clay votive tablets of great historical importance in the Thagya pagoda at Thaton. The Haingyi factory is a very interesting monument, one of the rare memorials of early British commercial intercourse in Lower Burma, built in 1753 and brought to some notoriety six years later by the murder of several Englishmen within its premises. The S'arabha gate, the only one remaining of the traditional twelve gates of city, carries us to the middle of the 9th century A.D. and is important as "one of the authenticated oldest remains of brickwork in that city." The Thagya pagoda at Thaton is, as Mr. Duroiselle points out, one of the oldest monuments in the lower country and "very probably anti-dated those at Pagan." On the terraces of this pagoda Mr. Duroiselle found a number of baked clay votive tablets which bear inscriptions in the script used in Northern India in the early

11th and 12th centuries A.D., and he took steps to conserve them. Similar, though not such extensive clay votive tablets, with effigies of the Buddha and inscriptions of the 11th century North-Indian character were discovered at Twangte, which was a Hindu settlement in the early centuries of the Christian era. Amongst the other monuments conserved and restored must be mentioned the Upāli ordination hall (Upāli Thein), the Seinnyet Ama and the Patothamya temples at Pagan, the stone sculptures at the Kyaukka Thein, at Hmawza (old Prome), and the lithic inscriptions collected at Sagaing. The Upāli Thein which was constructed by a king named Anawrta (1044—77 A.D.) in the 11th century and consecrated by 4 monks from Ceylon with Upali Thera at their head, is of interest on account of the frescoes of its interior wall and ceiling. The Seinnyet temple, a square structure surmounted by a S'ikhara resting on three terraces, erected in the 10th century A.D. was repaired. The Patothamya temple is also a structure of early 10th century and "is a square with a projecting portico on the East face, surmounted by three terraces and the usual S'ikhara. As its very name indicates, it was the prototype of a long series of temples at Pagan. The terraces were in a rather bad state; they were repaired and made water-tight." With regard to the sculptures of the Kyaukka Thein monastery at Old Prome, all that need be mentioned here is that measures have been taken to erect sheds over them as they are important for their inscriptions in the archaic *Pyu* characters. A shed was similarly erected for the shelter of the 45 inscriptional stones which have been thus far described at Saigong, stones which contain highly important his-

torical data ranging from 1300 to 1784 A.D. Perhaps the most singular and interesting monument which has been selected for conservation is an only Hindu temple in the heart of the once Buddhistic metropolis (Pagan). It is called the *Nathlaung-Kyaung* and dedicated to Vishnu. Attributed by tradition to the 9th century and by the archaeologist to some time between the 11th and 13th centuries, it affords an instance of the invasion of Hinduism right into the heart of a Buddhistic country. Its builder is not known, but "we know by a Tamil inscription found at Pagan, and dating from the 13th century, that a Vaishnava saint, a native of Malabar, built a *mandapa* in a temple of Vishnu, the Tamil name of which means: the Vishnu temple of those coming from various countries. It is not certain whether this is the *Nathlaung-Kyaung*, but as no mention of any other Vishnuvite temple is found anywhere else, it is not unreasonable to identify this temple with the *Nathlaung-Kyaung*" (p. 21). The sculptures of the various avatars, among whom the Buddha is included, are unfortunately not in a sound condition.

SUBJECTS FOR RESEARCH.

It will be seen from the above facts that a good deal of invaluable research is being done in Burma, which cannot but result in the elucidation of a substantial portion of her history. Already materials in plenty have been gathered for a scientific and methodical study of Burmese architecture from its beginnings down to the 14th century, when the defeat of the Burmese armies at the hands of the Tartars put a premature end to it. How far the Burmese temples and pagodas are the outcome of the influences of North-East India, and how far they have been subjected

to the Nepalese, Chinese, Tibetan and Cambodian ideals, will necessarily form a prominent part of such a study. Similarly, a large collection of terracotta bas-reliefs, stone-sculpture and fresco painting, makes a systematic study of Burmese iconography and religious art possible. Why is it that the Burmese sculpture is not so skilful as the Indian, though it is largely Indian in its origin? How is it that the Burmese paintings, though, as Duroiselle says, 'lineal descendants of the Ajanta paintings', are yet inferior to the latter in technique and execution? These questions will have, among other similar ones, to be answered. Then again the numerous Talaing inscriptions have to be edited and translated. The Talaings, "possessed an alphabet of their own, derived from an Indian one, long before the Burmese made use of letters to write in the vulgar tongue" (p. 18). Is it a fact that the *Burmese* had no national written literature before the 11th century? "It is a remarkable fact," says Duroiselle, "that, as yet, no inscription in Burmese antedating the year 1058 A.D. has been found at Pagan or elsewhere, and this seems to militate in favour of the theory that, although the Burmese were acquainted with Indian letters previous to that time, they had before the storming of Thaton (1057 A.D.) no alphabet adapted to their own language, and consequently no national written literature. New discoveries may alter this theory, but the actual epigraphical evidence corroborates it." The appointment of a special epigraphist for Burma will, it can hardly be doubted, give a great stimulus for the elucidation of questions like these. Already a glimpse of what is likely to follow is afforded by the inferences of Mr. Blagden from the *Pyu* inscriptions. These inscriptions

were originally considered to be in old Tibetan, then in old Yunnan; but the genius of Blagden has discovered that their true origin was in the South Indian alphabet and that their language belongs to the Tibeto-Burman family. A close and careful study of a few of them has already resulted in the discovery of a few early kings,—e.g., Sūryavikrama (673—88 A.D.), Harivikrama (695 A.D.), Sihavikrama (718 A.D.)—the first definite dates for the history of Burma.

THE ZOROASTRIAN PERIOD OF INDIAN HISTORY.

The most important and original contribution in the January No. of the *Royal Asiatic Society Journal* is one by D. B. Spooner on a period of Indian History which, on account of the large activity of Persian influences therein, he calls *Zoroastrian*. As a result of the costly and extensive excavations which, thanks to the munificence of Mr. Ratan Tata and the interest of Dr. Marshall, have been carried out at Pataliputra, the site of As'oka's classic capital, Dr. Spooner who has been in charge of these operations has discovered the existence of a vast pillared hall, "presumably square, with stone columns arranged in square bays over the entire area, placed at distances of 15 feet or 10 Mauryan cubits, each from each." Dr. Spooner rightly calls this a unique and interesting discovery; for while halls of this nature, that is, halls with multiple rows of pillars in square bays are commonplaces in modern Indian architecture, they have not been hitherto found among the architectural monuments of the ancient period. The discovery has, in other words, disclosed the existence of a building unparalleled in ancient India. Dr. Spooner's contention is that this unique building was constructed under Persian influence; because

the hall, in its design and its details, is evidently Persian. It has been known for years, he points out, "that Asōka's edicts echo the great Darius's, that the style of his cultured capitals originated in Persepolis, and it had been inferred, by Dr. Marshall in particular from the Sarnath capital, that Mauryan stone-work had been wrought by foreign masons;" and Dr. Spooner now considers that 'the clearly un-Indian' building he has discovered is also Persian. To prove his contention he enters into an elaborate comparison between the throne-room or hall of 100 columns at Persepolis and the Mauryan hall. The mason's mark was similar, if not identical in both. The columns were ten cubits apart in both, and had the same polish. No capitals have been discovered in Patna to allow a comparison in that respect, but the pedestals of the Patna hall were of Persepolitan type. Above all, the Patna excavations "shew us not only that our original pillared hall is strongly reminiscent of the Persian throne-room even in matters of detail, but that its surroundings also showed a parallelism to the Achæmenian site which could not possibly be explained except by the assumption that the one reflected the other definitely." That is, both the Persian throne-hall and the Patna hall were not isolated edifices, but the centres of a number of edifices, the situation of which had a very close resemblance. Such a resemblance is either "the most extraordinary chapter of accidents known to archæology" or the Indian edifice was "a conscious Mauryan copy of Persepolis." Sixteen years back, Mr. Kennedy had expressed a similar opinion and asserted, in respect of details, the dependence of Indian architecture on the Assyrian through Persepolis, Prof.

Grunwedel had come to a similar conclusion after a meagre observation of the Aśōkan capitals, the Persepolitan pilasters and the nature of the Aśōkan inscriptions themselves. Nevertheless, their conclusions were not declared with such emphasis as to command a general acceptance. Prof. Grunwedel, in fact, went so far as to say that the Persian style was represented by such a small number of monuments that a dogmatic pronouncement of judgment was almost impossible.

Now Dr. Spooner takes up the question and emphasises what had been asserted in a hesitating manner by Prof. Grunwedel. His arguments are: First, the fewness of monuments is no argument to prove the absence of influence. Darius's hold over the province of India resulted in the introduction of the Kharoshthi system of writing by his officers. Aśōka's edicts, again, echo Darius's in their style, their substance, and their very script, while his columns and his capitals were, in Dr. Marshall's opinion, wrought by Greco-Persian masons. The Mathura lion capital was, in Dr. Thomas' view, shaped after the facade of Darius's tomb. Above all, says Spooner, there is a body of literature to prove the action of Persian influences. The description which Megasthenes gives of the Indian Court is entirely applicable to the Persian Court. His picture of Chandragupta's court is "Achæmenian in every line and tint,...in public works, in ceremonial, in penal institutions, in every thing." At a court "where the Indian monarch washed his royal hair according to the Persian calendar, and built the royal highway from his palace in imitation of Darius's, his palaces themselves may very well have been as imitative as the royal road." And the Persian culture thus intro-

duced, continued after Chandragupta, though as time went on, it was combined more and more* with Greek and Bactrian influences. Dr. Spooner here refers to the passages of Fa Hien and Hsuen Thsang in regard to certain ancient edifices and endeavours to prove that they were pre-Aśōkan and shewed ample Persian influence.

The most interesting part of the article, however, is where Dr. Spooner goes on to add evidences from Indian literary sources to prove the existence of Persian buildings in this period. The *Mahābhārata* refers to architecture in metal and stone, and attributes the more important buildings to the Asura Maya, who is said to have constructed, by his magic power, huge buildings, immense moated palaces with arches, thousand-columned roofs, etc. Now, Dr. Spooner's contention is that this *Asura Maya* is really the Persian *Ahura Mazda*. "What I do mean is, that when the use of dressed stone for building purposes was first introduced into India by the Mauryas, through the instrumentality of imported Persian masons, these builders, being of Zoroastrian faith and accustomed to ascribe their works to the grace of Ahura Mazda, made this name familiar to the Indian population in this connection specifically. As these buildings were, to the Indian mind, of supernatural grace and elegance, there gradually grew up the belief that Ahura Mazda was the actual builder of them." And *Ahura Mazda* became corrupted and Indian-

* Dr. Spooner notes that the Greek influence in Chandragupta's Court must have been very little as Megasthenese, who would have been proud to dwell on it, does not refer to it at all. Greek influences came only later on and by Aśōka's reign made themselves largely felt. In Chandragupta's time Persian influence was all in all. p. 73.

ised into Asura Maya. It is true that the Persian Ahura Mazda was never the actual builder; but it is equally probable that, on account of the later decadence of the Persian style, the Hindus came to attach so much admiration to it that they considered it to be the work of Maya (Mazda) himself, thus introducing the idea of supernaturalism! It is also true that the Persian Ahura Mazda is a great God, the Great Spirit and Creator; but it is not improbable that the Hindus limited him to architecture in the popular mind.

But, even granting that Maya is a derivative of Mazda, how can we show that the buildings which Maya is said to have constructed in *Mahābhārata* are identical with the Mauryan buildings? Here Dr. Spooner points out that Maya's buildings as described in the *Mahābhārata* bear a close resemblance to the Mauryan buildings as described by Mr. Vincent Smith on the authority of contemporary or later writers. Pavilions for pleasure, delightful gardens, picturesque ponds, freely-moving chariots, high rampart walls, caves* designed to cause every comfort, and other delights which Maya boasts to have constructed seem, in Dr. Spooner's opinion, to be the echoes of the gardens, and other delights of Chandragupta's city as described by Megasthenese and others. The great scholar then examines certain passages of the *Mahābhārata* and contends that the *abhiprāyas* referred to in the poem as having protected and upheld palatial halls were in reality sculptural representations "of divine and semi-divine beings, so sculptured and disposed as to impress the beholder as actually supporting, on their upstretched arms, the vari-

* The Mauryan caves in the Barabar hills (near Gaya) betray familiarity with the royal rock-cut tombs of Achæmenian Persia,—says Dr. Marshall

ous floors of the Sabha." And this was the most striking and beautiful feature of Darius's throne-hall. The buildings of the Mahabharata are, then, the buildings of an age of Persian influence, and Asura Maya is a reflex of the great Ahura Mazda. An incidental inference from this is that sculptural representations, divine, semi-divine and human, existed in India even before the rise of the Gandhara school.

V. RANGACHARIAR.

TEACHERS WHO FAIL.

THE LUKEWARM TEACHER.

THIS teacher lacks the first essential of success, whole-hearted, enthusiastic devotion to his work. If the teacher's work is to inspire his scholars, to kindle in their hearts a burning zeal for learning, he must be all on fire himself, filled with a consuming desire to make his work effective, unless a teacher's heart is in his work he cannot hope to succeed. A cold, lifeless teacher, doing only routine work, no matter how excellent his method may be, must produce a cold, lifeless class. Ardour comes before order, or rather will help to produce order for the teacher.

THE NEAR-SIGHTED TEACHER.

This teacher's motto is, "Sufficient for the day is the lesson thereof." If only he can manage to get through his lesson with some degree of comfort he is satisfied. He lacks vision; he neither looks before nor after. He never tries to fathom the forces which have gone to make the character of each individual scholar, nor does he look on into the future and see the possibilities which are on ahead. The counteracting of hereditary

tendencies, the formation of right habits, the development of character, these do not come within his range of vision. He hammers away at the facts in to-day's lesson, and if he can so drive them home that the scholars can more or less readily repeat them, he is contented. He forgets that the true purpose of all teaching is the training of character and that the feelings and the will are even more important than the intellect. To love a subject is better than to know it. Knowledge without feeling is dead. Such a teacher regards his dozen scholars as one multiplied by twelve, i.e., he looks at them and teaches them as a mass than as separate individuals, each requiring special treatment.

THE LAME TEACHER.

Not only are some teachers short-sighted but lame as well, the latter infirmity being generally due to the former. Such a teacher's work begins and ends with his lesson. He walks regularly to his class every day at 10, but never walks after them or with them on any day in the week. He never visits their homes, does not know their parents, so fails to secure their co-operation. The true teacher does not forget the social side of his office, but goes after them and enter into the daily life of the individual members of his class. Unless a teacher will find time and take trouble to study his scholars, their homes, their hobbies, their difficulties, he cannot hope for the best results. Unpunctuality, irregularity, disorder may often be overcome by methodical visiting of the right sort, for the teacher may come to be regarded as a friend, and, therefore his wishes must be respected and his feelings considered. This outside work of the school often makes all the difference between success and failure, and, therefore, every teacher

should make an effort to visit his own scholars. If there be absolutely no time available on a week-day, then try holiday visiting.

THE ONE-SIDED TEACHER.

This teacher falls into the most common mistake of confusing "telling" with "teaching." He prepares the subject matter of his lesson very thoroughly, tries to find out all that is possible on the subject, and comes to his class loaded with information, which he begins to unload on to his more or less passive scholars. He regards his scholars as so many tea-cups which it is his duty to fill, and so he pours out his knowledge in a never-ending stream of words, and is surprised when they are questioned to find how little they have taken in. The class may be impressed by his eloquence, but his words going in at one ear and out at the other make no lasting impression on the scholar's mind, even when they are understood. The knowledge of a lesson is not really our scholars' until they have reproduced it. They do not grasp it with a clear and lasting apprehension until they have expressed it in language. This is one of the laws of mental action. The teacher who wishes to succeed will not fail to make full use of questioning. He will question the lesson in and question it out. He will secure the active co-operation of his class. Just as it is impossible to fill a corked-up bottle, so is it to teach a passive and silent class. Education means *drawing out*, not *pumping in*. If the scholars are to be anything more than "listening beings," if they are to take a real share in the lesson, then the teacher must study and practise the art of questioning, one of the most useful tools in the teacher's tool-bucket.

THE UNSYMPATHETIC TEACHER.

This teacher is too grown-up. He forgets that he was once a boy and the ways in which boys look at things. He never puts himself in the place of his scholars and forgets the meagre, barren life some of them have to live. He makes no allowance for animal spirits and is apt to regard restlessness and activity as wickedness, and mischief as deliberate sin. Knowledge of child-nature, sympathy with children's difficulties and troubles, hopes and fears is the surest way to reach their hearts. He who wins the affection of his class will succeed as a teacher. Without loving sympathy there can be no true teaching. Knowledge of the lesson and the method of presenting it are important, but more important still is the power to call out the children's best efforts, to carry them along with you, to inspire them with a love for you and your teaching, and this depends upon discerning sympathy; with all thy getting, get sympathy, for it will put life into your teaching.

THE EXPRESS TEACHER.

He is always in a hurry wherever he may be and stands for the embodiment of perpetual motion. Meditation and reflection are strangers to him. He rushes to school, rushes through his lesson and succeeds in keeping his class in a state of ferment during the whole of the session. His voice is generally high-pitched and loud and very disturbing to other teachers. How they wish he could be restrained, or at least given a room to himself outside the main-building? Such a teacher is often most forgetful. When the lesson begins he finds he has forgotten his illustrations or references; when the registers are to be marked he has forgotten his pencil. He is quick to promise but slow in fulfilment; his scholars have

been disappointed so often that they cannot depend upon him. He forgets to hear their repetition or to set it, and so the memory work is neglected. Could he but see himself as others see him, he would realise that hurry and rush are fatal to success, that peace and methodical quietness are essential to order and efficiency in teaching.

THE STEAM-BRAKE TEACHER.

This teacher prides himself on going slowly. He is a staunch conservative in everything. He abhors change and believes it impossible to improve on the methods of his ancestors. His movements are so deliberate and his methods so uniform that his teaching has got into a groove. Change and variety are hateful to him, and his monotony and unvarying sameness tend to bore his scholars and force them into activity and playfulness as a natural protest to his dullness. He opposes all new methods, graded lessons, use of concrete illustrations, expression, work, rearrangement of classes, any modification of the dull routine of the school. If he were to yield to modern educational methods he believes the intellectual power of the school would be undermined and its influence diminished. What a mistake he is making! School teachers must be living teachers, and life means change and variety and development. Immobility, rigidity, inflexibility are signs of death. There can be no greater condemnation of a teacher than to say he is mechanical, conventional, wooden, lacking in life and power. The old-fashioned teacher would do well to remember that to-day there are no old-fashioned children and that up-to-date scholars demand up-to-date teachers.

THE INTERMITTENT TEACHERS.

This teacher reminds one of the geysers, some of which throw up columns of water to

a very great height and are most wonderful to behold, but they are intermittent. So the intermittent teacher may be very enthusiastic occasionally. After attending some lecture he will venture on a new method, and perchance use a black-board and bring pictures and models, and the keenness of his class is the envy and wonder of the school. But the enthusiasm evaporates and he drops back into his old groove, and dullness and boredom are the result. The intermittent teacher also is one who requires a good many "week-ends," his class is suddenly without a teacher, and the Headmaster never quite knows when he will be present—intermittent, unreliable, unsuccessful. The true teacher, the plodding old faithful, who is always in his place and can be relied upon day after day, succeeds where the other fails, and the example of his perseverance, faithfulness and devotion exerts a powerful influence for good over his class and throughout the school.

B. K. MUKHERJI.

GARDEN WORK IN SCHOOLS.

FEW schools now-a-days possess or recognise the importance of an item in the educational necessities of every school—the school garden—for the practical education of the pupils therein. This neglect, studious as it seems, of such an important but missing adjunct is traceable to many causes of which the following are the chief; the absence of a subject like Nature Study which involves necessarily the use of the school garden and other allied accompaniments such as school museum, terrarium, aquarium, etc., in the curriculum of studies; the usual but unhealthy prejudice against any innovation intended for improvement and the want of encouragement

given to those who would take up the work with ease and interest. The result of so many causes in operation will be that school garden, if introduced now, will have the appearance more of a luxury than an educational necessity.

The above state of affairs permits of justification, if the subject of Nature Study is not included in the curriculum of studies. But if a better curriculum gives the due rank and importance to the subject along with the other compulsory subjects like the Elementary Mathematics, Vernacular Composition, English, etc., due accompaniments to the teaching of that subject must exist; otherwise it will be receiving a mock, in sincere regard both at the hands of schools and educational authorities. It is, of course, impossible in a few pages to do more than indicate briefly what the accompaniments are and mean. The school museum, which is one of them, consists of collections of all kinds so arranged that students and teachers may resort to them with great advantage. The details of its construction will outstep the limits of this article. Aquarium is a convenient place where the aquatic creatures can be watched and studied more easily than in their natural homes. The terrarium consisting usually of box with gauge or perforated zinc covers, glass being used in at least two of the sides, is a device for the study of terrestrial life. This arrangement greatly facilitates the careful study of the larvæ and pupæ. Lastly the school garden, which forms the theme of this article, will merit a detailed account in the following lines.

The choice of a suitable site for the purpose of a garden should be governed by the considerations of the level of the ground, its slope

and depth and water convenience. The existence of small trees outside the garden throwing light shade inside it will only be too welcome especially in a hot summer season. Attached to the garden a tool house should exist for containing the garden requisites such as spades, sprinklers, tin-cans for bringing water, shears, baskets for carrying manure and flowerpots set apart for special use. The sole charge of the above may be safely left in the hands of a student of the highest class in the school whom the teacher may find to possess a special taste for gardening work. His business is to open the tool-house just after school hours and help his school-mates in their work in the garden. Sometimes he may be used for any special work devised by the teacher.

The site and the tool-house being ready, the teacher should next think of the distribution into plots for students and of the plants to be introduced into the garden. Reserving some big plots for purposes of nurseries and for the conjoint work of both teachers and students, the work of distribution must be so done that each plot is under the charge of one senior pupil and one junior pupil. Regarding the plants to be raised in the garden, attention should be brought to the value of raising those suitable and common to the locality. This does not exclude fully the use of beautifully-coloured flowering plants which would create and develop the æsthetic taste of the students. Prominence must be given to the positions of plots intended for such flowering plants as garden zinnia, marigold, cosmos, balsam and sunflower, the seeds of which are easily and cheaply obtained. The system of beginning a garden with special plots as nurseries keeps and maintains a check on the

wastage of the seeds left in the hands of inexperienced and new students. At the corners of the garden, one or two pits may be dug, leaves may be buried therein and used after some time as vegetable moulds.

The process of watering being an important item, deserves special notice. Water may be stored in a reservoir kept for the purpose by a paid cooly every day. The students should take water from this reservoir and moisten their plots. The work of storing water by the students will unfit them for any intellectual work to be done afterwards. Care should be taken that the cooly does not water the plants which are intended to be taken care of by the students; otherwise it will tend to shake off the responsibility each bears and step by step lead to his absenting himself from the garden.

Every thing being ready for the commencement of regular work, the teacher should enforce the use of diaries for the students to record and draw therein the development of their respective plants. At the outset general hints as to the correct methods of observation and recording need to be given. The diaries should be looked into, corrected and valued at proper stages; otherwise indifference and carelessness on the part of the pupils are sure to follow in the wake of any negligence on the side of the teacher. Garden work can be turned to good account if the teacher makes constant reference to the student's work in the garden and garden plants. Such an out-door laboratory may give splendid opportunities for the teacher to experiment upon and understand the manifold value of many things. Such an attempt, besides educating the teacher, may be productive of much public good to the professional

agriculturists. The length of the time at which teacher might go to the garden, and supervise, amidst other things, the work of his boys, may be short just after school hours. Such activities on the side of the teacher shall have the special attentions of the school and inspecting authorities.

The following part of this essay deals with the school garden from the point of view of special good to the students. By the constant watching, recording and drawing of the plants of his plot, the student is started on the way to self-observations which should mark a successful teaching. "The principle of *self-activity*, the watchword of all reform in modern education must be involved in his observations." The activity of a student's mind suffers a check if it is made merely *receptive*. The front page of the student's diary should contain the plan of the garden drawn to scale and the positions of the plants in a particular plot should be fixed with reference to a North and South line in that plot. Every evening after school hours students should go to the garden for watering and observing their plants, and the observations should be recorded without loss of time.

A well-written diary will have its own treasures to unfold. The time used by the seed to become a seedling, the conditions of germination, the rate of growth of plants, their leaf-and-flower-arrangements would find a mention there. Further, general hints treating about the inter-dependence of plants and animals, the principles of plant ecology and such like things would have been on record. Look at that diary and you see how in that little book he has built up in his humble language the life-history of the plant which he tended from its seedhood!

The exclusion of the anatomical side of plant life should mark the initial stages of the learning and teaching of Nature Study. So the attention of the young learners should be wholly upon the external characters and appearance of things. No less an authority than Ruskin has supported the studious exclusion of Anatomy in the early stages of a school boy's learning. He says in his Lectures on Art "what we specially need at present for educational purposes is to know not the anatomy of plants but their biography. We want them drawn from youth to age, from bud to fruit." So the boy's diary may not be found fault with as not containing anything relating to the internal structure of plants.

The school garden, amidst other things, gives wide scope for what are called 'discovery lessons' on the part of the pupils. These are substituted for the old 'object lessons' in which things were treated more as "objects" than as living things. The spirit of "livingness" wanting in the object lessons is intended to be supplied by the present 'discovery lessons.' Add to the above continuity, connectedness and self-activity which are to co-exist in the correct methods of imparting lessons. If the first day's lesson is on seed, the second day's lesson must continue it to the seedling stage which again must form the foundation upon which the succeeding lesson should be based. This is continuity and serves to put a stop to the common abrupt way of beginning new lessons which have nothing to do with the previous ones. Since the memory images of the student mind are like to fade away quickly, new lessons should contain something which must lead the students to refer to, compare with and verify the facts of old lessons, so that the hold of

the latter on their memory might be strengthened. This is connectedness. About self-activity mention has already been made. The school garden will serve as a good medium for the teacher to teach Nature Study on the above lines

I cannot give a more suitable conclusion to this essay than by quoting the words of an experienced teacher and author: "The business of the teacher consists in contriving favourable conditions" (such as the school garden, out-door studies, etc.), "under which Nature and child may be in contact, and in sharing with the child in the scrutiny of what Nature reveals. For the hand-book of prepared lessons, the teacher must substitute the method which he himself enjoins on the child—" Watch."

K. RAMACHANDRACHAR.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EXCURSIONS.

Up, up, my friend and quit your books;
Or surely you'll grow double:
Up, up, my friend, and clear your looks;
Why all this toil and trouble?

Excursions are not given the importance they deserve.—The importance of School Excursions is always being pointed out by various educationists. In spite of the fact that they advocate for them with much force and vigour they are not—as they should be—yet viewed as forming part of the regular curriculum of every school. I am of opinion that the school authorities will not be doing any thing bad—nay will be doing only their duty more successfully—if they devote greater attention to School Excursions than to the regular, mechanical, lifeless class lessons and spend greater part of the school year in the former than in the latter.

The reason for the above.—Probably the chief reason for the inactivity of the school authorities in this direction lies in the fact that they themselves in their school and college career have not attended any excursion party and thus come to realise the vital importance of these towards the educating of our children. Various as are the benefits arising from having school excursions being pointed out to us by those who strongly advocate for them they are not brought so clearly home in the minds of one unless one has attended oneself an excursion party. Having been fortunate enough to have been one of an excursion party I beg to place before the reader the various advantages arising from these.*

Why should we have excursion? More practical knowledge is required.—"Education consists" says Prof. James "in the organising of resources in the human being, of powers of conduct which shall fit him to his social and physical world." To develop all the powers in the child which shall make him live a successful member of society we have introduced in the school the study of the languages, History, Mathematics, Geography, Sciences and Drawing. But these subjects taught merely within the school, it has been found, are not quite enough to make the child live a successful life in this practical world. There are many who were specially brilliant in their school career and failed miserably in life. On the other hand we see a good number of men who had the major portion of their teacher's punishments and rebukes in their school career living very successfully in the

* The students of the Training College, Trivandrum, under-graduates and graduates with some of the lecturers had been on an excursion to Thiruvettar, Kulasekaram, Pechippara and other places.

world. To make myself clear I will give a short story which though sufficiently stale can illustrate my point well. A company of four persons: one skilled in music, another in logic, the third in grammar and the fourth in astrology, went to a king to exhibit their proficiency in the various arts and thus get some encouragement in the shape of money. The king was inclined to dismiss them with rich presents. The minister dissuaded him from doing so, gave them some rice and money, told them to go to the choultry prepare their food, take their meals and return to the palace in the evening. The four gentlemen accordingly went to the choultry and arranged for preparing their food. The music expert was seated in the kitchen to look after the boiling rice, the grammarian went out in the street to buy some curd, the astrologer went to a garden close by to get some plantain leaves and the logician went to a shop to buy ghee. Can you imagine what happened? The musician was noticing for some time the sound produced by the boiling rice. The sound was not in strict conformity with the rules of music that he had read and in a fit of passion broke the vessel and the contents fell into the oven. The grammarian attended to the cry of the curdman in the street. The way in which he lengthened the vowel sounds was against all rules of grammar and hence he did not want to have any dealing with one who was not at all grammatically inclined. Nay he began to quarrel with him. The astrologer while he was trying to cut a plantain leaf heard the creakings of a lizard. Before proceeding further he wanted to know what the "words" of the lizard portended. He was not quite sure of it and so returned to his lodging to get the meaning from the text. The logician

cian bought ghee and while he was returning home was anxious to know which of the two, the ghee and the vessel is the cause and which is the effect? or in other words this doubt came into his head. Is the ghee for the vessel? or Is the vessel for the ghee? In order to make himself clear he overturned the vessel to know whether the ghee can support itself without the aid of the vessel. But alas! all the ghee was lost. The four related their respective adventures to one another and since it was well nigh evening went to the king's palace. The minister present asked them whether they had taken their meals and the whole story was narrated in the presence of the king, who came to know of their practical knowledge clearly.

People have thought this matter out and hence we see various changes introduced into the curriculum of the school. It is not enough if we enable the child to learn but we should enable them to do. Motor training is as important as sensory training. The student should do things and thus learn truths fully. When truths are thus learnt by practice they keep more firm in the minds of boys and enable them materially in life. That is why manual training, object-lessons, excursions, etc., find well-deserved places in the school curriculum. We will discuss how important a part do the school excursions play in the training of the pupils.

It is a mistake to shut children away from nature. All the senses should be developed.—The greatest mistake made in education consists in shutting children away from nature and in trying to teach them almost entirely from books. There is not much scope to develop all the senses within the school compound. God has not granted man too many

senses to have any one of them neglected at the expense of others. All the senses are equally important. Unless we develop in the child all the senses we would be denying him a major portion of the pleasures of life that one can hope to get in the world. For example he will not be able to understand what great men have written in the field of literature.

We have:—

The breezy call of the incense-breathing morn,
The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,

The cock's shrill clarion or the echoing horn
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

—Gray.

Throw all your quaint enamelled eyes
That on the green turf suck the honied showers.

—Milton,

I take thy hand, this hand,
As soft as dove's down and as white as it.
—Shakespeare.

The silken tackle
Swells with the touches of those flower-like hands.

We may clearly see that those who have not seen and experienced these will not be able to form a clear idea of what is expressed. Hence it will deny him the sweet pleasures of literature if we do not develop in him all the senses. Considering that the different sensory centres in the brain remain plastic only a comparatively short time we can see how much of the education of the present day causes the sensory cells to atrophy. "The first letter in the alphabet of sensory training" says Prof. Hallock "has been taught by the kindergarten. Sensory training should be continuous and methodical until at least the age of twenty."

Knowledge can be had from Nature. Nature can give more knowledge than books.—The

knowledge that can be had from books can be had equally well direct from nature. We can impart all the essential knowledge from the outside world more easily than through books. A careful teacher may find in every one of the natural phenomena something useful and practical to be taught to his pupils. Not only that. Knowledge is not confined to books. There is so much to be learnt by the pupils which books cannot give. It is this which made Wordsworth say :

Come forth into the light of things,
Let nature be your teacher.

She has a world of ready wealth,
Our minds and hearts to bless—
Spontaneous wisdom breathed by health,
Truth breathed by cheerfulness.

One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.

Enough of Science and of Art;
Close up these barren leaves;
Come forth, and bring with you a heart
That watches and receives.

To come out into nature and thus to teach the boys all the things that we want is highly essential.

City life is unnatural.—As our methods of teaching grow natural we should realise that city life is unnatural and that those who grow up without knowing the country are defrauded of that without which childhood can never be complete or normal. On the whole the material of the city is inferior in pedagogical value to country experience. "A few days in the country at this stage will raise the level of many a city child's intelligence more than a term or two of school training could do without it."

Scope should be given for the self-activity of the child.—In educating a child we should take into account the characteristics of the child. The love of activity which is inherent in the child should be turned into useful channels. When once we do not take advantage of that and allow it to fade away the child ceases to act at all. Not only should the child be given free scope to display his activity but we should give him special motor training also. The child should do things. It is not enough if he learns things in a passive attitude. He who sees the world pass along by him leaving him behind sitting listlessly—without himself taking any active part in it—will see that he is fairly well handicapped by others who do not allow anything to pass by them without themselves taking some part or other in it.

Change in environment is necessary for the development of the central nervous system.—Again, a change in environment is necessary for the development of the human nervous system. The biographies of great men as Shakespeare, Milton tell us that they had much country life as well as city life. The environment must afford sufficient stimuli to develop the senses and to give room for sufficient motor action in the growing nervous system. The environment must be sufficiently exacting to compel the proper amount of action. For a growing nervous organism the country is therefore the better. It is said of Milton that he became one of the most active statesmen during the period of Commonwealth soon after he returned from his continental tour. All these points considered, occasional excursions into some rural parts are highly necessary. Let us see what part they play in the education of the child.

What will excursions do? (1) *Power of observation is formed.*—An excursion fosters in the student the habit of observation. By affording him various stimuli with sufficient force and vigour the student is compelled to observe. He is brought face to face with the world and the objects being new attract him and make him observe.

(2) *It gives training in imagination.*—The imagination of the pupil is made strong. Since there is more room for exercise in the country, more groves and forests in which to wander the motor brain tracts are likely to receive better training in such tempting environment. A study of the early history of eminent men as Locke, Goethe, Milton has shown that their imaginative power developed to a considerable extent by the incomparable stimuli of the country.

(3) *It increases the thirst for knowledge.*—It fosters in him the desire for knowledge. He comes to know that there is much beyond what he already knows and hence his curiosity is aroused. He wants to learn things. A teacher may be said to have succeeded fairly well in his mission if he has inculcated in his pupils a strong desire for knowledge and to this end an excursion is a very potent factor.

(4) *Improves the character of the pupil.*—Success in life depends on one's character. An excursion improves the character of the individual. Life in the school is in a fixed groove. The natural tendencies, idiosyncrasies and traits in the character of one are not fully brought out in the school. But once when he is out of the school compound and meets his friends and relations his natural traits come out prominently and they are noted by his teachers as well as by his fellow-

pupils. If he has some defects he is sure to be ridiculed by his friends and thus his behaviour improves. By being compelled to look to the necessities and wants of others he will lose his selfishness and a respect for the feelings of others is created. The spirit of self-sacrifice is inculcated in him.

(5) *Makes the student punctual.*—The lessons of punctuality are learnt by the pupil in a very material way. He comes to know if he is not punctual, he will not be taken to a certain assigned place and thus he comes to know of the value of punctuality more than any amount of theorising upon the subject would do. It makes him so to say, to be ever prepared to catch time by the forelock.

(6) *He becomes polite.*—When once he is out of the school the way in which he will be treated by others depends on the way he behaves towards them,—in which the people take him. Hence politeness is developed.

(7) *Self-help is created.*—He cannot always depend upon the help offered to him by others. Self-help is created in him.

An excursion offers many opportunities for the self-activity of the pupils.

(8) *Increases the knowledge of the pupil.*—It gives opportunity for the exchange of other thoughts than those with which instruction is occupied.

(9) *Formation of esprit de corps.*—Common joys, recreations and exertions not only unite the teacher and the scholars but also strengthens the fellowship of the school companions. The spirit of fellow-feeling and love for the school in which they study are inculcated. The students come to take a special pride in their school and this has a very strong influence towards moulding their character.

(10) *A healthy variant.*—An excursion forms a pleasant variant. The health of many children has been observed to improve substantially when they are given a change.

That an excursion increases the knowledge of the pupils need not be said.

(11) *Personality of the teacher shows effect.*—

Last but not least the teacher and the taught are brought into closer contact with each other and the teacher's personality will have a very strong influence upon them.

And now in conclusion let me ask:—Need anything more be said towards the importance of school excursions? Do they not deserve a better treatment in the hands of the school authorities?

R. SRINIVASA GOPALAN.

THE LATE MR. J. H. MACKINTOSH.

THE sudden and unfortunate death of the late Mr. J. H. Mackintosh, Professor of English Literature at the Presidency College, Madras, has come as a great shock to his many personal friends and to the small band of Professors of the same subject working in the various Colleges of this Presidency. There could be few such tragedies in life: a career full of brilliant promise, characterised by strenuous and unremitting toil in the discharge of one of the noblest duties open to man, brought to an abrupt end, to the keen regret of all concerned. The death has occasioned a most profound outburst of sorrow in educational circles, and at least to those who had the privilege of knowing him in life, such a

widespread expression of regret and esteem will not come as a surprise.

As one who had numerous opportunities of meeting him, almost throughout his short career in Madras, in connection with the work of the South Indian Branch of the English Association, and as one who could claim some familiarity with his work in the city, the present writer feels it his duty to offer this tribute to his memory in the pages of the *Educational Review*. The late Mr. J. H. Mackintosh could boast of two valuable virtues which probably constitute the foundation of all useful achievement in the world—a capacity for prodigious industry and a high sense of duty. Whatever the hour at which the visitor called on him, whether it was at noon on a scorching summer day, or in the dim twilight of a bleak winter evening, he was there at his table, valuing the exercises of his students with patient and minute attention, or working away at the pages of a heavy book, which pursuits were resumed almost immediately after the visitor left the room. He allowed the routine of his work to be disturbed very rarely indeed, by any kind of pleasure or entertainment; for he found the highest consolation in the methodical and untiring discharge of his work. If the same could be said of every professor in every college, the educational millennium would be very near at hand indeed!

There was an aspect of his intellectual work which always made a profound

impression upon the present writer, and that was his thoroughness and great attention to details. Nothing seemed to provoke him more than desultory and careless reading in any subject—he had even a suspicion of people who professed wide reading—and he pleaded for the concentration of all available intellectual energy on the best books dealing with each subject or even with a branch of a subject. His was thus the spirit most conducive to specialised and high-class University work. The utmost indulgence he would allow himself in the direction of general reading outside his special subject, was a volume or two in such a series as the *Home and University Library* to which a man could turn with confidence, for any elementary information on a subject of general interest.

He had again a commendable partiality for the most original authorities, and the greatest masters in each subject. In literary criticism, for instance, he was anxious to make himself sure of his Aristotle and Horace, and Coleridge and Wordsworth, rather than waste any time in reading the numerous critical manuals that profess to help the reader in applying the principles of criticism to literary work. He exhibited similar leanings in general literature, confining his attention to the few great "voices," without troubling himself very much about the numerous little "echoes." That even led him to an occasional unfamiliarity with some of the most recent developments in English Literature, but he was content to know the old masters

thoroughly and did not think highly at all of indulging in flashy conversation on the latest books. His select library of books reflected the purity and scrupulousness of his choice. He had a genuine love for books—the present writer remembers the feeling of triumph with which he sometimes displayed his latest purchases—but it was always regulated by keen critical taste. It would not be lured by fashion, into the buying of new books nor would it submit to the general taste in a thoughtless condemnation of antiquated but good books.

The late Mr. J. H. Mackintosh was not particularly demonstrative in his affections, but nobody who knew him could have doubted the warmth of his heart or the sincerity of his friendship. He appeared cold and reserved—that was at least the first impression—but he had a peculiar smile full of kindness with which he greeted people and which was really more eloquent than the most cordial expressions of friendship. The present writer is aware of at least one instance in which he thought it his duty to do a favour. His youth and the suddenness of his death are circumstances which make the loss particularly poignant to all who loved him; but it is some consolation that the memory of his example serves to lighten the path of duty, and has left the most inspiring recollections to the circle of his friends.

P. SESHADRI.

INDIAN MUSIC AND SCHOOLS.

A FEW words seem necessary on this subject. Indian music has before it vast potentialities and possibilities and still much remains unexplored. So it may not be amiss if mention is made of its revival and organisation, and the institution of a scientific course in our schools.

The greatest of English dramatists has said,

The man that hath no music in himself,
Nor is not moved with concord of sweet
sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems and spoils;
The motions of his spirit are dull as night,
And his affections dark as Erebus.
Let no such man be trusted.

Again in 'The Mourning Bride', by Congreve we have,

Music hath charms to soothe the savage
breast,
To soften rocks or bend a knotted oak.

Such is the power and influence of music therefore that none can fail to realise its importance so long as one's breath lasts. There is none who is not drawn within its confines, none who does not feel its loving and majestic hand, none who has not a word of praise to offer on its behalf, none who will fail to appreciate its charm, and lastly none who does not wish for its further development. "Boys and girls are taught to sing. If rightly used this is useful in several respects. Truth, honesty, purity, family affection and love to God may be taught by songs and hymns to favourite tunes which will have a most beneficial effect upon the children. Valuable lessons are thus impressed upon their minds in the most pleasing manner." How often have we felt the charming and divine influence of music and how often have we been spell-bound in a musical entertainment by

expert musicians! How easy it is to forget our griefs and sorrows and transport ourselves in heavenly paradise! It can be said, in short, that music is a great soother and softener of sorrows, elevator of souls, purifier of emotions, humaniser of passions, regulator of conduct, instructor of loyalty, educator of patriotism and inspirer of virtues.

When we realise the melody and harmony of its notes we are in a region of eternal bliss and happiness. When we keep time to the most intricate production and composition, we develop a sense of mathematical accuracy. When we examine its sublimity and grandeur "it is," as Mr. Gangadhar says, "the noblest of sciences and the finest of arts." When we analyse the different tunes, we find that each has a different purpose to serve. When we note its history, it has one long illustrious tale to tell from times past. When we reckon its utility, singing gives a good and healthy exercise to the lungs and vocal organs, stimulates our brain to activity, refreshes our memory, affords pleasure after our hard labour and imparts religious fervour to the soul.

In the light of the above remarks it follows that Indian music should be included in the school curriculum. An oral and written examination may be held in the Theory and Practice of Music and certificates of merit given. In European and Eurasian Schools for Boys and Girls music is regularly taught and it seems they are also examined. That course is highly commendable. In some institutions extra classes of other subjects are held besides those forming part of a school curriculum. So classes may be held in music outside school hours and it may be taught systematically to all students or at least to those

that wish to join. There should be a well-trained man who should be entrusted with the charge and a scientific course of music may be insisted upon in schools. Perhaps Indian music has been given an insignificant place in the Secondary school curriculum. It is high time therefore that it should form one of the subjects in such schools. It is also equally essential that it should be included in the syllabus of the Government Technical examinations. At present only English music has been given a place. Both boys and girls should be examined in Hindu music, the case of the latter nevertheless demanding our immediate attention.

Many of us can hear and appreciate music but we should see that a course of scientific music is organised. Many of our great songsters are fastly disappearing and so Hindu music is likely to lose its individuality and vigour and it is our duty to lift it up by giving it a chance for improvement. When the influence of music has been recognised once for all, it behoves us to move seriously and make an earnest attempt in the cultivation of the art. Great attention should be paid to fine arts such as music, painting and others which should no longer be ignored. We should be up and doing. We should try to institute a musical course on a scientific basis. We have only to set before us the example of the *Academy of Indian Music* in Bombay opened by H. E. Lord Willingdon about the middle of January. The main objects of the institution are, to quote its very words: (1) To revive, preserve, protect and advance the ancient art of Indian music, (2) to reclaim the art from the abyss of vice in which it had unfortunately fallen, (3) to raise the moral tone, and (4) to create a

taste for this divine art both among the rich and poor by establishing branches throughout the country as far as it is practicable and making it available at a small expense. The school is teaching music by notation, that is, by written music, which may perhaps prove advantageous. But it is a matter of detail which can be worked out when once the general plan is laid. The Government may appoint a committee to enquire into the mode of revival of Hindu music consisting of experts who may be asked to report at the end of a fixed period as to the course to be pursued and so on. The helping hand of Government is felt in many other directions so that we can count upon it also in the present instance. They should be well impressed with the necessity of their interference in such matters and approached with a request of the kind mentioned above. Without their help and sympathy nothing can be accomplished on a grand scale though we should rise only from modest beginnings.

It will be a valuable addition to the teaching if such a course of scientific music is organised in the Madras College for Women recently started. It may be even suggested that a chair for music may be created so that Indian music may develop side by side with English music. It may be also worthwhile if the University takes up the matter in hand and equip youngsters for higher branches of study in the art. It will no doubt be a dignified and honourable position to assume considering the urgency of the demand for such a course. Such research works as are found in other branches of study may safely be recommended in this art also and the novel step taken is sure to reap its own reward. It may be hoped that the time is not far off

when large grants from Government will be available for musical instruments just as for typewriters and other necessities. The educational policy of Government has widened of late and the large educational grants are the result of His Majesty's boon at the time of his Coronation at Delhi. The comfort and happiness which will result for the millions of his subjects will be incalculable, for, they can hope to seek 'solace and enjoyment in their hour of sorrow and after their period of mental work and labour for the day. That will conduce to the welfare and prosperity of the land and will induce every home to make good use of the opportunity. The wheel of progress must rotate fast. If possible a faculty for music may be created in the University and one or two musical experts appointed, temporarily at least, and they may tour round on inspection to see the working of the course in schools and colleges. Though it may be premature at present to count upon such an action by the University, the Government may appoint such experts to report upon the working in schools. A new post will have to be created, temporarily if not permanently, just like the Agricultural expert, Dyeing expert and all that. Though it involves some additional expenditure, yet the benefit to be accrued from such a course will make expenditure a matter of less importance.

We may conclude by saying that Indian music will have a bright future before it in accordance with the attention bestowed upon it by the scientific public and the support it consequently receives at the hands of the Government. Lord Willingdon says, that, in this country, the temperament of its people, the charms of their surroundings, the traditions of their early past and their wonderful historical records all favour the possibility of

the development and prosecution and composition of fine music. It is sincerely hoped therefore that all true lovers of music will think of this great problem in its various aspects. If this article has in any way indicated an outline of the work to be done, it may be said to have fulfilled its purpose. It may therefore be allowed to stand the test of criticism before any final verdict is pronounced upon it.

B. S. RAMASWAMI AYYAR.

SCHOOL-MANAGEMENT AND GENERAL PROGRESS.

III.

THE work of the Headmaster and of the Assistant-masters having been dealt with in instalments on two previous occasions, it remains to complete the subject by treatment of the most important part of school-management—that which falls to the lot of managers. It has to view its duty in relation to the whole life of the nation, to look upon school-life not as an isolated phenomenon but as a leading factor in determining the motive power of social and political action in the land. If this notion is accepted, its primary duty is a permanent endowment for the school, secured by pressing the Government to perform its legitimate function. But, before this is done, a small measure of discretion may be allowed to the higher pupils of a Secondary School and a larger measure of elective power to teachers to be represented on the committee of management. Managers of different indigenous schools may begin with small federations and then gradually extend them to the Presidency until they have a provincial organisation. If western representative institutions are to be introduced with enduring

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profit, not only political, social and industrial provincial conferences are intended to serve the purpose but also an educational provincial organisation must be ushered in, in evidence of improved efficiency, harmony and co-operation which only can and will induce the strong-willed British people to yield to the demands of educated public opinion in this country.

In the January (1913) No. of this Review, some of the ways in which the management can help the efficiency of a school were pointed out. One of them is certainly interest in games and physical exercise. Their importance has come to be better understood but the great thing needed is the increasing realisation in practice. This we learn not only from books treating of education in the advanced countries of Europe but also from one born and bred in England and experienced in Indian administration. The Hon. Mr. A. G. Cardew, the Chief Secretary to the Government of Madras, presiding a few months back at the anniversary of the Mylapore P. S. High School Literary Society, remarked that the real improvement of Indian school-children ought to be in the direction more of training in outdoor games and sports than of book-learning in which they are in advance of their equals in Britain while lagging behind in the cultivation of character due to the former. He further bore testimony to the position of Englishmen in different parts of the world as compared with the French and the Germans.

The two latter nations learned languages better than the British; but while the French and German young men going out from schools or colleges did more of correspondence work, the British boy became the ruler, to control the others. What need is there for argument in the face of the fact that is found to be true? True appreciation of its import-

ance must be shown in the recognition of physical education being enforced as well as intellectual, until every school makes it a matter of daily practice with the help of the Government evidently wishing to place on a better basis the condition of institutions.

Certain matters of the class room, though not quite so important, deserve a passing mention. The monitor and the assistant monitor of every class in the upper secondary department may be elected by the pupils themselves. This lays a little foundation for the exercise of popular franchise later on in life. This may be particularly attended to by the Headmaster while the Manager tries to ascertain what goes on.

The one idea that predominates over every other in management is to see that the school is endowed, that it does not depend upon incidental changes in strength or fees collected from pupils, that it has as far as possible a permanent staff, that the Headmaster is so far head and shoulders above the Assistants as to have all educational matters purely in his hands and make the public feel his very appointment to be a guarantee for progress and that, beyond it, the only duty of managers is to safeguard the properties of the endowment. The Department of Public Instruction is now trying to see schools endowed in the light of superior advantages accruing from the public schools of England; but, it is also useful to remind that a good part of the endowment was the contribution of sovereigns of England and that it is incumbent on the Government in this country to take the initiative in the matter and provide for the larger portion while compelling the management to co-operate with it. Administrators of India are trying to increase salaries of teachers by special

grants-in-aid to private schools and are considering when to provide for a provident fund. Sooner or later these benefits will be secured; but the goal of the Government ought to be permanent endowment for every school worth the name.

While, in the matter of endowment, the management may expect the lion's share of the responsibility to be undertaken by the Government, there are certain subjects in which it may well attempt to take part in a larger organisation which can be formed only with steady, earnest effort. Children of the soil claim and are given a larger share in the administration of their own concerns. This will be constantly advancing only with proved worth in larger harmony and more powerful organisation. Educated men read a speech of John Bright in which he proposes a few local governments for India complete in themselves (*vide* speech V on India in the popular edition.) Their mouths water and they long for a higher political status; but, let them also give evidence of increasing qualifications required in the modern conditions of complex life. The Presidency of Madras with a fair number of educated people may well form federations of a number of indigenous schools. These may profitably serve to standardise instruction with sufficient variety in different parts and to form sections of a provincial indigenous private Educational Service. At present, a teacher of long standing in one school may draw a smaller salary while those of comparatively short experience in another school may get a larger pay.

If a number of schools, say half-a-dozen, to begin with, is federated into one, the more efficient and experienced may be transferred from one to another with better prospects. This means greater unity amongst

managers and their power to grasp what object lesson they may teach for the younger generation to imitate on a larger scale in its days of work. This means a more intelligent adjustment and compromise, demanding an amount of self-sacrifice not yet exhibited.

The spirit of management ought to be to set an example of sacrifice. Then its employees are bound to follow it. Those that have money ought to give their annual contributions. While educated men of no financial resources find place in the board of management, it ought to be made a condition of share in it that every manager must open his purse for education. Authority of any kind, if truly exercised, is synonymous with altruism. Mere claim for honour and fame is only a more enlightened form of regard for the self. The reverence actually shown to the management consists in the spirit it exemplifies. The higher the authority, the greater is the responsibility. So far as India is concerned, the Government is the first and next come in descending order the management, the headmaster, the staff, the public consisting of parents and educated men. Praise or blame is due to position and authority according to rank.

Educated men feel they are entitled to a higher status in the Legislative and Executive Councils of the land and to a larger representation therein. The representative element in schools may be introduced by allowing teachers to elect one of their number for a seat in the committee of management, so that their views may be better understood. Of course the qualifications of the electors and the elected may be laid down. There must be arrangement for representation of different interests. This undoubtedly implies a

far greater extent of managing and organising skill. Managers of indigenous institutions deserve praise for giving their time and using their intelligence without any expectation of reward in the shape of money. As experience of the past accumulates and as civilisation progresses, this sacrifice is only preparatory to a nobler type and a higher degree of it. It is not then enough for the public to be satisfied with a management which collects fees from pupils, disburses teachers' salaries out of them to the extent of starving them while compelling them to over-work and erecting buildings out of the savings. In such cases, not water but blood of teachers is used up in brick and mortar of school-building. This was the expressed opinion of an enlightened manager. It ought to be the pride of the land if the blood is voluntarily shed by the teachers themselves, or if the managers had succeeded in influencing such an optional act of sacrifice. But, where the shedding of blood is due to men in power taking undue advantage of poverty-stricken people forced to embrace the teaching profession, the intelligent and moral public may pause and ponder—Does it suffice to say that no body used any force to compel them to become schoolmasters?

If the methods of organisation and representation thus sketched are worked out in school and college, a large number of young boys and men growing up amidst the environments thereby created is sure to be imbued with greater enthusiasm for noble work and combined efforts to improve not only the condition of schools and colleges but also to raise the honour and dignity of the people throughout the land. The enlightened British power whom God has gifted with

guidance of the destinies of the teeming millions in India is surely expected to recognise the value of educational work and, through it, of self-sacrificing organisation in different kinds of activity. Then will dawn on India the glorious day of Indian representation in the British Empire.

It has been thus seen that a case has been made out for arriving at the following conclusions:—

1. A comparison of the educative effects of school-life on English, French and German boys shows that the first are able to exercise sway over the others.

2. Indians ought to supplement their higher intellectual average by their persistence and resoluteness instilled into the minds of the British by the development of character in out-door games and sports.

3. Pupils and masters may be allowed some measure of election.

4. Managers may begin small federations and in course of time extend the sphere of operation to the province to ensure the validity of the higher claims of the educated for a more vital share in the Councils of the Empire.

5. It is the primary duty of the Government to secure the co-operation of private managers and to endow schools permanently in the same way as the public schools of England are, so that every school may have a staff not frequently changing, may have a Headmaster capable of doing educational work without others' aid or interference or dependence on changes from time to time and may have a managing board, solely to look after the endowed property.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Literary Criticism—Its Nature and Function,—by Mr. K. B. Ramanathan, M. A., B. L., F. M. U.

A good part of current literature deals with literary criticism. There are essays, dissertations, treatises on the literature of the past and the present and from the large supply of such literary pabulum, it must be presumed there is a great demand for it. When competently done literary criticism is of the most helpful kind. It enables us to see which are the sheep and which the goat books and indicates also the 'sheep' and the 'goat' qualities of the books appraised and adjudged. It must be therefore a not unprofitable task to inquire what literary criticism is and get to know its nature and function.

Criticism is, according to Murray's New English Dictionary, the art of estimating the qualities and character of literary or artistic work. It is an art being a part of the larger or more general art of *Æsthetic* which takes rank with Ethics and Logic and deals with the Beautiful as the others are concerned with the Good and True. We need not concern ourselves with the question whether the principles of *æsthetic* or literary criticism are capable of the systematic arrangement that is found possible in Logic. We understand that, as other arts aim at practical ends, literary criticism is useful in guiding us to discriminate what is worthy from the worthless and in educating our literary tastes.

The question whether literary criticism can ever be a science has but to be mentioned to be dismissed in few words as not worthy of serious discussion. Our readers may be aware of the discussion whether history is a science or not. They can apply the principles that practically decided the question between the school of Buckle and the school of Froude and see that, so long as the human element enters into the subject matter, a methodised science is impossible. In history it may be said that the personal equation can be allowed for and approximately true generalisations may be arrived at when we take account of large bodies of men. In questions of literature the personality of the men of letters is an important factor and any attempt to rationalise it as an *unwelcome surd* is impossible and would defeat the very object of literary criticism. The personality of the literary critic is as important a

factor as the personality of the author criticised. As Symonds in his *Essays Speculative and Suggestive*, p. 75, put it: "In criticism the mind of one individual, qualified by certain idiosyncratic properties, and further qualified by the conditions of his race and age, is brought to bear upon the product of another human mind, itself qualified by certain idiosyncratic properties and further qualified by the conditions of a certain race and century. In this way a quadruple element of subjectivity enters into the final estimate, as will appear from the following diagram:



Here A stands for the artist, b for his temperament; c for what we will call for his milieu; D stands for the critic, e for his temperament, f for his milieu. Thus the relation between A and D, the artist and the critic, involves a blending of b, c, e, f, so uncertain in its combinations as to preclude scientific exactitude in the estimate formed by the latter.

But this does not mean that criticism is an exercise of one's whimsicality, and is to be availed of as furnishing an opportunity for saying fine things, for the display of one's powers of expression. With a great deal of individual variations there is a general agreement as to what is held by the most competent as the becoming, the graceful, the beautiful in artistic expression. And if there is competency in the critic, i. e., ability to feel adequately in matters to be felt, to judge in matters requiring judgment, to express in adequate language what is felt and judged, combined with a conscientious regard to reveal the truth as it is revealed to him, the guidance of such an authority will save the less favoured ones from unprofitable waste of time and energy.

If the language is adequate and has the distinct personal note of all true literature, the criticism embodied in such language ranks as literature. Beyond helping our appreciation of literature it enhances the impression that literary master-pieces make on us by pointing out distinctly the points, and the qualities worthy of admiration. If there is imperfection in the work, it points out wherein there is failure, and wherein spite of failure, there is promise of excellence that will justify future efforts.

"The Importance and Function of Research,"
by Mr. Henry Dodwell, M.A.

At the valedictory meeting of the Associated Societies of the Madras Christian College held in

the Anderson Hall, Mr. Henry Dodwell delivered a lecture on "The Importance and Function of Research."

In the course of his interesting lecture he said that the University of Madras had appointed the University Professors and Readers with a view to encourage and stimulate researches in different branches of science. The term research referred to the discovery and establishment of new truth in any special scientific investigation. That had been going on ever since the world began. The progress of humanity was due mainly to the research. The historical and scientific researches made during the Middle Ages and the period of Renaissance showed the activity of the human mind to discover new truths and enlarge the scientific vision of man. In the 19th century the enormous accumulation of the research work had greatly increased the scope of human activities in the field of researches and tended to widen the range of human activities in the field of investigation and research. The research work was no common work but it could be undertaken only by specialists and it needed special knowledge and instructions. There was always a certain amount of prejudice against specialisation. It had no doubt its own disadvantage. It seemed to him that knowledge was not the special gift of a person or a nation. The importance of research work was recognised by all people and in all countries. In recent years many discoveries had been made in the field of medical researches such as the cure for malaria, the virtue of inoculation as a preventive measure against the spread of plague, etc. The field of Indian Economics afforded ample scope for the young man to make researches. Research work in the field of Indian History would necessitate the re-writing of the History of South Ancient India. The embarrassment of choice of the subject was the only danger. It was really astonishing that research work was not taken up earlier. The only answer that could be given to the question—why research work was not undertaken earlier—would be that the University had not sufficiently developed. To attain success in research work was surely a very difficult thing. Two conditions were indispensable to ensure success in research works. The first was *organisation*. It was well nigh impossible for any single individual to take the work of investigation. The result of such a course would be that the single individual would have to leave undone many things which he would have desired to accomplish. It would be impossible for another man to follow in his foot-steps however similar the University

qualification, natural inclinations and tendencies might be. The second condition was the existence of a sufficient number of men, gifted and trained. One could not get on without companions. The companions were as much needed as the leaders and organisers. Intellectual honesty was an indispensable factor. The results obtained should be valuable to the society. Given the sufficient number of enthusiastic, cultured and trained young men, there was no earthly reason why the University of Madras should not develop the work of research. Training in the field of researches was quite different from University training. The study of a number of text books would no doubt increase the general knowledge of the students though it would not qualify a man for research work. It gives some training to the mind to arrange and record what they had learnt. The original research work in the Laboratories would no doubt be a good starting ground but further researches could be conducted only by perseverance, organisation, training and other things. Distinctions in the field of discoveries must always come from within though external help was an important factor to be reckoned with. He hoped in conclusion that the University scholarships and other advantages would be usefully availed of by the students in the Madras Presidency and research works would be willingly and successfully undertaken by them.

Female Education, by the Hon'ble
Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Iyer.

In the course of his address at the Prize-distribution of the Corjeevaram Girls' School, the Hon. Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Iyer said that the first question was as to whether boys and girls should have the same education. He was of opinion that, for the present at any rate, India was not ripe for giving to girls the same education that boys were getting. What was wanted was that her women must be made to understand their position in the social fabric; they must be made to appreciate the importance of their co-operation in the work of national development. They must realise that not only the physical comforts but also the mental equipment of their children depended upon them.

Another subject in connection with the course of female education was whether there should be co-education of boys and girls. He had heard it eloquently pleaded that boys and girls, if they valued self-respect, should be taught together. He heard from some of the students of the Presidency College that the presence of girl

students made them more decorous. That might be true from the man's point of view, but from the point of view of parents and husbands, was the country sufficiently advanced to permit of the co-education of boys and girls? Having regard to the fact that girls in this country attained maturity earlier than in other countries, it seemed to him that it would put back the clock of progress if co-education were to be advocated. The essential thing in all these matters was caution, and he hoped that those who advocated co-education would realise that there were dangers ahead which might result in parents keeping back their girls altogether if they were to be sent to the same school with boys.

The third subject in connection with the course of education was whether some attempt should not be made to provide for home education after the girls went to their husbands. At present Mission agencies had established Zenana societies from which workers might go out to the homes of Hindus to give education to married women; but there was no denying the fact that there was a great disinclination on the part of Hindus to accept teaching from Christian mistresses. Those prejudices might not be right, but we must count with them and every endeavour should be made by those interested in the cause of education to train up a body of Hindu women who would be able to supplement the education received in the schools to those girls who were sent away to the homes of their husbands.

H.E. Lord Carmichael on Moslem Education.

In the course of his address after the distribution of prizes at the Calcutta Madrassa, H. E. Lord Carmichael said, I am very glad that I am once more able to preside over your prize-giving and give the students and staff of the Madrassa such encouragement as the presence here of the head of the Province can bring to you. The last time that I was in this immediate neighbourhood was on that afternoon, to which Mr. Harley has referred, when so many members of the Moslem community assembled in the Square to give expression to their grief at the death of the Nawab Bahadur Sir Salimullah of Dacca—a grief in which I shared. I know how earnestly the Nawab Bahadur had the interest of his fellow Mahomedans at heart, so I can well understand how deeply you mourn his loss and how much you must be inspired by his example. He often spoke to me of the special needs of his community. He more convincingly

than any other man, pointed out to me the facts connected with this, he more than any other man made me feel that education is by far the most crying need of the Mahomedans in Bengal; and he was I think, glad that I realised that it is in the interest not of that community only but of all the people of the Presidency that Government should give very earnest consideration to Madrassa education.

My knowledge of Islamic learning is necessarily limited, I fear I cannot ever expect to become an expert, but my interest in the education of the Mahomedans in India is, I hope, a real interest. I would like to help where and when I can; I am, therefore, glad to feel that in all matters connected with it I can look with confidence to my friend and colleague Nawab Syed Shams-ul-Huda for advice.

All who were at the Oriental Conference, which was held at Simla in 1911, agreed that two distinct objects were desirable, the establishment throughout India of special institutions for Oriental studies on modern lines, and the maintenance of institutions for the conduct of Oriental studies on the ancient indigenous lines. In Bengal we have already prescribed a revised curriculum on modern lines for Madrassa—a curriculum which will lead up to the Faculty of Islamic studies which we hope to see established in connection with the Dacca University. The students who follow this curriculum will be given a thorough grounding in English as well as instruction in Islamic learning.

We recognise too that there is a great need here for scholars who have a thorough knowledge of Islamic studies in the widest sense, but who have been taught in a somewhat different fashion—scholars whose duty in life will be to minister to the religious and social needs of their co-religionists; it is to meet this need that we have decided in the Calcutta Madrassa—the oldest Madrassa in Bengal—to continue to follow the ancient lines.

At the same time we cannot hide from ourselves the fact that scholars, who have received their education solely in Calcutta, have not in recent years made any substantial contribution to Islamic learning, and that men with great ability, who have passed the highest examinations of our Madrassa, finding that they cannot get all the teaching they wish to get in Calcutta, have to go on to other seats of Islamic learning in Upper India in order to complete their education. My colleagues and I hope that one day the Calcutta Madrassa will be as efficient as any other similar institution in India is; we mean to do all we can

to make it so, and that is why we have lately appointed a committee to revise the curriculum and to make suggestions for the improvement of this institution.

The scheme for providing a Mahomedan Arts College in connection with the Madrassa has, I am sorry to say, not made the progress I had hoped for. We have acquired the land in Wellesley Street, but funds to prosecute the scheme are not available just now and we must wait in patience for the realization of our hopes. With the extension of the Baker Hostel it is different. Thanks to the great personal interest which His Excellency the Viceroy takes in the students of Calcutta and the thought which he specially gives to the question of their being accommodated in surroundings healthy alike for body and mind, we shall be able to proceed with this at once.

Before I sit down, I would like to refer, though only in a very few words, to the importance of extending facilities for the education of Mahomedan ladies. We must necessarily depend on the leaders of the community for all initiative in this direction but I am glad to hear that progress is being made. Government on its part has liberally aided such private efforts as the Sakhawati Memorial Girls' Schools and the Subrwardy Pardanashin School, and I can promise you that we shall do our best to help the leaders to bring such efforts to a successful issue.

"Value of Character," by H. E. the Viceroy.

In the course of his stirring speech at the annual Convocation of the University of Calcutta on the 6th instant, His Excellency the Viceroy spoke as follows:—.....So also with character, without which learning is of no avail, to secure success in life. The precepts and principles of character can only be inculcated from earliest childhood and cannot be taught, though they may be inspired by noble example. As was said recently by a great English statesman—"You cannot have a class of character or a class of morals, but you can imbue individuals with the tone and atmosphere of your Universities and your Professors." It is character in combination with learning that makes a man, the man of whom the State needs so many, and for whom the demand is unfortunately far greater than the supply. Man is as made himself; man will be as he makes himself. It is true that external circumstances may influence the development of a man, nevertheless his ultimate formation depends largely upon himself, and in his daily life he is determining his own future and

what sort of man he shall be. The highest code of ethics and of chivalry, embracing honour, loyalty, uprightness and devotion to duty for duty's sake, are qualities that must be cultivated from infancy, and a noble character creates by noble deeds a source of inspiration and provides an example for future emulation. These are the men who succeed in the world's rivalry, and it is such men that I would wish to see trained and developed in this great University. India has need of every one of such men and the need grows greater every day. So long as such men are produced in these seats of learning no nation need despair, and I look forward with the hope and confidence that the students of this University in particular may even now and in the future so shape their lives that on their arrival at the age of maturity they may each in their own way, whether in the field of literature or science or whether in public or private life, render valuable assistance and co-operation to the Government of India in welding together into one civilised and progressive whole the destinies of this great Empire. They should also endeavour to show to the world that the East is not only recovering its former position of supremacy in the arts and sciences but that India is at the same time training up a race of men who in the words of Milton, the great poet and educationist shall be "enflamed with the study of learning and the admiration of virtue; stirred up with high hopes of living to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God, and famous to all ages."

THE UNIVERSITIES.

UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

Meeting of the Senate.

A meeting of the Senate of the University of Madras was held on the 5th instant. Sixty-four Fellows were present, and the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Wallis, Vice-Chancellor, was in the chair.

THE FACULTIES.

The meeting having been declared duly constituted, it was proposed by the Revd. A. Moffat, seconded by Mr. Winclair and carried that the following newly appointed Fellows be assigned to the Faculties as under:—

FACULTY OF ARTS:—Rao Bahadur T. Raghavayya, Mr. A. Subbramanya Aiyer, Mr. O. J. Couldrey, Mr. H. S. Duncan and Mr. R. M. Statham.

FACULTY OF LAW.—Mr. K. Srinivasa Aiyengar.
EXEMPTIONS.

Mr. W. H. James moved, and Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyengar seconded, that a number of candidates be exempted from the production of the attendance certificates for various examinations—Carried.

DATES OF EXAMINATIONS.

On the recommendation of the Syndicate the Senate approved the change of dates in the examinations for Medicine, one week earlier than usual, and in the F.E. and B.E. Degree Examinations.

STUDENTS ON HOSPITAL SHIP, "MADRAS."

There were two resolutions on this subject. The first was proposed by the Board of Studies, and the Syndicate empowered the Superintendent of the Hospital Ship to arrange, for the benefit of students on board, for the conduct of the final M.B. and B.S. and L.M. and S. Degree examinations by the staff of the Hospital Ship and such others as they might desire to co-opt, provided that the clinical examinations were held at some port or ports where there are suitable Civil Hospitals providing clinical material for all the methods.

The recommendation was approved by the Syndicate and Senate.

The second proposal was with reference to the resolution passed by the Senate in October last regarding the treatment of medical students serving on board the Hospital Ship. The Syndicate recommended:—

"That after the present session of the Madras Medical College no exemption be allowed to any medical student on the Hospital Ship 'Madras' other than those in the final year who have completed their hospital courses in Midwifery and Ophthalmology."

Major A. Miller moved the proposition and said that the resolution had been arrived at after consultation with the Boards of Studies.

He also accepted the amendment proposed by the Hon'ble Lt. Dr. T. M. Nair to substitute for the words 'in the final year who have completed their hospital courses in Midwifery and Ophthalmology' the following words:—'who have passed the Third M.B. and B.S., or Third L.M. & S. Examination, and that no such student shall be permitted to appear for the Final M.B. & B.S. or L.M. & S. Examination unless he has studied at the Madras Medical College for at least one year after passing the Third M.B. & B.S., or L.M. & S. Examination and has produced certificates of study in all the subjects of the Final M.B. & B.S.,

or L.M. & S. Examination signed either by the Superintendent of the Hospital Ship or in accordance with the Regulations of the University for that examination.

The resolution as amended was carried.

TRANSITORY REGULATIONS.

On the recommendation of Major Miller, seconded by Lt. Nair, a few alterations made in the Medical transitory regulations passed by the Senate and sanctioned by the Government were approved.

INDIAN ECONOMICS.

The Vice-Chancellor, on the report of the Syndicate, proposed that Mr. William Robert Scott, M.A., Lecturer in Political Economy, University of St. Andrews, be appointed University Professor of Indian Economics.

In doing so he said that, even after the emoluments of the office had been increased, there was some doubt expressed whether an economist, a specialist in the branch, could be obtained. These apprehensions, he was glad to say, were not justified. Mr. Scott, whom the Syndicate had selected, was an economist of acknowledged eminence. After referring to the many qualifications of Mr. Scott, the Vice-Chancellor said that he (Mr. Scott) had been employed by H. E. Lord Pentland, when Secretary for Scotland, to conduct an investigation on home industries, and that he was also elected as the President of the Economics Section of the British Association.

The proposition was seconded by Mr. C. Ramalinga Reddi and carried.

UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

On the proposition of the Revd. A. Moffat which was seconded by Mr. C. P. Ramasami Aiyer, a long list of University lectures to be delivered by seven gentlemen of repute approved by the Syndicate was sanctioned.

PROFESSOR GEDDES'S LECTURES.

Mr. B. Hanumantha Rao proposed, and Mr. Ramanni Manon seconded, that the cost of the lectures delivered by Professor Geddes on 'Cities in Evolution' be defrayed from the annual recurring grant by the Government of India of Rs. 65,000.

In reply to Sir V. C. Desikacharyar, the President said that, in the matter of the exact remuneration to be paid, the Fellows could trust the Syndicate and not better their discretion.

The resolution was carried.

UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

The Senate then approved the following special University lectures to be delivered during the academic year 1915-1916:—

(1) Lt.-Col. C. Donovan, B.A., M.D., J.M.S., on 'Tropical Diseases, including Malaria, Kala Azar, Filariasis, Dracontiasis, Dysentery, Leprosy, and Beri-beri.'

(2) Mr. L. K. Ananthakrishna Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Curator, State Museum, Trichur, on 'Indian Ethnology.'

(3) Mr. K. Krishna Aiyengar, B.A., L.C.E., Dy. Chief Engineer, Mysore, on 'Architecture.'

The subjects next taken up for discussion were of a controversial nature, relating to the consideration of the recommendations of the Committee appointed for the purpose on certain regulations passed by the Senate in November last. The first subject that came up for discussion was that relating to

THE M. A. DEGREE EXAMINATION.

As a result of the recommendations made by the Committee, the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri proposed to divide the M. A. Degree Examination into two branches: M. A. with Honours and M. A. without Honours. His resolution was to the following effect:—

1. Graduates in Arts of this University who desire to qualify for the M. A. Degree shall be required to pass the B. A. (Honours) Degree Examination in the subjects in which they qualified for the B. A. Degree. The Regulations for the B. A. (Honours) Degree Examination, other than Regulations 204 and 205, shall apply in all respects as if they were candidates for the B. A. (Honours) Degree who had passed the B. A. Degree Examination, except that they shall be allowed to appear without the recommendation from a college prescribed by Regulation 203.

2. Graduates who have qualified for the M.A. Degree under the foregoing Regulation may, after a lapse of two years, proceed without further examination to the Degree of Master of Arts on payment of a fee of Rs. 25.

The proposition was seconded by Mr. K. V. Rangasami Aiyengar and supported by a number of others, while Mr. Mark Hunter strongly opposed the resolution, on the ground that no reasons had been assigned by the Committee, and that if the resolution was carried, the dignity of the B.A. (Honours) course would be lowered and also, the prestige of the University.

The resolution was, after a good deal of discussion, carried by a large majority.

THE INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

On the recommendation of the Committee Mr. R. Littlehales moved in a long speech that, in lieu of the compartmental system in the Intermediate Examination in Arts, it was desirable to revise the course with a view to lightening it.

The Rev. G. Pittendrigh seconded the proposition.

Mr. Mark Hunter again objected to the resolution on the ground that no reasons had been assigned by the Committee.

Mr. Ramalinga Reddi proposed an amendment 'so to revise the Regulations as to permit candidates who have failed in the Intermediate Examination to appear at subsequent examinations only in those subjects in which they had previously failed to secure a pass.'

This was seconded by Mr. C. P. Ramasami Aiyer and supported by Mr. K. Ganapathi Aiyer.

Mr. F. Davies proposed a further amendment that the students who passed in the second year should not claim the same privilege as those who had passed in the first year.

Mr. S. Krishnaswamy Iyengar observed that they were insisting too much on efficiency and trying to sacrifice possible intellectual eminence in the future. In his opinion the position of University education ought not to be efficiency at examinations at the sacrifice of possible future good work. The Madras examinations had already acquired the unenviable notoriety of being the stiffest in India.

Mr. Corley said that those who had experience of the Madras students would agree that it was not desirable to have in their colleges those who had not had the full discipline of the whole course but only half time course.

Mr. Statham remarked that in respect of this matter there was no analogy between the University examinations here and similar examinations in the West. There were many students in this University who finished their education with the Intermediate Examination while a large majority of students in English Universities pursued their studies further.

Rev. G. Pittendrigh observed that the second group in the Intermediate Examination, viz., Physical Science, Chemistry, Botany and Zoology was far too heavy now, and that was why he voted for the lightening of the course. Both in the first and second groups the work was heavy and ought

to be lightened. There was no analogy between the present Intermediate Examination and the old F. A., because the percentage of marks obtained by students in recent years had been greatly affected by the Board of Moderators.

Mr. Ramalinga Reddiar's amendment was put to the meeting and lost, 33 voting for and 37 against it.

Mr. Littlehales' resolution to lighten the Intermediate course was then put and carried.

REMOVAL OF A RESTRICTION.

Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri then moved that Regulations 174 and 183 be rescinded and that the remaining Regulations renumbered, and that Regulation 194 be amended as to read "A candidate for the B.A. Degree examination may at his option present himself for the whole or for either part at any time."

The speaker pointed out that his motion aimed at removing the restriction as to the number of times that a candidate should put in his appearance for Matriculation, Intermediate and B. A. Degree examinations. There had been instances brought to their notice of candidates who had failed thrice at the Madras Intermediate Examination but had really shown merit, because, having some little money, they had gone to Calcutta and, after passing the Intermediate Examination there, returned to Madras and obtained admission to the B. A. Pass course. There was in that mass of apparently unpromising material some element of promise which they might take into consideration even as regards the University course. These examinations were not Honours examinations, and he saw no objection to the removal of the present restriction as to the number of times that a candidate might appear for such examinations.

The motion having been seconded by the Rev. Macphail, was put and agreed to.

ALTERATION OF DATES OF EXAMINATIONS.

The Rev. Macphail withdrew a motion of which he had given notice, that it is not desirable to alter the dates fixed by the Regulations for the examinations of the University.

REPRESENTATION ON BOARDS OF STUDIES.

Mr. Littlehales moved that it be a recommendation to the Syndicate that, as far as possible the Colleges affiliated to the University in the degree courses be represented on the Boards of Studies in the subjects in which they are affiliated.

The mover pointed out that there was difficulty in making a rule that every Professor of a College should be a member of the Board of Studies, and until the University had appointed college pro-

fessors, colleges could not demand that all their professors should be on the Boards of Studies. The main colleges which had got good representative instructors, were represented on the Boards of Studies. No college was deliberately overlooked in the selection by the Syndicate.

Mr. G. A. Natesan seconded the motion and observed that at the meetings of the Committee of the Senate where this matter was discussed there was a strong feeling prevalent that Professors of certain colleges were not put on Boards of Studies.

Mr. Mark Hunter opposed the motion and said that if effect were given to the motion the Syndicate would have frequently to exclude men who were really wanted on Boards of Studies. His college (Presidency College) was not represented on a Board of Studies, and the college had not suffered by reason of that.

Mr. Corley thought that the Senate would be wiser to leave the discretion in the matter to the Syndicate.

The Vice-Chancellor observed that the Syndicate had been desirous of representing leading colleges, as far as possible, and even if the motion was agreed to, the Syndicate would not neglect its duty and exclude people from a Board of Studies simply because they came from a particular college. The passing of the motion would not make much difference. It must be the duty of the Syndicate to see that competent men were on the Boards, and he deprecated the suggestion that there was any one college which had been kept off by any Board of Studies.

The motion was put and lost.

HOSTEL ACCOMMODATION.

The Vice-Chancellor placed before the Senate the report of the Syndicate that the Committee of the Senate appointed in November last to enquire and report on the adequacy and nature of hostel accommodation provided for the students in the Madras Colleges was unable to present its report at the present meeting, but that it was proceeding with the enquiry.

ALTERATIONS IN TERMS OF PRIZE AWARDS.

On the motion of the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Seshagiri Iyer, seconded by Mr. C. P. Ramasami Iyer, certain alterations suggested by the Syndicate in the terms of award of the Carmichael and Innes prizes to candidates passing highest in the M. L. and B. L. Degree Examinations were agreed to by the Senate.

AFFILIATION OF THE MADANAPALLE HIGH SCHOOL.

Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, in the absence of the Hon'ble Mr. Stone, moved the following recommendation of the Syndicate:—

That the Senate record its opinion that the application from the Theosophical Educational Trust, Adyar, for the affiliation of the Madanapalle High School in Group III of the Intermediate courses with Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Urdu as second languages for Part II and with Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu as second languages for Part III may be granted by the Government, provided that the college is placed under the management of a regularly constituted governing body on which the teaching staff is represented.

The mover said that it was necessary to bring to the consideration of the question a detached mind, a mind free from bias. The history of the proposition was very simple. Sometime in 1913 the Theosophical Educational Trust, Adyar, applied for the affiliation of the Madanapalle High School in Groups I and III of the Intermediate Examination. In accordance with the procedure adopted in the case of such applications the Syndicate appointed a Committee to conduct a local enquiry, and the Committee submitted its report. It would appear from the published papers that the promoters of the College scheme had not fully realised the nature of the requirements intended by the University, but thanks to the ample resources at their disposal and their willingness and readiness to meet all the University's demands, they had found it possible to comply with the conditions necessary to be complied with by every institution before affiliation was granted. The particular factors which the Syndicate examined in such cases were the management, staff, buildings, library, finance, fees, absence of competition, and so forth. Those who had been entrusted with the interests of the University looked at these things not in an ungenerous spirit, and the Senate might therefore accept the view of the Syndicate that the Senate might report its opinion to Government on this question as recommended by the Syndicate. There was a provisional clause in the motion that "provided the college is placed under the management of a regularly constituted governing body on which the teaching staff is represented." Since the recommendation of the Syndicate had been passed there was some further correspondence, with the result that a separate governing body for the College had been constituted. He preferred not to express any opinion on the question, but he considered it his duty to observe, especially in view of the fact that Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar had given notice of an amendment, that it was not his

business to talk of Theosophy at the meeting of the Senate, but he should like to warn the Senate against the danger that the members of the Senate might be thinking about Theosophy when they should really be thinking about the motion before the house. He wished to make the position perfectly clear by asking the simple question whether the University was prepared to debar any candidate from appearing for its examinations or to deny him his degrees because he was a Theosophist. There could only be one answer to that question, and that was sufficient answer to anybody who wanted to examine the theosophical or religious aspect of the proposition. He was afraid that it was seldom the good fortune of the Senate to resolve upon any course of action which met with universal approval, and he was afraid that the present occasion would be a further illustration of the truth of that statement. But he was perfectly confident that at the close of the discussion of the proposition the Senate would come to a decision which would be in perfect keeping with the accepted principles of this University and with its traditions.

Mr. C. P. Ramasami Iyer seconded the motion and reserved his remarks.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar rose to move his amendment.

Mr. G. A. Natesan rose to a point of order and said that Section 21 of the Indian Universities Act laid out certain tests in considering applications for affiliation of institutions, and there was no mention of religious test there. Within the last four years they affiliated four colleges where the Bible was taught.

The Vice-Chancellor ruled that the Senate could record an opinion though Government was the authority granting affiliation. He was not prepared to rule that there was limitation on the opinions that the Senate might record.

MR. SRINIVASA IYENGAR'S AMENDMENT.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar then moved the following amendment:—

That at the end of the motion the following words be added:—'and provided that no religious instruction is given in the college which is not in conformity with the ordinary accepted tenets of any long established religion, such as Hinduism, Christianity or Muhammadanism to which the students may belong.'

The mover of the amendment pointed out that, in discussing this question, he was as free from bias as any other. It was a question of the truest interest of education which ought to be considered by the members of the Senate in discussing the

motion. Personally he was for the affiliation of the High School as a second grade college, but he took the opportunity on this occasion to raise his feeble voice in protest of the Theosophical Educational Trust. Unlike other colleges, they noticed in the Memorandum of Association attached to the agenda paper that one of the objects of the Theosophical Educational Trust is 'to establish schools and colleges which shall be open to students of every faith and in which religious instruction shall be an integral part of education.' He was personally in favour of a merely secular type of education. The Trust insisted on imparting religious instruction. Looking to the constitution of the Trust as well as the governing body, it was said that the members of the Trust shall all belong to the Esoteric section of the Theosophical Society with the President of the Trust as the head. So far as the governing body was concerned the President of the Trust had absolute discretion to appoint three other members on the governing body. The Principal was a member of the Esoteric section, and it was the head of that section that had power to appoint additional members of the governing body. It would thus be seen that the whole thing was in the hands of the President, who was also the President of the Trust and whose activities in that direction did not require enlargement by him in the Senate meeting, and he certainly did not require the warning about preserving the dignity of the Senate which he was as anxious to preserve as Mr. Ramunni Menon or any other member of the house. He owed a sacred duty to his country and to the cause of true University education, and he felt it his duty to express his severest condemnation of the Theosophical Educational Trust and its activities. It was stated that a number of Theosophists wanted to send their boys to the college at Madanapalle, and it was therefore perfectly obvious that theosophy would be taught in that college. If religious instruction was to be made compulsory and become an integral part of education, the Senate should insist that there should be no religious instruction or, if any religious instruction was to be imparted, it should be in accordance with the principles of well known religions such as Hinduism, Muhammadanism or Christianity. He was told that the members of the Esoteric section and members of the Theosophical Society claimed Theosophy as a religion. He could not understand, as an ordinary human being, that Theosophy really cultivated any religious feeling, and he was not sure that it was not more calculated to produce superstitious beliefs. Quite recently there was a circular announcing the Star of the East. The coming of a world teacher was

announced, and boys under 21 years of age were to be enrolled as members of the Star of the East. It was perfectly clear that theosophical activities were not confined to men who had passed middle age but were addressed to children below 21 years of age. No member of the Senate was unaware of what the Theosophical Society was. The Society spoke of mahatmas, avatars, world teachers, &c., and he considered that there should be some protection or some undertaking given that the kind of religious instruction given in the College would be in conformity with the well-known religions of the world. It was not to be a religion which came into existence a few years ago. Educational interests ought not to be mixed up with religious instruction which was likely to bring down the efficiency of the College. He reminded the house that about two years ago the Central Hindu College at Benares, which was under the control of a theosophical body, was a scene of anarchy and the teaching staff refused to obey the orders of the governing body. All those incidents were published by Mr. Bhagavan Das, who knew everything about those matters. In order that Madanapalle might not be disturbed by factions and personalities and all kinds of religious disturbances it was necessary to obtain from the authorities of the College a wholesome undertaking of the nature indicated in the amendment. It might be that two years hence there might be an uproar in the locality and the College might fall to pieces. The Senate should have a guarantee of permanency and peaceful progress. The amendment was perfectly innocuous and hurt nobody. The religious instruction must provide the widest liberty of conscience, which should not be interfered with by the Educational Trust. It was possible that Theosophy of the Esoteric type might not be taught in the classes, but outside the classes associations might be formed and they should see that the governing body was properly constituted and that the teachers were proper teachers. He quite admitted that in the case of Missionary institutions the conscience clause might be insisted upon. If a Hindu student or Muhammadan student went to a Christian institution where the Bible was taught, he knew that Christianity was taught, and guardians were on the guard, but when a student went to a Theosophical institution he was told that in the religious instruction given there was Hinduism, Zoroastrianism, Islamism, Judaism and every other religion. It was that kind of insidious religious instruction that he objected to. Let students have religious education by all means, but let it be education, sound, undefiled, and of a type which all

might learn with pleasure and gratitude. The past history of the Central Hindu College gave them room for anxiety. The constitution of the Educational Trust also gave room for anxiety. He wished that his friends would discuss the matter in the same spirit in which he had viewed it, and he hoped that they would give credit to other persons for that sincerity of feeling which they claimed for themselves.

Mr. K. Srinivasa Iyer, J. G. seconded the amendment.

The meeting was resumed on 6th instant, with the Hon'ble Sir John Wallis, Kt. Vice-Chancellor, in the chair.

When the discussion was resumed Mr. G. A. Natesan said that he apprehended that in the consideration of the question, a discussion on the merits of religion would creep in. The chief thing in the University Act in the matter of affiliation was how far the conditions of affiliation were fulfilled. The report of the Trust showed that they had already fulfilled several of the conditions and there was a promise that the rest of the conditions would be fulfilled. He thought that there were two radical misconceptions in the amendment proposed. The question involved was a large and debatable one. In the matter of the teaching of religion it was not a matter in the hands of the boys. The parents of the boys had a choice in the matter. In accepting the amendment they would be undertaking a great responsibility. After all the working of the institution will be supervised by Government, and there were a number of others who would take jelly good care of the school, and there was no fear that religious tenets will be interfered with. In conclusion he referred to the accepted and the declared policy of Government to observe religious neutrality.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar said that out of deference to the opinion of the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyar and of the opinion of several of his friends that that was not the proper place for him to move the amendment he begged leave to withdraw the same. He assured the house that he did not want to create any bitterness of feeling among any section of the people; and he added that since last he spoke in the house, his friend, Mr. Hanumantha Rao, told him that he had a talk with Mr. Wood, who assured him that the Trust had been altered and that it was not exclusively open to the members of the Esoteric section.

The amendment was by leave withdrawn.

The consideration of the original resolution regarding affiliation was then proceeded with, and Mr. R. Littlehales said that he did not think, on the information before him, that the management of the governing body of the school satisfied the provisions of Section 21 of the Universities Act. He did not think that an absolute investigation had been made in the matter by the Syndicate. It looked to him on a reading of clause 10 of the memorandum of the management of the governing body that the entire management was in the hands of one person, that person being the President of the Theosophical Trust. For his part he would not accept the constitution.

Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar said that he did not see any objection in the management of the governing body. The Trust showed considerable willingness in making the alterations in the management and promised to consider further alterations if any were proposed. After all the question of management still rested with the Syndicate, which was a responsible body and will look into the matter carefully.

Mr. A. Chatterton also objected to the management of the governing body, and he endorsed the opinion of Mr. Littlehales.

The resolution was put to the vote and carried, 31 voting for and 17 against.

CENTRAL COLLEGE, BANGALORE.

In the absence of the Rev. Dr. Skinner, the Rev. A. Moffat moved and Mr. B. Hanumantha Rao seconded the further affiliation of the Central College, Bangalore, in Group III of the Intermediate courses.

Mr. Mark Hunter remarked, with reference to the report of the Rev. E. M. Macphail, that he was not sure that there were sufficient facilities for library work in history.

The Rev. Mr. Macphail pointed out that quite a good library existed at present, and he only referred in his report for provision for separate accommodation.

The resolution was put to the vote and carried.

B. L. DEGREE EXAMINATION.

The Hon'ble Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair moved the adoption of certain revised regulations for the examination for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws in place of the existing Regulations.

In doing so he briefly explained the effect of the new regulations. The Faculty had introduced certain new subjects, such as the Civil and the Criminal Procedure Codes, the Madras Land

Estates Act, the Law of Succession, Revenue Recovery Act, &c. At present students who took the B.L. degrees went out to practice without any knowledge or practical experience on the above subjects. In justice to the clients he did not think it right to do so. The addition of these subjects was undoubtedly to the interest of the students. In Madras the students after passing the examination had to pass the apprentices' examination, and during the period of their apprenticeship they did not devote much attention to chamber work. The new subjects were such that every body ought to know before passing the examination. The other alterations proposed were that with the addition of these subjects in the curriculum it was thought that a two years' course was not enough and the Faculty had added an additional year's course. Certain alterations in the order of the examination of the subjects had also been made, and they had introduced more of Indian Law than English Law. Lastly the fee for the examination had been reduced from Rs.30 to Rs.25.

Mr. Arthur Davies seconded the motion.

Mr. K. B. Ramanatha Iyer proposed to refer the subject back to the Faculty of Law to see if it could not be possible not to expand the course to three years.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyer said that it would be absolutely unnecessary to refer the matter back to the Faculty of Law who came to an unanimous opinion on the subject without any dissension. He was aware that there was considerable correspondence on the subject and that one leading Indian paper conducted by a legal gentleman led the opposition. He briefly enumerated what were the advantages in the revised regulations. After passing the B.L., out of the students that appeared for the apprentices' examination only 30 per cent. passed, and in one year he was told that the percentage was as low as 19 per cent. By the new regulations they would be removing this examination. At present students going to the mofussil after taking the degree had absolutely no experience of the Civil Procedure Code and were unable to draw up the plaints, a work which was done now mostly by their clerks. It was absolutely necessary that they should have some knowledge of procedure. Another advantage which the opposition had failed to recognise was that there was a change in the rule in the minima. There were only two minima required under the new regulations instead of a separate minimum for each subject as at present. There had been, he said, some complaints that the

students were made to learn a good deal of English Law. On this subject he trusted that Mr. Davies would see that no cumbersome details were taught and that only rudimentary principles were got through.

Mr. G. A. Natesan opposed the resolution and pointed out that only 20 per cent. of those who passed the B.L. went up for the apprentices' examination. As regard the apprentices being not useful to their masters and not doing their chamber work, he remarked that before their enrolment their books were examined by more than one Judge and passed by them.

Mr. C. P. Ramasami Aiyer said that when the Faculty was called he was of the opinion that Jurisprudence and Roman Law should be eliminated, and the study of the law of the country should be made an immediate study. But the Faculty was of opinion that to make the B.L. study a real study and to equip the professional man to fight the battle of life, a knowledge of Jurisprudence and Roman Law was necessary. For all these it was considered that a two years' course was not enough, and the course was accordingly extended by another year.

Mr. K. Ramanujachariar said that the chief point of those who were in favour of the change was that those who went to practice in the mofussil immediately after passing the examination were not fit to do so. They allowed students after being called to the Bar in England to come to India and practice without any knowledge or practice of procedure. As for the drawing up of plaints he thought it was only a matter of experience and that any amount of knowledge of procedure would not enable a student to draw up a plaint without fault.

Dr. S. Swaminathan, speaking in favour of the proposition, said that sending back the question to the Faculty of Law would serve no useful purpose. The Faculty held five sittings and had carefully considered the question. He pointed out that the house had very great responsibilities in conferring the degree of Bachelor of Laws on students and that the consequences of not turning out fully equipped men were very great.

Sir V. C. Desikachariar said that some of the remarks made of the lawyers who went to the mofussil almost amounted to defamation. He asked if Dr. Swaminathan had studied Hindu Law before he was enrolled and that if he was not a successful Barrister now. It seemed to him that in deciding the question, the Faculty had started with the notion of a three years' course and found the subjects required for it. If Bar-

risters could be exempted from passing an examination in these subjects, he asked why the unfortunate men who took the Indian degree of B. L. should be burdened with it. It was the duty of the High Court to make rules to turn out a practical lawyer. The object of the University was to give the student a general grinding and leave him to attain the rest. Though he was in general agreement with the scheme, it seemed to him to be a mistake to extend the course to three years.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyenger said that on the whole the recommendation of the Faculty deserved the consideration of the Senate.

Mr. Arthur Davies, speaking in favour of the motion from the point of view of the head of the Law College, said that there were two distinct advantages in giving a three years' course for students. At present the second year's course was a killing course, having a number of subjects crammed into it. Even without the addition of the new subjects now proposed an extension of the course would be welcome, and with a little more experience he would have moved for it. He thought that it was a kindness to students to give a three years' course and give them an opportunity for studying at leisure. Instead of undergoing one year's training in the High Court, one year's study in the Law College was good to the student. Personally he had one word more to say in regard to the remark of Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyer to the teaching of English Law. He pointed out that in the matter of lecturing they had to take stock of the examiners. He had to lecture sometimes on abstruse points of law, a duty which but for the examiners he would be most willing to avoid. If their College was only giving academic instruction, then a two years' course would be enough. As it was where academic instruction was combined with professional instruction a three years' course was necessary.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri said that to remedy the difficulties referred to by the speakers in favour of the proposition, the Apprentice Examination should be made applicable both to students practising in Madras and in the mofussil. That certainly seemed to him to be the best arrangement. He thought that the High Court Judges who came forward to make these radical changes in the University might well propose the same to the High Court.

Mr. Mark Hunter asked how the new proposals affected the finances of the University, and the Vice-Chancellor replied that they affected favourably.

Khan Bahadur Muhammed Aziz-ud-din Sahib remarked that the introduction of the three years' course would result in a reduction in the number of lawyers.

After Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair had briefly replied to the above observations, the amendment of Mr. Ramanadha Aiyer to refer the question back to the Faculty was put to the vote and lost, and the original proposition was put to the vote and carried by a majority.

Following the adoption of the above resolution, Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair moved a consequential new regulation fixing the dates of the new examinations. The first Examination in Law will be held in 1916, the second in 1917, and the last or the B. L. Degree Examination in 1918. Under the regulations now in force the First Examination will be held until 1917 and the B. L. Degree Examination until the year 1918. The regulation also contains other details as to the conditions for qualification.

The resolution, which was seconded by Dr. Swaminathan, was carried.

Mr. K. B. Ramanatha Aiyer moved and Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Aiyer seconded the amendment to the existing regulation so as to allow the holding of an additional ordinary meeting in July instead of only two as at present in March and October.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar proposed to substitute August for July, and the mover accepted it.

The Rev. Mr. Macphail objected to this and said that they had already sufficient materials in the regulations to call for any extra special meetings on the requisition of ten members. He said there would be no material advantage gained by carrying the amendment which on the other hand would cost the University a good deal of money.

After some discussion the resolution was put to the vote and lost.

DRAVIDIAN LANGUAGES.

Mr. C. Ramalinga Reddi proposed and the Rev. Mr. E. M. Macphail seconded that a recommendation be made to the Syndicate to constitute separate Boards of Studies for Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Canarese in place of the present Boards of Studies for Dravidian languages.

The Vice-Chancellor remarked that the Syndicate viewed the proposal with favour and it was carried.

INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

Mr. C. Ramalinga Reddi proposed to omit Regulation 182 which laid down that when a candidate failed to pass the examination on the first occasion, he should produce a certificate of having attended an additional year in an affiliated College on the next occasion. He said that the present ruling was hard on students who wished to appear for the examination a second time privately, and he did not see any reason why the student should be penalised by being compelled to put in an additional year's attendance at a college.

Khan Bahadur Muhammed Aziz-ud-din Sabib seconded the resolution.

The Rev. Mr. Macnail opposed the resolution and said that it seemed to him extraordinary that Mr. Ramalinga Reddi should have assumed this attitude. He thought it most important that a failed student should once again go to the College. He remarked that it was very exceptional for a student to do any real work when he was out of college.

Rao Bahadur K. Ramanuja Chary and Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar also opposed the resolution, while Mr. K. B. Ramanadha Aiyar supported it on the ground that considerable difficulty was experienced by failed students to get admission into colleges.

The resolution was lost; and in the alternative Mr. Ramalinga Reddi proposed to add to Regulation 182 the words "in the subjects comprised in the part in which he has failed." The proposition, which was seconded by Mr. G. Venkataranga Rao was also lost.

THE B. A. DEGREE EXAMINATION.

A resolution similar to the above to omit regulation 193 in respect of production of attendance certificate for an additional year by failed candidates in the B.A. Degree Examination, of which notice had been given by Mr. Ramalinga Reddi, was by leave withdrawn.

INDIAN HISTORY.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar proposed certain amendments to Regulation 209 so as to make the study of the constitutional history of India a special feature in the Honours Course.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri seconded the proposition.

Mr. F. E. Corley said that the matter of the provision of the study of history in the Honours Course had the hearty support of the Board of Studies.

The proposition to refer the subject to the Board of Studies was approved.

This concluded the subjects on the agenda and the meeting terminated.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

A meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate House, College Square. The Hon'ble Dr. Deva Prosad Sarvadhikari, Vice-Chancellor of the University, presided and there was a large attendance of members.

Dr. Rash Behary Ghose Endowment.

The following gentlemen were elected to be members of the governing body of the Dr. Rash Behary Ghose Endowment for the year 1915-16:—Babu Ramendra Sunder Trivedi, Mr. S. C. Mahalanobis, Dr. P. Brühl and Mr. J. R. Banerji.

Sir Tarak Nath Palit Endowment.

The following gentlemen were elected to be members of the governing body of the Sir Tarak Nath Palit Endowment for the year 1915-16:—Babu Ramendra Sunder Trivedi, Mr. Heramba Chandra Moitra, Dr. P. Brühl and the Rev. Dr. J. Watt.

Bihar National College.

It was then resolved that in addition to the affiliation already granted to the Bihar National College, Bankipur, it be further affiliated in Persian to the B.A. Honours standard, with effect from the session 1915-16.

Convocation, March 8, 1915.

His Excellency the Viceroy, Chancellor of the Calcutta University, accompanied by His Excellency Lord Carmichael, presided over the annual Convocation held on Saturday, the 6th March, at the Town Hall.

The Convocation was declared open by His Excellency the Chancellor, upon which the candidates for degrees were presented to the Hon. the Vice-Chancellor as he went round and he conferred the various Degrees. No less than 1,300 B.A. Degrees were given, while there were 317 M.A.'s, 230 B.Sc.'s, 279 B.L.'s, 55 M.Sc.'s, 55 M.B.'s, 110 B.E.'s, 2 M.D.'s, 1 M.L. and 1 Ph. D.

The degrees having been conferred, the H. E. Chancellor addressed the Convocation in a long and stirring speech giving sound advice to students.

Reviews and Notices

A SHORT HISTORY OF ENGLISH, BY H. C. WYLD (JOHN MURRAY). 6s. net.

Mr. Wyld has already established his reputation as a writer of excellent manuals on the subject of the English language. We expect his *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue* is quite a favourite with students of the subject. But a good part of it is taken up with the discussion of general questions of Philology, and a *History of the English Language* in a more restricted sense, like the book under review, is therefore very welcome. The developments of linguistic research render manuals of language very soon out of date and it is a great advantage to have the latest results in a book of this description. The book is precise, thorough and comprehensive and sustains fully the reputation which Mr. Wyld has already acquired. We have only one complaint against the book—it is very much less readable than the author's *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue* and there are numerous pages which contain only tables of linguistic forms and sounds.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION, BY R. S. BATE (BELL AND SONS). 2s. 6d.

It may be that "of making books there is no end," but we really need some more books on composition. Mr. Bate has published a very valuable guide to the teacher of English Composition, and we hope the book will be used extensively by teachers of the subject in our Presidency. The author has adopted the very rational plan of pursuing the study of Composition from the *Elements of Style*, from words, sentences and paragraphs to the essay in its completeness as a whole. The usefulness of the book might probably have been enhanced by a discussion of Composition with regard to its aims, narration, exposition, persuasion and description, and with regard to the qualities of style, intellectual and emotional. There is a very valuable chapter on Punctuation, a subject in which knowledge does not seem to exist in any abundance, and another on common errors of speech and writing.

THE GOLDEN BOOK OF ENGLISH VERSE, BY J. W. HOLME (K. AND J. COOPER, BOMBAY).

It gives us great pleasure to see the Indian firm of Messrs. K. and J. Cooper, coming up to a

high level of usefulness as educational publishers by some really good books which they have been recently issuing. This anthology has a special interest, as it strives at the development of aesthetic taste in children, and does not encourage the tendency towards moralisation which is unfortunately the most serious weakness of anthologies generally placed before students. Some of our well-known favourites are there, and it is particularly cheerful to see the book begin with the well-known lines of Browning's *Pippa Passes*:

The year is at the spring,
And day's at the morn;
.....
God's in His heaven
All's right with the world.

We have nothing to complain of, with regard to most of the pieces selected, but we should certainly ask for the exclusion of pieces which are not by well-known writers. The works of the recognised poets in English are not so devoid of pieces suitable for students at school, that one should go in for excerpts from anonymous writers and from persons of the reputation of Sylvester, Mackay, Flatman, Lord Vaux and other such worthies. But why should there be initials before such well-known names as that of Marlowe? We notice the author is anxious to style Shakespeare also as 'W. Shakespeare,'—we can assure him there is no chance of his being mistaken for another.

FORT AMITY, BY SIR ARTHUR QUILLER-COUCH; ABRIDGED BY H. MALIM, M. A. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). 1 Rupee.

We confess we have no particular fascination for abridgments of literary classics—we are even disposed to resent such liberty to some extent. And when the so-called literary masterpiece happens to be a novel by Sir Quiller-Couch and not by any of the recognised masters of English Fiction, we confess we are quite depressed by the prospect before us. It is some consolation that the subject of the novel is as the Editor at least tells us, 'honour and friendship,' but are there not such themes in Scott and Stevenson and why should the unfortunate Indian student be asked to read second-hand reproductions of novels written by a person whose only claim to literary distinction is his having edited one or two good anthologies for the Oxford University Press? Mr. Malim is thus somewhat unfortunate in his choice of subject but he may be said

to have done his own work quite well. We do not however see much scope for literary inspiration from sentences of this type. "They lived and died as ordinary peoples do." "The voice was lost in the roar of the falls, now drumming loud in John's ears." We are sure the following sentence stands in need of considerable improvement:—"Hither John had crept, with the support of a stick, to enjoy the sunshine and the view, and here the Commandant had found him and was talking with him, walking him and to and fro, with pauses now and again, beside a gun for a few minutes' rest." What next? This exquisite model of composition has only to be prescribed for a University Examination.

SELECTED ENGLISH, by RAY PHILLIPS (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD). 2s. 6d.

A book without an index is not the only variety that can annoy a reader—a book without a preface sometimes threatens to be even a more serious evil. Mr. Phillips does not tell us what his *Selected English* is for; the nature of the contents has not taken us any further and we have only been mystified by a division of the selected specimens into three parts without any obvious point. The selection of passages of poetry may be intended for the purpose of creating literary taste and fostering a genuine love for literature, but we cannot certainly congratulate the writer on his selection of *The Church of Bru* from amidst all the work of Matthew Arnold. He could certainly have found very much better specimens of Wordsworth's Muse than his Sonnet on *Mary, Queen of Scots*. It is curious again that the Editor should have thought Goldsmith's *Retaliation*, a poem easy enough for schools. We should hesitate to attempt teaching it to any class below that of the B. A. degree in India and even in England it could not be used much earlier.

KING ARTHUR: STORIES FROM THE IDYLLS OF THE KING: RE-WITTEN IN PROSE, BY H. MALIM, M. A. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). 12 as.

It was an excellent idea of Mr. Malim's to narrate the stories of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* in prose. The book must serve as a useful introduction to the work of the poet. Even more advanced readers would probably like to have the tales in such a handy form, suitable especially for purposes of reference. Mr. Malim has denied himself the benefit of interspersing the narration with quotations from Tennyson.

Romances of Chivalry, without even occasional touches of poetry are rather dull and uninteresting. We hope that in the next edition—the book deserves to run into it—the improvement will be introduced. We wish there had been some coloured illustrations even at the cost of a slightly higher price for the book.

POETS FOR SCHOOLS, by R. SCOTT (K. AND J. COOPER). 12 as

Messrs. K. and J. Cooper of Bombay deserve to be congratulated on this excellent production. The anthology consists of the best specimens from Cowper, Wordsworth, Campbell, Longfellow and Tennyson who have been chosen by the editor as among the easiest of English poets. The introduction gives a critical and biographical account of the poets from whose writings extracts have been chosen. There are portraits of all the poets reproduced and considering the get-up of the book, the price is remarkably cheap.

CHILDE HAROLD'S PILGRIMAGE, BOOKS I AND II, EDITED BY SCRIMGEOUR (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Re. 1-8-0.

This is a fairly good edition of the first two cantos of Byron's *Childe Harold*. The Introduction might very well have been made more interesting, especially as the poet is Byron, and the particular piece to be commented upon is *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. We are not particularly impressed by the beginning of the biographical account "Lord Byron was inordinately proud of his title, his pedigree, and his ancient memorial seat." Again, when the notes are given below the text on each page, there is hardly any need for disfiguring the lines with numerical references. A random examination of the notes has revealed several defects. "*Mede* is here equivalent to Persian" is not particularly informing. It is possible to give a more precise meaning to Vizier, than what has been attempted by the Editor: "It is the name of a high functionary in Mahomedan countries." Could he be the *Field-Marshal* or the *Archbishop*—we wonder. It is probably not necessary to explain to students who have ventured to read Byron's *Childe Harold*, that 'lurk' means "lie hidden" and that 'averted' means "asserted." It is desirable that the Editor should allow the student the opportunity of referring to the dictionary at least on some occasions.

PATRIOTIC POEMS, EDITED BY R. M. LEONARD (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). 7d.

There is only one answer possible to the question of Scott:

Breathes there the man, with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land!

and this excellent collection of patriotic poems will therefore make a universal appeal to all the readers of poetry in the English speaking world. The volume is particularly opportune now, in view of the mighty call now answered so gloriously by all parts of the Empire. All the best specimens of English Patriotic Poetry have been included in the volume. There is Shakespeare's noble eulogy of

This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd
isle,

This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise.

Cowper's patriotic avowal:

England, with all thy faults, I love thee still—
My country! and, while yet a nook is left
When English maids and manners may be
found,

Shall be constrained to love thee.

and Swinburne's rhapsody over the land that sea-tides clasp. The anthology also includes a number of poems glorifying the deeds of English heroes. We can assure the Oxford University Press that in the publication of such volumes they are combining business with real service to the Empire.

THE FUNDAMENTAL UNITY OF INDIA, BY RADHAKUMUD MUKERJEE, M.A., (MESSRS. LONGMANS'). 3s. 6d.

This little book is an attempt at examining how far India can be regarded as fundamentally a unity for purposes of the study of its history and civilization. It is a notorious fact that India is ordinarily regarded as a mere geographical expression and as such can lay no claim whatsoever to be considered a political unity, at any rate in pre-British days, with any claim to a distinct nationality for its people. Mr. Mukerjee begins with the assumption that the primary factor of nationality is the possession of a common country. He points out in spite of her vastness and variety there is a geographical unity. He next examines how far this unity finds expression in the historic consciousness of the

Hindus. He lays stress on the fact that to the Aryan Hindu India was Bharata-Varsha or the land of Bharata. He next examines the Hindu texts beginning with the river-hymn of the Rig Veda and coming up to the various defining expressions which are the necessary preliminary to any religious act up to the present time, and finds in them uniform acknowledgment of 'the common fatherland in the designation Bhārata-Varsha and Jamhu-Dweepa. Another element of this fundamental unity is traceable in the institution of pilgrimage to holy shrines and to holy waters. This institution does make for a larger acquaintance with, and a deeper knowledge of, the country as a whole in spite of want of facilities of communication in olden times.

The same unity of feeling finds expression in Buddhist India in the large number of monuments which are found all over the country. This knowledge of the country and the resulting unity of feeling as a whole finds expression in the various branches of literature in the Pāli texts of Buddhism, in the grammatical works of Panini and Katyayana, the Arthashastra of Kautilya, in the accounts of Greek travellers, in the geography of the Asoka edicts. The geography of Patanjali no less than that of the Puranas support this view which finds confirmation in the knowledge implied in the Brihat-Sambhita of the astronomer Varāhamihira and the classical poets chiefly Kalidasa. This religious conception of the unity of Bharata-Varsha finds complimentary expression in politics by the constantly recurring idea of the establishment of the institution of an Empire in the whole of Indian History. Mr. Mukerjee proceeds to examine this notion historically, and finds the idea underlying all political thought from Chandragupta Maurya backwards to the Vedic times. The ceremonies specifically fixed for the coronations of the Emperors, particularly the details and procedure of the Vajapeya and Rajasuya sacrifices, could indicate nothing else than an attempt to give expression to the idea of a United India. This idea of an All-India overlordship is preserved in the lists of paramount kings in the Brahmanas in the Mahabharata, and in the Puranas. Even the Arthashastra gives expression to the conception of an All-India overlord followed by a list of kings who realise that ideal. Such a paramount sovereign is called Chaturantoraja and his dominions Chakravartya-Kshetra. This notion and its realization is preserved to us in the sovereignty under Yudhisra and this current Hindu political notion has shaped early Buddhist speculation about the

true position and work of Buddha, as the spiritual sovereign, as the supreme ruler over the Empire of Righteousness in the hearts of men.

Mr. Mukerjee thus finds that the sovereignty of Chandragupta was no more than a further development of this old institution, as the idea became a common topic for discussion in the Nithisastras. The evidence of inscriptions and the colonising movement are, according to him, further expressions of this prevalent notion. As a book which "attempts to lay the only foundation upon which an Indian Historical school can rest" the book deserves to be widely read and carefully pondered over. Messrs. Longman's have done their part as well as is usual with them.

We discovered however two or three slips of proof-reading which are slight; but one false identification we feel bound to point out. On page 29 in the foot-note 1, Sri Saila is equated with the Palni Hills in Madura. We are not able to guess what led Mr. Mukerjee to this identification. The first line of the Sanskrit text on page 26 of the book under review refers to God Siva in Sri Sailam whose designation is Mallikarjuna in that shrine. Both the name of the place and of the God refer to Sri Sailam in the Kurnool District, a remarkably holy place for the devotees of Siva, and a place of considerable importance even in Buddhist history as connected with Nagarjuna and his activities. We hope this correction will be made when a new edition of the book is called for as we hope it will be ere long.

THE TEACHING OF INDIAN HISTORY: AN INAUGURAL LECTURE BY W. H. HUTTON, B. D., READER IN INDIAN HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD (THE OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS), 1s.

We welcome this publication from the Oxford University Press with great pleasure on an occasion when the study of Indian History is receiving the long needed attention from the local University as is evidenced by the appointment of a Professor of Indian History and Archaeology. The Inaugural Address before us was delivered at the beginning of last year when the present Reader assumed charge of the office to which he was appointed in succession to the late Sidney J. Owen and Vincent A. Smith who was for a while Deputy Reader after the much lamented death of the former. Mr. W. H. Hutton begins his inaugural address very properly with a brief sketch of the life of his illustrious predecessor whose

work as Reader has left an indelible monument in the editions of the Wellesley's and Wellington's Despatches—not to mention works like the Fall of the Moghal Empire. The address then passes in review the work already done in the study of British Indian History to which alone the Oxford Readership is limited, and points out with a refreshing warmth of enthusiasm the vast field of work that lies before students of Modern Indian History. He next notes with regret that so far no provision has been made in Oxford for the study of Indian History in general and would like to direct the attention of those who have the control of the Chancellor's Fund to this strange omission. He says 'A period of world's history of extraordinary interest and of really enormous importance is entirely neglected in our provision for learning, education and research,' and draws pointed attention to the declaration of Bishop Stubbs, made so long ago as 1876. 'At the present moment we want,' then said the Regius Professor of Modern History, 'we want a permanent chair of Indian History. The labours of our friend the present Indian Reader have shown us how thoroughly that study, the importance of which can scarcely be over-rated by Englishmen, falls in with the current of our University work. I say a permanent chair, because that is a subject of permanent necessity, not a subject like palæography or numismatology, in which the labours of one good professor may serve for two or three generations, and the endowment of the man is of equal importance with the endowment of the chair or study.' He pleads for a *rapprochement* between British and Indian members of Oxford as elsewhere. He considers the need of a sound knowledge of Indian History to the European official great. 'It is our business to supply to those who shall be concerned with present politics the sound knowledge which comes from the study of the past. We must set ourselves to train Indian Historians as well as Indian Lawyers, and soldiers, and civilians and missionaries to give them, with a wide culture, a ground work at least of knowledge and sympathy in the things of the past.

We can but commend these remarks of the Reader of Indian History, may his whole address, to the dons of our University who wish to manufacture specialist graduates in Honours whose greatest qualifications are no width of culture nor any knowledge of the history or culture of their own country.

ELEMENTS OF DESCRIPTIVE ASTRONOMY, BY E. O. TANCOCK (CLARENDON PRESS, 1913.)

The book gives a simple description of the solar system and the most interesting facts about the sun, moon, the different planets, and comets and meteors, besides a short account of the stars and the chief constellations. A short space is devoted to explain the motions of the celestial bodies, but it is too meagre to cause a clear knowledge of these motions, without which no real interest in astronomy can be aroused. A simple model for the celestial sphere is suggested in Chapter X. It consists of a large round-bottomed flask, filled exactly half full with some blue liquid, and corked with a tight-fitting cork through which passes a thin glass rod reaching the bottom of the flask. If the flask be turned upside down and tilted over so that the glass rod sticks out of the middle of the liquid at an angle equal to the latitude of the place, it will serve as a model of the celestial sphere. Coloured elastic bands could be put round the flask to represent the equator and other circles. With this model, the apparent diurnal motions of the celestial bodies, and the variations of the meridian altitudes of the sun and of the length of the day at different places can be explained. Chapter XV is a very useful addition to the book. In it the author gives a list of the astronomical observations that can be made with a small telescope, with instructions for the same. There is also a list of questions and exercises appended.

HISTORICAL COURSE FOR MIDDLE FORMS (1914): VOL. III, THE ENGLISH NATION: CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY, BY P. MEADOWS, M.A.; VOL. IV, THE ENGLISH NATION: POLITICAL AND GENERAL HISTORY, BY B. L. K. HENDERSON, M.A., D.LIT. (G. BELL AND SONS, LTD.), 2s. each.

The first two volumes of this 'Course' have already been noticed by us. These two volumes maintain the level of excellence reached by the two previous volumes. We commend the judiciousness which the editors of the 'Course' have shown in having enabled English History to be studied in its several aspects, and in also having provided a suitable introduction to the study of English History in their volume on Western Europe. The speeches made in the divorce trial between Henry VIII and Catherine, Sir T. Smith's remarks on the classes of the people in the 16th

century, the Church of England's memorial to the Prince of Orange, the instructions for the pacification of the Highlands, Lady Montagu's account of the Court of George I, Burke's description of the character of the colonists and Hargrave's account of his discovery of gold are some of the documents included, and show how carefully the books have been prepared. The history of parties in England cannot be better elucidated than by the selections given here—from Bolingbroke's Dissertation, Burke's Thoughts on the Present Discontents, and one of Mr. Balfour's Speeches. The books deserve every encouragement that teachers of history can give.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF ORGANIC CHEMISTRY, BY H. T. CLARKE (LONGMANS & Co.), pp. vi, 484. 6s. 6d.

The book has been written to meet the needs of candidates preparing for elementary examinations in organic chemistry. It aims to present the subject so as to display its orderly principles and structural unity rather than its experimental details. The author has carried out his object in a very satisfactory manner. He has endeavoured to avoid dogmatism and lead the student through a careful study of facts, to let him see for himself the reasons for adopting the prevalent views regarding the structure of carbon compounds.

But as an introductory text-book, the book is very defective to a student 'who is assumed to be entirely unfamiliar with the nature of organic substances' to whom the method of presentation is said to be intended by the author, the book will be of little educative value without a course of properly selected experiments illustrating the methods used in preparing the principal classes of compounds and the fundamental reactions involved in their transformations, the use of such a book will lead to cramming.

The entire absence of experimental details is a serious drawback in an introductory treatise intended for beginners.

THE LITERARY JOURNAL: (THE YOUNG MEN'S LITERARY ASSOCIATION, MADRAS.)

The first three issues of this journal now before us are an eloquent testimony to the powers of organisation, and the literary abilities of our youths. Evidently conducted by an Association the greater portion of the members of which comes from the student-world, the journal gives

proof of the high abilities of the youths whose contributions appear every month. The first issue contains an article from the pen of one of our best educationists, Mr. K. Sundararaman, but we cannot acquit it of the charge that is often brought against the writings of some of our countrymen,—that of relying too much on the opinions and the words of even second-rate European writers. In the second issue there is an article by Mr. Seshadri on the Indian Renaissance, in which much stress,—some of us would incline to think it too much stress,—is laid on the new elements that are entering into our life. It is also worthy of note that the general tone of the journal inclines towards conservatism,—the contributions from the the young writers seeking to put forward views which young men of a decade ago would have thought too narrow,—and we take this as a sign that Young India is realising, through greater love of self-respect, the good that is in the old life.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

- Historical Course for Middle Forms: Vol. III, The English Nation: Constitutional History, by P. Meadows, M.A. 2s.; Vol. IV, Political and General History, by B. L. K. Henderson, M.A., D. Litt. 2s. London: Bell.
- The Abbey History Readers: Book VI, English History in the Victorian Era (1837-1912). 1s. London: Bell.
- The Growth of Parliament and War with Scotland (1216-1307), by W. D. Robinson, M.A. 1s. net. London: Bell.
- General European History (1789 to 1900), by Thatcher and Schwiller. 2s. 6d. London: Murray.
- Congress Green Book VII: Protected Prices in India, by Sir David Wedderburn, Bart. London: British Congress Committee. 3d.
- Report on Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency for 1913-1914. Madras: Government Press. 7 as.
- Physical Geography, by Philip Lake, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 7s. 6d. net.
- Shakespeare's King John, edited by A. J. F. Collins, M.A. 2s. London: Clive.
- Lynette and Her Kitchen-Knight, retold by Marie Bayne. London: Chambers. 2d.
- Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare, with Illustrative Extracts from the Plays, 3d. London: Chambers.

Charles Kingsley's *Herward the Wake*, abridged by H. Martin, M.A. Bombay: Oxford University Press. Re. 1.

The Indian School Atlas, by J. G. Bartholomew, F.R.G.S. Bombay: Oxford University Press. PAMPHLETS FROM THE C. L. S., MADRAS.

Rudimentary Reflections on the War, by Dr. William Miller, LL.D., C.I.E.

Why England is at War with Germany, Austria and Turkey, in Tamil and Telugu. 3 ps. each.

Lord's Supper, in Telugu. 2 ps.

Ethics of Nursing in Telugu. 2 ps.

Christianity—What it means, in Telugu, 2 ps.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

His Excellency the Governor's visit to the Municipal High School, Walajapet.—His Excellency Lord Pentland with his party paid a flying visit to this town recently. In front of the High School a large and spacious pandal was specially put up. It was very beautifully and tastefully decorated with very nice paper cuttings from Japan.

On one side there was a canopy which was very beautifully decorated with paper flowers of different colours and pearl garlands under which was a seat for the Governor; on the other side there were arranged on tables, female cloths of silk and lace and beautiful carpets all manufactured in this town, which were carefully inspected by the Governor who bought a few of them. Then he was taken round the classes which were in working order and His Excellency made very kind enquiries of every teacher regarding his qualifications and work.

The present school-house is very insufficient for all the Forms according to modern requirements, and a large and a liberal grant for the construction of a suitable building for the school was one of the prayers in the Municipal Address presented to His Excellency at Vellore by the Municipal Council in a beautiful silver casket mounted on caparisoned elephants, to which the Governor made a reply to the effect that the question will be considered when the plans and estimates have been submitted to, and sanctioned by, the authorities responsible.

The Teachers' Association, Hindu High School, Srivilliputtur.—The fifth Anniversary of the above Association was celebrated with great eclat and enthusiasm in the school premises, at 6 P.M. on the 6th instant, with Mr. W. C. Douglas, M.A., Inspector of Schools, in the chair. The meeting was largely attended, most of the elite of the town being present. The proceedings commenced with the singing of benediction songs in Tamil, in praise of Their Imperial Majesties, by some select pupils of the Hindu High Caste Girls' School, whose musical

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treat was very much appreciated by the audience. The next item of the programme was the reading of the annual report by Mr. A. Srinivasachary, B.A., L.T., the Secretary of the Association. The report was very interesting and disclosed several items regarding the efficient working of the Association. The report having been read, Mr. S. Krishna Iyengar, B.A., L.T., the Headmaster of the School, delivered an instructive and thoughtful lecture on 'the formation of character.' In the course of his speech, the lecturer made a striking contrast between the East and the West in matters pertaining to the training of the young in good habits. The President, in his turn, rose up amidst the loud acclamations of his audience, and, after making certain eulogistic remarks about the lecturer of the evening, made a learned speech, giving the subject a psychological treatment, which was much appreciated by the audience. The proceedings were then wound up with a hearty vote of thanks to the chair, proposed by Rao Sahib Mr. K. Srinivasa Iyengar, the Municipal Vice-Chairman.

The Tanjore District Secondary Teachers' Association.—The meeting of the above Association was held on the 6th inst. in "the Edward Secondary School" Mudikondan. The meeting was largely attended by members from Tanjore, Tiruvalur, Mayavaram, Kumbakonam, Umayalpuram and other parts of the district. In the unavoidable absence of the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar Avergal who was to have presided over the meeting, Mr. Rao Bahadur S. Appu Sastriar Avergal was voted to the chair.

The welcome address having been read, the boys of the school treated the audience to a few recitations and dialogues, which received high appreciation and applause.

The first resolution which was moved from the chair ran as follows:—

"That this meeting of the Tanjore District Teachers' Association places on record and communicates to the 'Servants of India Society' and the members of the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale, its deep sense of the irreparable loss this country has sustained in the untimely death of Mr. Gokhale whose self-sacrifice and unparalleled services to the country will ever remain as an ideal and an inspiration to every son of India.

The second resolution, moved by Mr. K. Seshu Aiyer (of Mayavaram) was, "that this meeting of the Tanjore District Teachers' Association while congratulating itself on the election of the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. S. Sastriar Avergal to the high office of the President of the Servants of India Society, prays that he may be blessed with long life, strength and health to discharge his onerous duties."

In moving this, he was aware that the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar would hardly allow himself to be congratulated, as the

work devolving upon him was one of mighty responsibility demanding his most anxious care and solicitude. There could not certainly be any shadow of doubt regarding his capacity and competency. He would only pray God to bless him with long life and sound health.

The President (Rao Bahadur S. Appu Sastriar) said he knew the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar more than anybody else, having been his teacher, and watched him from his boyhood; he referred to the promise of greatness he (V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar) early displayed in school, and his sincerity and earnest devotion to work. He had at just made his mark as a school-master, and whoever might take exception, he (President) was ever of opinion that a schoolmaster, signally successful in school, had in him what might fetch him credit in any public walk of life he might be called to.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar had, besides, the rare privilege and advantage of training under the illustrious Mr. Gokhale, and shared with his teacher the great qualities of sincerity, enthusiasm, and selfless devotion to his country. He, for his part, could think of none better than the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar, on whom could fall the mantle of Mr. Gokhale. If Mr. Ranade had left behind him his richest legacy in Mr. Gokhale, he (President) was sure that Mr. Gokhale in turn left to his country his richest legacy in the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar. He hoped that all those who felt so proud on this occasion would render him whatever help they could to enable him to discharge his great life work. He fervently prayed that God might bless him with sound health.

Next, there was a long and lively discussion on the subject of the present conduct of the examinations. Referring to the time and dates of the examinations, the whole meeting was unanimous that the present time: March—April was totally ill-advised. That being the hottest season of the year, the strain of examination bore particularly hard on the poor Indian youths, and to whomsoever it might be beneficial, it was unquestionably baneful to the Indian examinees, whose interest and convenience, ought, above all, to be primarily consulted. The following resolution was then moved and passed *nam con*:—

"That in the interests of the Indian students it is absolutely necessary that the dates of all public examinations be changed from March—April to December—January."

Discussion next turned on the S. S. L. C. Examination papers set for the last several years, which betrayed a sad ignorance of the level and standard of examinees. The examiners were more guilty of over shooting the mark than its reverse; at all events they could by no means claim to have set standard papers. The S. S. L. C. Text-books were as a rule too many, and either too difficult or too easy. The

"detailed" text-book of the current year was monstrously too high for the standard and the selections from Ecclesiastes, Ruskin, Burke, Lumb, and Meredith were such as to drive the teacher himself to hopeless desperation.

The S. S. L. C. register, quite a big-sized service book, contained a host of entries to be filled in. What laborious processes of calculation, percentage, ranking!—appropriating the best part of the teacher's time and energy. The marking system as recommended to be followed was the most depressing work, almost taking the life out of the teacher.

It was nothing short of cruel tyranny. The scheme itself was not well-framed, and betrayed a literary bias. The (B) group subjects relating to (A) and (C) received but a step-motherly treatment in schools. The Syllabus in each of the (A) and (C) group subjects was far too heavy and bore the impress of a specialist or a faddist innocent of High School limitations and quite oblivious that the school had, besides, to bring up a good many other subjects. The Matriculation Failure Committee attributed the evil of the slaughter of the innocents, among several things, to the exclusion of a sufficient number of headmasters who had a very intimate acquaintance with the capacities of students. It was indeed a strange anomaly that, in the High School Examinations, the High School Teachers should have little or no voice. As a result of this prolonged discussion, the following resolution was proposed and passed without any dissentient voice:—

"That in the interest of true High School education it is indispensable that S. S. L. C. Board should contain a good proportion of Secondary School teachers."

The subject of discussion next was "The Status of Incomplete Secondary Schools." Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar made a very illuminating and feeling speech which extended for nearly one hour. The discussion had, owing to the lateness of the hour, to be postponed to the next meeting. The gist of Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar's speech was that the so-called Incomplete Secondary Schools were essential rungs of the educational ladder, and served a very necessary and useful purpose; they had not been meeting with due recognition, that the department treated them with undue harshness, thrusting upon them a costly L. T. or else driving them to go a begging for headmasters of High Schools to supervise, and make a bad or good bargain with the headmasters on the one and the managers on the other. He would therefore recommend that these incomplete schools be incorporated with or affiliated to some big central High School, to serve like feeders to that parent school, following the same course of studies and syllabuses, having the same examinations and governed by the same headmaster. There should be free intercourse between such branch schools and the High School, and the passage from one to other should be made as smooth and easy as between the several forms and grades of the High School itself.

Leo XIII H. G. S. School, Alleppey.—The Anniversary meeting of the School Literary and Debating Society was celebrated on Monday the 8th instant at 6.39 P. M., in the School Tennis ground under the chairmanship of W. J. Anderson, Esq., and in the presence of a very large gathering of Indian, Anglo-Indian, and European ladies and gentlemen, besides school boys. The grounds were tastefully decorated and beautifully illuminated. The air was delightfully cool. The proceedings opened with a pianoforte-duet by the Rev. M. Rodrigues and Br. Lewis which was brilliantly performed. After an introductory speech by Mr. M. K. George, B. A., L. T., the Headmaster and President, a welcome song was sung by St. Mary's choir attached to the School. This was followed by the school march which was gracefully gone through by the same choir. A comic dialogue by Masters D. Nawawjee and C. E. Meyers next kept every body pleasantly entertained. The Secretary, Mr. K. C. Jacob, then read his report which was a record of much useful work. There were sixteen ordinary meetings, one social meeting and four special lectures, amongst which might be mentioned one lecture on "Student Life in Canada" by Mr. L. A. Dixon, M. A., of the Trivandrum Y. M. C. A. After a humorous recitation by Master Jacob Chandy, which was well-received, the well-known song 'Killarney' was sung by Masters Decorsa and Thomas. The rendering of this delightful song was excellent, evoking much appreciation and, in response to an insistent encore, was repeated. Mr. V. Baliga, B. A., L. T., of the S. D. V. Sala, then amidst loud applause, delivered an inspiring address on the life and work of the late Hon. Mr. Gokhale, dwelling specially on his message to the Indians. An amusing monologue by Master A. J. DeCruz then followed. This over, the war song 'Your King and Country Want You' was feelingly and exquisitely sung by Br. Trindade which met a cordial reception that was well deserved. An elocution contest was another attractive feature of the programme; and the Headmaster's special prize for elocution was awarded to Br. Furtado, the Judges being the Chairman and Mr. K. S. Dharmaraja Iyer, B. A., L. T., of the S. D. V. Sala. An action song was then smartly and splendidly gone through by a few little boys. "The Three Crosses" was next creditably recited by Master L. Fernandez. The Chairman in a neat little speech complemented the performers on their excellent entertainment and eulogised the Society on its successful record, which he said was mainly due to the enthusiasm of the Headmaster and the active co-operation of his staff. He asked the boys to make a special note of the subject of the lecture and strongly appealed to them to study the life and work of the late Hon. Mr. Gokhale, a few Malayalam slokas were then recited by Jenardhan who was in excellent voice and were much appreciated. The singing of the National Anthem and lusty cheers for the King-Emperor, the Maharajah and Pope and the audience closed the pleasant entertainment at 8.30 P. M.

Board High School, Amalapuram.—The Anniversary of the above institution and of the Debating Society attached to it came off on Thursday, the 25th Feb., with E. B. Elwin, Esq., I. C. S., Collector and District Magistrate, Godavari, in the chair. The Headmaster's Report showed the progress made by the school in all directions, and referred to the liberal policy adopted by the Government in giving grants for various educational purposes, and to the disastrous war which was a real blow to human progress. The Secretary of the Debating Society read his Report on the working of the Society. This was followed by some recitations from the boys, after which, took place the main function of the evening namely the distribution of medals and prizes including those for the annual sports held recently.

The Chairman congratulated the Headmaster and his staff on the growing reputation of the school and the prize-winners on their success, and referred particularly to the school having won the Grigg Memorial Medal at the District Athletic Competition for the sixth time in succession at whichever centre it might be held. He agreed with the Headmaster that we in India were feeling a sense of security and immunity from danger in spite of the fury of the war in Europe and elsewhere, and remarked that we were rather too secure here, when bombs were threatening the innocent ladies and children, near the scene of operations. He then dwelt at some length on the lessons of self-sacrifice that might be gleaned from the war and how boys' attention might also be drawn to it. His advice to the boys was equally sound and practical.

The usual vote of thanks brought the proceedings to a close.

GOVERNMENT ORDERS.

The maximum amount of the grant sanctioned for the construction of a hostel for the A. B. M. High School, Nellore, now known as the Coles Ackerman Memorial High School, Nellore, will be raised from Rs. 12,700 to Rs. 27,667.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 17,500, towards the cost of additions to the building of the Islamiah Secondary School, Vaniyambadi, 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 the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code are duly complied with. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available. The grant of Rs. 18,600 sanctioned in G. O. No. 1024, Educational, dated the 10th November 1913, towards the cost of the first and second storeys originally proposed to be added to the school building, is hereby cancelled.

The maximum amount of the grant sanctioned in G. O. No. 1030, Educational, dated the 10th November 1913, towards the cost of additions to St. Joseph's European Convent Girls' High School, Calicut, will be raised from Rs. 7,925 to Rs. 8,674.

Under article 57 of the Code of Regulations for European Schools, the Government are pleased to sanction, as a special case, a grant not exceeding two-thirds of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 7,933, towards the cost of purchasing the building required for the St. Antony's Poor European School, Puduket, Madras, provided that all the conditions prescribed in the Code have been duly complied with. On the above conditions being fulfilled, the grant will be paid as funds become available.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 8,550, towards the cost of purchasing a site and constructing a building for the Sri Saraswati Patasala for girls, Kumbakonam, subject to the following conditions:—(1) that, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his Note No. 1144 C., dated the 11th February 1915, are adopted; (2) that all the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code are duly complied with; and (3) that the sale deed for the site is submitted to the Director of Public Instruction for examination of title-deeds. On the above conditions being fulfilled, the grant will be paid as funds become available. The Government are not satisfied of the necessity for acquiring a site for the school under the Land Acquisition Act. It is understood that suitable sites are available for private purchase.

In supersession of the orders contained in G. O. No. 214, Educational, dated the 22nd March 1913, the Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 2,815, towards the cost of certain additions to the building of San Thome Orphanage, Madras, subject to the following conditions:—(1) that, in the opinion of the Superintending Engineer, the foundations are sufficient and the cost reasonable and all the works have been satisfactorily completed; and (2) that all the conditions prescribed in the Code of Regulations for European schools have been duly complied with. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

The Mahant's School, Tirupati.—The distribution of prizes to the students of this institution took place in the presence of a large gathering, including the Mahant.

Dewan Bahadur L. A. Govinda Raghava Iyer unveiled the portrait of Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Iyer. In doing so Mr. Govinda Raghava Iyer said that it was a dream of his boyhood that an ideal University should be founded in connection with the Devasthanam Charities, where oriental learning might be combined with western culture and methods of scholarship. If anywhere that ideal was capable of being realised it was in connection with that institution. Owing to a doubt about the legality of supporting these institutions with the surplus funds of the Devasthanam, a Bill had to be introduced in the Legislative Council by Mr. Seshagiri Iyer which had now become law. I trust that in the fullness of time this institution may expand into something which will realise the dreams of the vision of my friend Mr. Govinda Raghava Iyer who has cherished, in the innermost of his heart, the ideal of a Hindu University at the foot of this sacred Bill. Whether this ideal is to be realised or not, the best prospect of its realisation is in this town, rather than in any other place. You have a trustee who is anxious to advance the welfare of this institution, and to utilise the surplus funds of the Devasthanam to this use.

ful purpose. You have surplus funds to a large extent in the hands of a trustee who is anxious to help this institution. Whether that prospect of a Hindu University is realised or not, in the near future, it will at any rate be possible with the splendid resources of this Devasthanam to raise the status of this institution, and to improve the status of its teachers, and also to improve the quality of the instruction imparted here, to make it a thoroughly efficient and progressive institution. Let us hope that in developing this institution, those in charge will never lose sight of the special features which have to be associated with this institution, namely, the combination of the religious and moral instruction with secular instruction.

Town High School, Kumbakonam.—A meeting of the Students' Literary Association of the Town High School, Kumbakonam, was held recently in the Upper Hall of the School with Mr. W. C. Douglas, M.A., Inspector of Schools, in the chair, when a student of the VIth Form read a paper on "The Lives of Great men, and the Lessons they teach." In the course of an interesting and instructive speech, the Chairman observed that Debating Societies, were, one might think, more useful than Literary Associations in so far, as they sharpened the debaters' wits, drew out their latent powers and developed among other essential qualities their presence of mind, impromptu delivery, independence of thought, reliance and tolerance of opinion. He deprecated reading from manuscripts adding that the subjects of debate should be such as would admit of a difference of opinion such as "which is the greater poem the Mahabharata or the Iliad?" "which has made a larger contribution towards the advancement of humanity, Greece or India?" He further said that strictly Mathematical or Scientific subjects should as far as possible be avoided for discussion. Before bringing the proceedings to a close the learned Chairman remarked, that if earnestness, clearness of thought, foresight, and consciousness were the characteristics of great men, he would have no hesitation in saying that Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar the present Headmaster of the School was really a great man.

Pachaiyappa's Charities Anniversary, Madras.—The seventy-second anniversary of the Pachaiyappa's Charities was celebrated in the Pachaiyappa Hall with great enthusiasm and in the presence of a large and distinguished assembly. Sir John E. P. Wallis, Chief Justice, presided, while Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar delivered the Commemoration Address in the course of which he appealed for funds for the Pachaiyappa Residential College at Chetput, which the Trustees, with commendable public-spirit, have set their heart on raising and which is estimated to cost Rs. 5 lakhs, besides the hostel that is being constructed at a cost of over Rs. 2 lakhs. The progress which the College has been recently making is very encouraging and reflects great credit on the staff. The strength of the College rose from 588 to 659, though there was a slight fall in the strength of the High School from 692 to 661. One of the attractive and most useful features of the College is the munificent manner in which some proportion of poor students are helped. There are, besides 17 scholarships awarded from endowment funds, 26 full-free and 118 half-free scholarships given by the Trustees. There were also nine Government and ten Ramakrishna Home scholarship-holders. The results in the University examinations of pupils from the College were very satisfactory. The proceedings of the evening

came to a close after a very interesting speech by the Chairman who said that the institution was in a most flourishing condition and suggested its affiliation to the University in the Honours Courses in Branch VI of the Vernaculars, in Sanskrit and in History. There is practically no limit to what a splendid College like the Pachaiyappa's can do in the higher education of young Indians except that imposed by financial considerations, and the generous response which appeals for funds have met with in the past, should encourage the Trustees in the belief that their present undertaking to convert the College into a residential institution will be liberally supported by philanthropic and wealthy citizens in this Presidency as well as by the Government.

The Taluk High School, Tenali.—The annual prize-distribution of the Taluk High School, Tenali, was celebrated on Wednesday the 17th March, under the presidency of Rao Bahadur V. R. Venkatrama Iyer, B.A., L.T., the Inspector of Schools, II Circle. The function was an interesting one, being interspersed with songs, dialogues and comic recitations, both in Telugu and English. The Headmaster presented an exhaustive report of the School, which showed satisfactory improvements on all sides. The prizes were given away by the President amidst cheers. A new prize in memory of the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale was awarded to the best student of Indian History in the School Final Class of the current year. The President made a long and impressive speech in which he eulogised the management for their unsparring energy and effort to equip and improve the institution. He spoke in appreciative terms of the valuable services of the Headmaster and the loyal and willing co-operation of the staff. He recommended very earnestly to the Managing Committee the desirability of working out a scheme for the later-day provision of the schoolmasters, by the institution of a Provident Fund or Life Insurance Fund for the teachers of the School, the premium whereon, to be contributed in moiety or whole by the management. He suggested also the idea of endowing the institution with sufficiently large funds which will be increased by an equal amount of contribution from the Government, thereby ensuring the stability of the institution now growing in strength and popularity and bidding fair to become the model institution in this circle.

Madura Educational Conference.—An Educational Conference under the auspices of the Madura Teachers' Association, was held on the 19th and 20th insts. in the Madura College Hall, with Mr. R. G. Grieve, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Madura Circle, in the chair. A large and representative gathering of the teachers of the various Colleges and High Schools in the city, were present and there was much liveliness and enthusiasm exhibited on the part of the audience in the deliberations of the Conference. The Hon'ble Mr. K. Rama Iyengar, Assistant Inspector of Schools and a few outsiders also attended.

Soon after the Conference assembled, Rev. W. M. Zumbro, M.A., Principal of the American College and President of the Teachers' Association, welcomed the members in a short speech. Mr. R. G. Grieve, M.A., Inspector of Schools and President of the Conference, before making his presidential speech, put to the meeting Resolutions placing on record their sense of deep regret at the loss of the Hon'ble Mr. G. K. Gokhale and Rev. Father Sewell and sympathising with the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone,

Director of Public Instruction, at the sad loss of his eldest son who died fighting bravely for the cause of the Empire. The Resolutions were carried unanimously. The presidential speech over, the Conference discussed several resolutions which were on the agenda, such as "Physics and Chemistry in S. S. L. C.," "Position of 'B' Group subjects, Provident Fund for Teachers, Teaching of Vernaculars, etc.

CALCUTTA.

Reform of Calcutta Madrasa Curriculum.—The "Calcutta Gazette" publishes the following Resolution:—

In the Government Resolution No. 450 T. G., dated the 31st July 1914, the Governor in Council declared his intention of introducing into all the Government Madrasahs in this province, with the exception of the Calcutta Madrasa, a revised curriculum of studies which sought to modernise the courses and to combine with instruction in Islamic studies a thorough grounding in the English language. This revised curriculum was the result of the deliberations of a committee of experts that had been appointed to consider the matter in connection with the proposal for the establishment of a Faculty of Islamic Studies in the Dacca University. The reform was considered necessary in the interests of the Muhammadan community in order to provide such an education for its members as would enable them to play their part in the various activities which go to make up the public life of India. It was at the same time recognised that there also existed a strong demand among a large body of Muhammadans for scholars of the old type versed in the ancient lore of Islam, who would minister to their religious and social requirements and uphold their ancient traditions. To meet this demand it was decided that the reformed course should not be introduced into the Calcutta Madrasa which should be reserved for studies on old orthodox lines and should provide the kind of teaching which has made the Madrasa in Upper India the centre of Islamic learning for the whole of India.

It has also been brought to the notice of the Governor in Council that scholars from Bengal Madrasahs have not made any substantial contribution to the learning and literature of Islam, and that, though the Calcutta Madrasa is maintained at a far greater expense than any other Madrasa in India, a large number of students from Bengal, after passing the highest examination of the Bengal Madrasahs, proceed to Deoband and other reputed seats of Islamic learning in Upper India for the completion of their studies. His Excellency in Council is desirous of making the Calcutta Madrasa as efficient in every way as any other Madrasa in India. To achieve this end it is essential that the present curriculum of the Calcutta Madrasa should be carefully revised in order that the institution may fulfil in a higher degree the purpose of its existence, viz., the promotion of sound scholarship in the various branches of Islamic learning. The Governor in Council has accordingly decided to appoint a committee to revise the curriculum of the Calcutta Madrasa and to make suggestions for its improvement. The Committee will consist of the following gentlemen:—1. Mr. A. H. Harley, Principal, Calcutta Madrasa—Chairman. 2. Shams-ulama Moulana Abdul Haq Haqqani, Head Maulvi, Calcutta Madrasa; 3. Maulvi Nazir Hasan, Calcutta Madrasa; 4. Maulvi Hafizullah Dacca Madrasa; 5. Maulvi Mir Muhammad, Hooghly Madrasa; 6. Maulvi Abdul Aziz, Ramzanah Mad-

rasa, Calcutta; 7. Maulvi Muhammad Yunus, Head Maulvi, Hussania Madrasa, Comilla; 8. Maulvi Obaidul Haq, Superintendent, Sitakund Madrasa, Chittagong; and 9. Maulvi Abdul Haq, Members.

Annual Convocation of the Board of Sanskrit Learning.—The annual Convocation of the Board of Sanskrit Examinations for conferring titles on the successful students at the different examinations, was held at the Sanskrit College, Calcutta. The occasion afforded the opportunity for the talents of Sanskrit learning from the different parts of the province to meet together under the presidency of their ruler who has already proved his title to their deep love and respect not only as a loving and therefore universally beloved Governor, but a great patron of Sanskrit learning. Punctually to time His Excellency arrived and was received by Sir Ashutosh Mukherji as President of the Board, the Director of Public Instruction, and Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. Satish Chandra Vidyabhusan, Secretary and was conducted to the meeting. His Excellency declaring the Convocation open, Dr. Vidyabhusan, Secretary, presented the candidates for titles to Sir Ashutosh, President. The President then presented the diplomas.

Justice Mukherji then made an eloquent speech in the course of which he dwelt on the activities in Prakrit and Pali in the curriculum of studies, on the growing popularity of Sanskrit in Calcutta and the assistance rendered by the Government in the maintenance and promotion of Sanskrit learning.

Calcutta Historical Society.—His Excellency Lord Carmichael, the newly elected President, occupied the chair at the annual meeting of the Calcutta Historical Society. An address was delivered by Archdeacon Firminger on Old Bengal Records. His Excellency the Governor was unanimously elected President for the year, with Sir Charles Bayley, Sir Henry Stephen, Sir Robert Fulton, Mr. Justice Holmwood and Lieut.-Colonel W. J. Buchanan, I.M.S., as Vice-Presidents. The Executive Committee was constituted as follows:—Mr. Justice Holmwood, Lieut.-Colonel Buchanan I.M.S., Rai Preonath Mookerjee Bahadur, Mr. R. D. Mehta, Mr. W. H. Phelps, Mr. Justice Choudhuri, the Archdeacon of Calcutta, Messrs. H. G. Graves, J. A. L. Swan, I.C.S., C. F. Hooper, E. W. S. Russel, Khan Bahadur Dewan Fazl Rubbee, Mr. A. C. Macpherson, with the Hon. Secretary, Mr. S. C. Sanial, and the Hon. Treasurer, Sir Rajendranath Mookerjee, both of whom were confirmed in their respective offices. On the motion of His Excellency a vote of thanks was accorded to the retiring President, Archdeacon Firminger. In moving a vote of thanks to His Excellency for presiding, the Hon. Mr. Justice Holmwood said that it was the first time the chair of the Society had been honoured by being occupied by the Governor of Bengal. They hoped that His Excellency's well-known interest in matters connected with History and Archaeology would be an earnest of greater efforts on the part of the Society. As one of His Excellency's newly-elected Lieutenants, it was a great pride to him to labour under His Excellency on the Executive Committee of the Society. The motion was seconded by the retiring President and carried unanimously.

His Excellency thanked the members in a few words.

The Educational Review.

The Senate of the Madras University met on the 5th and 6th March and rapidly disposed of a lot of most important business. One very important event of the meeting was the reconsideration of the resolution passed at the meeting held in November last year to the effect that candidates be allowed to take the Intermediate Examination in parts. Soon after this resolution was passed the Vice-Chancellor told the Senate that the Syndicate would work out the alterations in the Regulations which would be necessitated by the acceptance by the Senate of the compartmental principle in the conduct of the Intermediate Examination. What, then, was the surprise of many Fellows when they read in the Agenda paper for the March meeting that Mr. Littlehailes was going to propose that in lieu of the compartmental Intermediate Examination, it was desirable to lighten the syllabuses of several subjects taken in the Intermediate course? Mr. Littlehailes offered but few arguments to commend his proposal to the Senate. On the other hand, Mr. Ramalinga Reddi proved that the compartmental system would bring the Madras University in a line with the modern Universities of England. Yet the Senate, by a small majority, cancelled its resolution of last November and passed the resolution proposed by Mr. Littlehailes. The vote on this subject proves the utter futility of debates in the

Senate. Fellows apparently attend meetings with their minds made up on the questions referred to in the Agenda paper and notwithstanding the great weight of reasons offered on one side unhesitatingly vote on the other. We regard the non-adoption of the compartmental system for the Intermediate as injurious to the cause of education. There are so few people who have received higher education in India, there is such a dense mass of ignorance retarding national progress that our Universities ought to be always ready to extend facilities for the spread of education. The worst that can be said against the compartmental system is that it may enable a few, a very few, to reach the B.A. class, who may not be as clever as the average B.A. student of to-day and the presence of these few may react not very favourably on the temper of the Professors who lecture to B.A. classes. This, we think, is a negligible inconvenience when compared with the wider spread of knowledge, which the compartmental system will bring about. Another reason why we deplore the fact that Mr. Littlehailes succeeded in getting the Senate to accept his proposition is this—that if the resolution is acted on properly it will reduce the value of the Intermediate Examination. The Intermediate, as its very name indicates, is a half-house between Matriculation and B.A. Degree. If its courses are lightened, it will tend to degrade the status of the Intermediate Examination. The Intermediate is also a preliminary to Medical, Engineering

and other degrees and any lowering of the Intermediate course will react unfavourably on all the higher work. Hence we regard it highly undesirable that the University should set about seriously to lower the status or value of the Intermediate Examination. Nor, do we think, would it be possible to alter the syllabuses so as to give real relief to candidates. The quantity of matter now prescribed in the Science subjects, such as Physics, Chemistry, Natural Science is low enough in all conscience. To cut off portions of the syllabuses in such subjects would disorganize the teaching in them; and, again, most Colleges have been equipped at great cost for teaching in accordance with the present syllabus and any lopping off of the syllabus would be extremely unfair, after so much money, time and trouble have been spent in equipment in view of the courses. In view of all this, the only feasible measure is the adoption of the compartmental system and we hope the question will be brought up at every meeting of the Senate till the Senate is persuaded to accept it.

Having resolved to lighten the Intermediate course, the Senate proceeded to abrogate the Regulations restricting the number of times a candidate may appear for an examination. We believe these two measures are contradictory of each other. If the Intermediate Examination were going to be really lightened, what necessity would there be for permitting candidates to apply *ad libitum*? Surely an easier examination

can be passed by all candidates of average ability in three attempts. Is there anything gained by tempting poor students who are incapable of passing an examination to waste their means year after year without knowing their limitations?

Another important change in the Regulations is the provision for the Degree of M. A. without Honours. To an Oxford or Cambridge man, a degree of this kind would look ridiculous. But in the peculiar circumstances of this country, we think the institution of this degree will do good indirectly to the cause of education; for we take it that the degree will be sought after only by schoolmasters. Many a poor, but intelligent young man is driven by poverty to become a school teacher soon after he takes his B. A. Pass Degree. The provision for the M. A. without Honours will tempt him to keep up his reading habits and thus improve his qualifications as a teacher. Many of the M. A.'s under the old Regulations—some of them shining lights of our University—passed their M. A. as private students and the cause of education in South India has become no worse on account of the existence of these M. A.'s. We therefore think that the institution of the private student M. A. is worth keeping up.

Another far-reaching change brought about at the last meeting of the Madras Senate, with very little real debate indeed was the increase in the length in time and studies of the B. L. Degree course. This was done at the instance

of the Faculty of Law, thus creating in the minds of the lay public the notion that the lawyers form a close corporation, admission into which they want to make as hard as possible. The Law degree is the only bachelor-degree of the Madras University that one cannot take straight from the Intermediate course. One has to be a B. A. before aiming at becoming a B. L. though one need not be a B. A. for becoming a Bachelor of Engineering or Medicine. We do not know that there is any earthly reason why this should be so. Surely to become a lawyer one does not require a greater previous general training than to become a Doctor. If anything one would think that the Engineering or Medical degree required a higher previous general education than the legal degree. As if the two years' B. A. course were not enough, now the lawyers have secured the extension of the Law course from a two years' one to a three years' one. We protest against this attempt to make the Law course as difficult as possible because no purpose is served thereby. If the B. L. course were made easier and cheaper than now, a large number of people who now become Sub-Magistrates may be recruited from the ranks of the B. L.'s, much to the improvement of the administration of criminal law in the country. We will revert to this subject on a future occasion.

As usual with the utterances of Lord Hardinge's, his Convocation speech delivered at the Calcutta Town Hall on the 9th instant

The Viceroy's
Convocation
speech at
Calcutta.

rang with the note of sincerity. Among other things he spoke of "the conditions in which students in Calcutta reside. It is a matter of common knowledge that these conditions leave much to be desired." Hence as soon as he returned to Delhi after the Convocation, Lord Hardinge gave a grant of 10 lakhs of rupees for building hostels for students in Calcutta city. In his counsel to students, Lord Hardinge said, "I have myself been a student at the University of Cambridge... I am aware that my tutor was a little disappointed with me and the results of my examinations: still it is not by the results of examinations that one is truly able to gauge whether a young man has profited or not by his residence in the University. Nor can it be said that the standard of education of a student and his utility in after-life depend upon the knowledge in some special subject that he is able to assimilate in his brain for the time being." We commend these words to the attention of those who plead constantly for stiffening our examination courses in the name of efficiency, of those who always deplore any increase in the number of passes in University examinations, and of those examiners whose conscience does not give them peace unless they plough as large a number of candidates as possible for the purpose of keeping the good reputation of the University. The closing portions of the Viceroy's speech rose to a level of eloquence such as is seldom heard from the lips of a Convocation orator, for

MARCH 1915.]

EDITORIALS.

Lord Hardinge spoke as he always does, straight from the heart.

The report on the Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency is more dry and more prosaic than the corresponding report of Mr. Hornell's reviewed

Education in
Madras, 1913-
1914.

in these columns recently. One of the "events of the year" referred to is "the creation of the post of Instructor in Physical Training for European Schools on Rs. 200 per mensem temporarily for a period of five years." This is good so far as it goes; but it reminds us that in the numerous schools for Indian pupils the physical training is of a primitive kind. A large number of our boys have taken kindly to games and a few to gymnastics; but of scientific, systematic physical training there is none. We suggest that the Government can appoint a retired military officer in every town where there is a High School and make him drill efficiently the pupils of every school. This, combined with the periodical medical inspection of school pupils will go far to remedy the present state of affairs. Another event noted by the Director is the appointment of two instructors in manual training, but on this subject we commented last month. Some slight changes in the Educational Rules and the Grant-in-Aid Code are then referred to and the Director's report plunges into general statistics and special statistics and the usual dry-as-dust that constitutes orthodox official

literature in India. The Government Order, is as usual, but a condensation of the Report and contains no word of criticism or commendation, except that it places on record the Governor in Council's high appreciation of Sir Alfred Bourne's official administration, zeal and judgment.

At last the Hindu University has neared the hour of its birth. We are glad that notwithstanding its name, it will be a Uni-

The Hindu
University.

versity very much like the existing Government Universities of India. It will be open to all classes of Indians and its courses and examinations will be very much like those of the existing Universities. To justify the name there will be a Faculty of Hindu Theology, but we have got the same in the older Universities though under another name, for does not the Madras University hold examinations in the Mimamsa, the Vedanta and all other branches of Hindu Theology and award titles for proficiency in them. It is said that instruction in Hindu religion will be compulsory on Hindu boys in the Hindu University, but there is nothing in this to flutter the most hardened advocate of secular education, for instruction in Hindu religion is such a nebulous thing that it will take more than the wits of the rulers of the Hindu University that is to be to materialize it and till it is materialized one may look on the proposal with equanimity. Meanwhile one more

University means more spread of education, more battling with the demon of ignorance which holds the fair land of India in its iron grip. Our only regret is that the University is located in Benares, so far from Western and from

Southern India. We hope other such Hindu Universities will rise in other places and the light of modern knowledge will, thence, shine through the length and breadth of India.



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THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCH.

A KHAROSTHI INSCRIPTION.

IN the J. R. A. S. of January 1915, Dr. F. W. Thomas describes a Kharosthi inscription found by Masson in an earthen jar in the village of Hidda, a few miles to the south of Jalalabad. The importance of the inscription lies both in its chronology and its political significance. It is to the effect that: "In the year 28, on the 10th day of the month of Apellaios, on that date was enshrined a relic in the Stupa Rajavat (royal stupa) by the Navakarmika Sanghamitra. Through this store of good works, in the lapse of these qualities, worldly knowledge, glory and merit, may the relic of the Bōdhi

XXI

Sattva be a provision for Nirvana, and may a principal share (of the merit thereof) fall to the king." This date 28, Dr. Thomas contends, is the same as that exemplified in the Wardak inscription of the year 51 (edited by Pargiter in *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XI), that is, it belongs to the era of Kānishka. He infers from this, accordingly, that in the 28th year of their era the Kānishka dynasty ruled over the region south of Jalalabad,—a fact hitherto doubted by some scholars.

THE EDICTS OF AS'OKA.

Dr. Thomas continues his notes on the meanings of doubtful and puzzling words in the inscriptions of As'oka. He first takes the word *Mukha*. Senart translated it into an intermediary, or representative officer by whose means the distribution of alms was made. Bühler considered it to be another form of *Mukhya* or chief, and so translated the passage in which it occurs, "the king and other chief officials are occupied with the distribution of gifts." Dr. Thomas cites a passage from the *Arthashastra*, to show that it means not a leader or intermediary, but heading or sum. Hence *Anēkamukha* means not many leaders or intermediaries, but many departments; and *Anamukha* does not mean the officer making the gift, but the gift department, the gift heading, the gift department.

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IT'S BRITISH.



Dr. Thomas then discusses the word *Paligodha*, which occurs in Rock-Edict V and elsewhere. Both Senart and Bühler translated it into *obstacles*. But Dr. Thomas, after an elaborate and detailed consideration of it as it occurs in Buddhist literature, translates it into *'worldly cares*. Hence *apaligodha* or *apalibōdha* is the absence of worldly cares.

The next word which forms the subject of discussion is *Āsvāsa*. It means *composure*, freedom from anxiety, which is one of the important virtues of a Buddhist. In this sense it is used in the edicts. But a word derived from the same root *vis'vāsika* is used in a technical sense, as the name of an official in the Buddhist order. The functions of the *Vis'vāsika* however are not quite clear. Was he an expounder of texts, a confirmer of faith, Dr. Thomas asks, or was his office simply that of consoling persons in trouble? Thomas' contention is that the former function belonged to another officer, the *Dharmakathika*, and that the *Vis'vāsika* was a special brother appointed by the Buddhist order to administer consolation to those in trouble. In the existence of a special class of *S'ōkavinōdana* writings, in the mention in the *Harshacharita* of the administration of "the customary consolations" by Buddhist recluses, he finds evidences to prove his opinion. "We may remember that in Latin also we have the *consolatio*, based, no doubt, upon some Greek model."

The word *Samsarāṇa* next claims the attention of Dr. Thomas. It has been hitherto translated as *remembrance*. But Dr. Thomas points out that the word is used in a geographical sense, that is, it refers to a *place*. What is this *Samsarāṇa* or *Samsarāṇa* then? What place is intended? From the *Vinaya* and from Jain literature we

understand that it was some place for walking about, a lobby, corresponding evidently to the cloister of the western church and college. If this meaning is accepted, it will be seen that the edict was to be placed in the *Samsarāṇa* for the Bhikshus, and other places for the ordinary *Upāsakas*.

PERSIAN AND ARABIC WORDS IN HINDI.

Mr. R. P. Dewhurst, I.C.S., who is shortly going to publish a translation of the works of the Hindi poet Bihārī Lāl who, as the student of Indian History will remember, lived in the time of Akbar, gives a list of words of Persian and Arabic origin which appear with little or no change in the typical Hindi poem, and which clearly indicate "the penetrative power of the language of the Islamic conquerors." He gives about 90 such words. Among the Arabic words may be mentioned *mulk* (sovereign), *taraph* (direction), *pauj* (army), *kasari* (a defect) and *atar* (scent); and among the Persian words, *siratāj*, (a chief), *kāgada* (paper), *sumār* (about, approximately), *lagām* (bridle), *khus'yāla* (happy), *s'isa* (phial), *sikhār* (hunting), *kamān* (bow), *jari* (golden), *nājuk* (delicate), *banda* (an embankment) and *darbār* (court). I have selected these 17 words out of the 90 of Mr. Dewhurst, because these words are current in Tamil also and, I believe, to an equal extent in the other Dravidian languages, tho' I am no authority in regard to the latter. *Mulk* is a common political term. *Taraph* can be seen to be frequently used by the cloth merchant when he speaks of the different parts of his cloth. *Kasari*, it is curious to note, is used even by Hindu women, in their bargains, which they always conclude by asking the seller to give something in the

way of *kasar* or *kosuru* (compensation for defect). Little do these women know that they are using an Arabic word! The word *sirtāj* is used as a verb by the vulgar people in Madras in connection with a domineering blusterer. *Kāgada* is used in all languages of the South, I believe. *Sumār* is very common in Tamil homes, as well as the *lagān* of the horse, the *s'isa* or phial. *Khus'yāla* is, according to Mr. Dewhurst, a Persian word, but can it not be said to be derivative of the Sanskrit *kus'ala*? However it might be, it is very commonly used by the Tamil people. The *s'ikhar* is conspicuous in Hindu royal hunting excursions. The word *darbār* has also become Tamil. Singularly interesting is the word *kamān* which is used by the juvenile population especially to describe the *sky* or the *bow*. The *jari* is the Tamil *jarikai*. *Nājuk* or delicate has become a Tamil word; and *bandha* in the sense of embankment is used in *Sētubandha*; but I doubt whether, as Mr. Dewhurst says, it has been derived from a Persian word. Can it not be the Sanskrit *bandha* (bound)?

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF VEDIC SACRIFICES.

Sir James Frazer, in his *Scapegoat*, refers to the Vedic idea of sacrifice, and contends that it was based on the doctrine "that in the daily sacrifice the body of the Creator is broken anew for the salvation of the world." He sees in (a) the Rig-Vedic theory of the origin of the world from the dismemberment of *Purusha* by the Gods, and (b) in the Brahminical theory of the repetition in the ritual of the mystic sacrifice of *Prajāpati* by which the world is continually created anew,—two proofs of his contention, "The world is renewed by the sacrifice, and the priest who perform the sacrifice identi-

fies himself in the act with the Creator and by his act of sacrifice keeps up uninterrupted the revolution of time and matter." (p. 128).

Dr. Keith criticises this view on the following grounds:—

(1) The *Purusha* hymn is a later addition of the Rig Vēda. It is moreover more philosophy or speculation than a religious hymn, and so its doctrine of creation cannot be taken to be the original Vedic conception, tho' it was later on elaborated by the Brahminical speculations.

(2) The Brahminical ritual has not got the slaying of a man as its central creed, but the building of the fire-altar. It is the formation of the altar that constitutes the *Prajāpati* and the universe, for the altar is the microcosm of the universe. It is true that in the foundations of the altar the heads of a man and four other victims are to be placed. But this placing of the man's head is due to the desire to secure a guardian for it. Then, again, the Brahminical ritual does not attribute a divine virtue to the victim, much less is the victim the prototype of *Prajāpati*: *Prajāpati* corresponds rather to the sacrificer than the victim. There is no idea of a dying god, therefore, dying to live. And for the sacrifices one gets longer life!

Dr. Keith concludes that the sacrifice of a god by men is alien to Vedic religious conceptions, that the speculation of the origin of the universe from the sacrifice of *Purusha* does not mean the slaying of an embodiment of the God, and that the only possible theory is that the Brahmins whose philosophy sought to trace one source for the universe, found in the action of sacrifice an action analogous to that of the creator; and "that the sacrifice should be performed on himself followed

essentially from his solitude before creation took effect."

THE VEDIC YEAR.

Sir J. Frazer says that the Vêdic Aryans used to interpolate a month at intervals of five years to equate the lunar year of 354 days with the solar one of 366. Prof. Keith criticises this view. The year of 354 days, he says, "is totally unknown to the *Rigvêda*, and only appears in the *Sûtras*. Therefore to suppose that a period of 12 days was used as an intercalation is absolutely unjustified." Again, "the use of an intercalary month every five years is also unknown to the *Rigvêda* or to any early text. In all probability when intercalation was begun it took the form of rough attempts to secure coincidence of the lunar and solar years by the intercalation of a month here and there, and not by adding 12 days, which implies a certain accuracy of approximation to a knowledge of the lunar and solar years of 354 and 366 days respectively, of which neither is known to early India."

THE SATURNALIA AND THE MAHĀVRATA.

One other view of Sir J. Frazer is noticed and criticised in the same issue, and that is the resemblance of the Roman Saturnalia with the Vêdic *Mahāvratā*. The latter was not so immoral as the former; but it was not a very purely Aryan ceremonial. The *S'ûdras* were present in it. "The maidens are *dâsis*, female slaves, and an Aryan strives with a *S'ûdra* over a skin which is shaped to be a symbol of the sun. The Aryan is, of course, victor, but the mere fact of the struggle shows the popular character of the rite, and its open and avowed fertility magic deepens the impression. That magic includes a dialogue between a Brahmachârin

and a hetaira, a pale parallel of the licence of Augustan Rome." It is true that the Roman rite was celebrated in February or March; but originally it was "a fertility ritual, held at the winter solstice." Prof. Keith, however, points out one difference. The Saturnalia includes the death of a man after his enjoyment of all pleasures for a time, a man who was the embodiment of Saturn; but in the Vêdic religion there was no such idea.

THE KURMIS OF MANBHUM.

A short, black and sturdy community, the Kurmis of Manbhum resemble, says Hari-nath Ghose in the *Modern Review* of Oct. 1914, the Santals and the Bhumij, amidst whom they live, in physical characteristics and social customs. The Santals, highly exclusive as they are as a community, do not object to the eating of food cooked by the Kurmis, and the latter employ the former in carrying sweetmeat on marriage occasions. A tradition, moreover, attributes them to a common ancestor by different mothers. The Kurmis, again, call themselves *Mahats*, a Kolarian term for *headman* of the village, corresponding to the *Majhi* of the Santals and the *S'ardar* of the Bhumij, a name they probably owed to the alleged fact that they were once employed by the Santals in the collection of revenue or *mathut*. The traditional cradle of the Kurmis is *Sikharbhum*, east of Manbhum; but educated opinion holds that they, together with the Kurmis of Behar, lived originally in the districts of Patna and Gaya, and that cruelty and want of chivalry of a certain Mahomedan General drove them for refuge elsewhere. Pursued by the Mahomedan army they "reached Sikharbhum at a time when the Santals were preparing to sacrifice pigs to their favourite

God *Dharmadeva*." The Kurmis joined them; the pursuing Musalmans stopped the pursuit in disgust, and the refugees, ever after, lived amidst the Santals and imitated their manners and customs. From Sikharbhum branches of the tribe proceeded in different directions. In the absence of the Brahmin priest in the Kurmi marriages,* in the loose tie of marriage—a dissolution is very easy—and in other respects we see proofs of their tardy recruitment into Hinduism. Traces of totemism exist among them, and their different septs have different objects as sacred,—some root, fig, a bird, a cloth, conch-shell, a bamboo, a fishing trap, and so on. The Kurmis have been converted to Chaitanyism by the Vaishnavās of the Nadia school. For social purposes the Kurmis have got two chiefs, a *Dês'amaṇḍala* and a *Mahārāya* in each pergana, the former appointed by the local Zamindar and the latter elective in a single family. Both presided over social deliberations and had for their income the fines they levied for social delinquencies and certain tolls for every dissolution of marriage.

THE HISTORY AND MIGRATIONS OF THE ORAONS.

Mr. Sarat Chandra Ray gives, in the same No., a very interesting sketch of the ethnographical history of the Oraons. Oraon traditions attribute to them a southern or Dakhanese origin. Philologists seem to confirm this; for they find in the Oraon language of Chota-Nagpur linguistic affinities with Tamil (as well as the *Malto*, Khond and Gondi of Northern India and Brahui in Baluchistan). However it might be, the Oraons were, according to a common tradi-

tion among them, a tribe of hunters in the Vindhya at the time of Rama's invasion of the south, and they, it is said, helped him in his grand expedition against Rāvaṇa. In course of time they migrated northward till they came to the modern Shahabad district in Behar, and settled there as landlords and agriculturists. A tradition attributes to their hero-king Karakh the credit of having established his suzerainty in this region, thereby giving it the name of *Karush-dēs*. In a later period, however, they fell a victim to the ambition of other tribes, "probably the Kolarian Cheros." They indeed took refuge in the strong and strategic plateau of Rohtas, and succeeded in maintaining a tranquil career for a time. But the continued aggression of the Cheros or others resulted in their expulsion from there. With the alleged assistance of a milk-maid who used to supply milk to the Oraon king, it is said, the besiegers got into the fort at the *Khaddi* or *Sarhul* festival when the men were, in accordance with their custom, dead drunk and unable to defend themselves. They were indeed met by the Oraon amazons with their wooden pestles; but the latter were overpowered and the assailants became the masters of the fort. A number of Oraons, however, managed to escape, across forests and along river-channels, to the country now forming Chota-Nagpur plateau. Here they came into contact with the Mundas, whose service in giving them shelter they recognized by sacrificing their scruples and eating "things unclean" with them,—a tradition which, in Mr. Sarat Chandra Ray's opinion, perhaps means their comparative decline in civilization on account of their separation from the zone of civilization, on the one hand, and the contact with the Mundas on the

* For their marriage customs and songs, see *Mod. Review*, Oct. '14, pp. 372-3.

other. Anthropometry, however, seems to prove that both belonged to more or less the same race. Both have low features, i.e., were short-statured, narrow-headed (dolichocephalic) and broad-nosed. The colour of the skin is dark-brown, even black, and the hair is black and coarse, with an occasional tendency to curl, and "though woolly hair is rare, it is not altogether unknown." The Oraons developed an early and efficient system of village self-government. A number of villages formed a *Parha*, over which the senior headman of the villages was appointed king, the headmen of the other villages acting as his advisers.

THE LEGAL PROFESSION IN ANCIENT INDIA.

Mr. Ranendranath Bose gives an exceedingly interesting account of advocates and lawyers in ancient Hindu Courts (*Sabha*), their status and their fees, their duties and their privileges. He first criticises the views of Mr. Jayaswal who discussed this question in the *Calcutta Law Journal*. Both base their statements and conclusions on the *S'ukranīti*, but Mr. Bose's references are to two editions (*Oppert* 1882 and *Sarkar's*) other than the edition on which Jayaswal depended. The latter translates the word *Dharmagna*, frequently found in Chap. IV of *S'ukranīti*, into *lawyer*, and as a result of this translation he comes to the conclusion that (a) the employment of advocates was not based on the principle of agency, i.e., they could, whether appointed by a party or not, come before the Court and address it,—a privilege which they owed to their knowledge of the law; (b) that the appointed ones, as distinct from the *Dharmagnas* formed the jury; and (c) that any other person was not entitled to address and, if he persisted, was guilty of

'contempt of Court.' Now, Mr. Bose's criticism is that these conclusions are wrong, because Mr. Jayaswal based them on a wrong notion, on the notion that *Dharmagnas* were lawyers. The *Dharmagnas* were, in reality, he says, the men versed in *dharma*. They need not necessarily be jurymen or lawyers. They might be purely private men. What the *S'ukranīti* evidently says in regard to *dharmagnas* is that the king or judge must appoint from among them for the jury. In the first place the king must have appointed men of the same profession, country, etc., as the parties. It is said that "foresters are to be tried with the help of foresters, merchants by merchants, soldiers by soldiers, and in the village (affairs are to be administered) by persons who live with both parties (i.e., neighbours)." In other words there were the principles of trial by peers and of local judges for local cases. But these were not the only men to help the king or judge. The *Dharmagnas*, those who knew *dharma*, had also to be appointed. In fact, whether appointed or not, they were entitled to further the cause of justice by placing their service at the disposal of the Court. "The man who knows the *dharma* can speak whether appointed or unappointed. He speaks the voice of God who knows the *Sastras*.....That man is a sinner who keeps silence or utters falsehood." The epithets *appointed* or *unappointed*, refer to these *dharmagnas* and not lawyers, as Jayaswal thought. It follows from all this that the jury, according to *S'ukra*, should consist of (a) professional men, like merchants, soldiers, etc., (b) men on the spot; and (c) special men who knew law. The latter need not even be appointed. They had, in case they were present in Court, the privilege of speaking,

not as somebody's advocates, but as men who could throw light on the cases.

If the *Dharmagnas* were not lawyers then, were there no lawyers, appointed by the different parties and obtaining certain fees? Mr. Bose answers, there were. They are called the *Niyōgis*—those that are appointed as *Pratinidhis*—a fact not observed by Mr. Jayaswal. "Representatives have to be appointed by plaintiff and defendant who do not know the legal procedure (व्यवहारानभिज्ञ) or who are busy with other affairs (अन्यकार्याकुल), or who are not good speakers (अप्रगल्भ), who are foolish, mad, and old, and females, children and the diseased. Friends also may be appointed (नियुक्त) to answer queries (पूर्वोत्तर). If somebody has a thing done by somebody appointed by him, the work done by the latter is known to be done by the former." The theory thus existed in ancient India that the pleaders appointed by the parties became the parties themselves, as it were, for the time. "The proxy becomes the original by a sort of legal fiction for the purpose of answering queries and asking questions." According to *S'ukra*, law-suits could be brought by three classes of people, viz., (1) the parties themselves; (2) relatives of the parties, like father, mother, brother, etc.; and (3) Pleadors or *Niyōgis* appointed by the parties. The last should have been appointed, i.e., should possess the *vakalatnāma*. Then only would they be legally entitled to personate the parties. In the case of the jury or *dharmagnas*, no special appointment is necessary, but in the case of *Niyōgis*, it is essential. Owing to the translation of *dharmagnas* into lawyers, Mr. Jayaswal laid down the wrong dictum that there was no principle of agency. As a matter of fact the very word

Niyōgi shows that the principle was in operation. As regards the men who were to be chosen, they were to be *Dharmagnas* as well as *Vyavahāragnas*, i.e., versed both in *dharma* and the principles of litigation; and the appointment was to be made not by the king, but by the parties themselves. As regards the fees, the lawyer was to receive 1/16 of the value involved. "Or the fee is one-twentieth, or one-eightieth, or one-hundred-and-sixteenth portion, etc. Fees to be small in proportion as trial increases. If there be many men who are appointed as pleaders in combination they are to be paid according to some other way. The king should punish the pleader who receives fees otherwise."

Thus the *Niyōgi* had to know both *dharma* and *vyavahāra*, to receive a formal appointment by a party, and to receive fees if he wanted them, while the jurymen knew the *dharma* alone, were not representatives of any body and so were not appointed by any except the king, and did not receive fees. The latter, moreover, were either persons with knowledge of the case, or merchants and other professional and experienced men, or men present in the Court who knew the law and who could help the course of justice by that knowledge.

VIKRAMPUR.

Babu Nagendranath Basu, the Vice-President of the Howrah Research Society, is said to have discovered the actual site of Vikrampur, the famous capital of the S'ena kings, a few miles off Dēvagram, "mentioned in the commentary of *Rāmcharita*." Mr. Basu is said to have corroborative proofs in the form of copper-plate inscriptions discovered in Sitalhati and elsewhere.

ANCIENT JAIN PRAKRIT LITERATURE.

In the *Modern Review* of December 1914, Prof. H. G. Jacobi's paper on "Some Ancient Jain Works" which he read before the recent Jaina Literary Conference, is reproduced. He speaks of three ancient Jaina works, the *Padmacharita*, the *Samarāṇchakaṇḍa* and the *Upamitavaprapañchā katha*. The former two of these have been already edited, thanks to the generous scholar Dharma Vijayasūri, and the third will be issued shortly. Prof. Jacobi would place all these works in what he calls the *Sāhitya* portion of Jain literature. The *Paumacharya*, the Jain Rāmāyaṇa, the author of which was Vimala Suri, is the oldest *kāvya* in Prakrit that we have. According to itself it was written 530 years after the death of Mahāvīra, i.e. about A.D. 4; but this is hardly credible. The work gives later on certain astronomical details which mention Greek names, and as Greek astrology was not adopted by the Hindus before the 3rd century A.D., the *Paumacharya* must be placed in the 3rd century or somewhat later. The *Paumacharya* is a *S'vētambara* work. Its importance lies in the fact that it is written in a primitive and not yet grammatically refined Prakrit. It is, in other words, older than all the other Jain works, which are written in more advanced Prakrit. Another significant point about the *Paumacharya* is that, in spite of the primitive nature of its language, it is written in an easy epic style, and its gathas are in the nicest rules of metrics. Such a perfection, Prof. Jacobi points out, could have been possible only if there had been a large literature in Prakrit, especially of the epic type. This period, he continues, must have been followed by (a) the period of Hala's anthology of lyrical poetry, the *Saptasataka*, and (b) the classical period

when the best-known works (like the *Sēta-bandha*, *Gandavgha*, *Kumrapāla-charita*, etc.) were written. All the three periods are *Prākṛit* periods, but the Prakrit of the classical period is most refined.

Side by side with the development of the above two branches there was the existence of an enormous popular Prakrit literature consisting chiefly of tales, romances and stories. References to them are contained in works on Rhetoric, but they have now been lost. Two monumental works of this type have resisted the oblivion of time,—the *Samarāṇca Kama* of Haribhadra Sūri and the *Vāsudēva Hindi*. The former of these is at present being edited by Prof. Jacobi in the *Bibliotheca Indica* series. It was a work which had gained the admiration of Hēma-chandra himself, who called it a model of the *Sakalkatha*, that is, that type of narratives in which all the *Purushārthas* are described. Haribhadra's object in writing this treatise was a religious one, but he chose the attractive garb of amusement for his teachings. He appealed to the ordinary men. His story "consists of nine romances in which the two principal persons, an essentially good man and his enemy appear in nine successive births. Once they are reborn as father and son, then as husband and wife, and so on in different relations, and always the enemy tries and succeeds in causing the death of the good person, till the latter in his last birth reaches *mukti*. Now this plan of the work offers the author an opportunity of depicting life in all its varieties; sometimes the scene is laid in the court of a king, sometimes in the house of merchants; by this means we get descriptions of all walks of life and we become acquainted with the manners of the different classes from the

princes down to the wild tribes living in the woods; court amusements, love-making, marriage ceremonies, the life of ascetics, both Jain and Tapasa, travels on land and sea. The stories of sea-voyages are of peculiar interest, as they show the Jains of Haribhadra's time, say the 9th century A.D. had no objection to crossing the ocean, making large sea-voyages starting from Tāmralipti and visiting distant countries, even China. We can collect very interesting details about the sea-trade in those times, about the ships, their outfit, the sailing and the dangers of sailing, etc. On the whole the picture of Indian social life in the middle ages which we get from Haribhadra's tales is most varied, a mine of information to the antiquarian" (p. 576). As regards the other work, the *Vāsudēva Hindi*, Prof. Jacobi points out that it has been incorporated by Hēma-chandra in his *Parīśiṣṭa Parvan*, that it is a very extensive work, of which, however, only two parts have been available. A number of other treatises, epics, lyrics, romances, fictions, must have existed; but all this vast Prakrit *Sāhitya* literature, a literature which, in its many-sidedness, was not only a rival of Sanskrit Literature but its superior in popularity, has, thanks to the indifference of the Brahmins, perished.

Prof. Jacobi concludes his paper with some words about another Jain work, the *Upamitabhava prapañcha katha*. It is an eminently original treatise, in which the author gives, in the form of allegory, an aspect of human life with all its virtues and vices which figure as persons. "The allegory is carried out with admirable ability, and the work compares favourably with Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*..... There is one famous allegorical work in classical Sanskrit Literature

the *Prabōdhachandrōdaya*, but Siddharshi's work precedes it by a century at least." Prof. Jacobi might have added the well-known *Saṅkalpasūryōdaya* also, which was written as a reply to the *Prabōdhachandrōdaya*. Prof. Jacobi notes the mental independence of Siddharshi from common prejudices and his deliberate preference, in spite of his capacity to write in classical Sanskrit, of easy popular Sanskrit without difficult sentences or compound and far-fetched words. He moreover "uses many *dēsī* words, i.e., words taken from the vernacular and has employed vernacular constructions and idioms which one never meets in classical writings. It requires great personal courage to brave the sneers of the Pandits and to write consciously a popular Sanskrit in order that the general reader should be able to understand one."

A MAHAJAR OR JUDICIAL AWARD—A.D. 1610

Is the title of a very informing article in the same No., which gives us an insight into the nature and method of the administration of justice in the Mussalman-Mahratta period. The article is a translation, with occasional and illuminating commentaries, of a *Mahajar* of S. 1532, concerning a dispute in regard to the Patilki Vāṭan of Masur, a village in the Satara district. It was a longstanding dispute between Bapaji Yakubji, a Musalman, and Narsoji Jagadale Desamukha, Patel of Masur. There had been one or two awards about it in the times of Ali Adil Shah and Ibrahim Adil Shah, but the question remained unsettled, and at length, at the request of Bapaji Musalman, it was sent for disposal to the Havaladar of Pratishthan (Paithan), a distant place where there was no chance of the action of local prejudices. The Havaladar appointed

two Dharmādhikāris versed in Vyavahāra, to decide the matter. They took the parties to the *Dharmachatra*, held a *sabha* there, and heard them. Plaintiff Narsoji stated that at the time of his grandfather there was a dispute between him and a few Mahomedans in regard to a local shrine, in the course of which he was murdered by the latter; that his father who, later on, became the *Patel*, avenged his father by killing the three murderers; that a warrant was issued against him, but he did not turn up; that, soon after this, there was a quarrel between him and a Mahomedan money-lender named Yakub, the father of Bapaji, in consequence of the latter's harassing his debtors in the village by demanding money at an improper season; that Yakub, in consequence, looted the Patel's house, charged him with having killed the Mujawars, and secured his imprisonment for three years as well as the attachment of his *Deshmuki* and *Patilki vatan*; that, thanks to the intercession of an influential man, the Patel was liberated on condition that he was to pay a fine of 4,500 pons; that he could not fulfil the promise and subsequently died of old age; that Abdul Husain Neb had in the meanwhile sold the *Patilki* to Yakub himself; that the deceased Patel's son, Narsoji the Plaintiff, wanted his father's office, offering to pay the fine levied on him; that Yakub refused to hand it over; that the former thereupon complained to the *Padshah*; that the latter deputed one Ambar Khan to enquire into and settle the matter; that he decided that the *vatan* should be handed over to Narsoji by the Musalman on the payment of the old fine; that the latter still refused; that another Arbitration Board at Karad gave the same decision; and that Yakubji pronounced these judgments to be the judgments of pre-

judiced men and therefore requested the transfer of the case to a distant place like *Pratishtan*. "Bapaji has deprived me of my *vatan*s and I have been made to wander seeking for justice. You are to me in the place of my father, mother and brother. Whatever decision you give, I shall abide by it."

The Board then recorded the statement of Bapuji. He said that his father, a money-lender, was unjustly prevented by the Masur Patel from collecting his dues and driven away; that the Patel afterwards murdered three Mahomedans, viz., his own aunt's husband and two sons; that his father informed of his relatives' murder to Abdul Husain Neb; that as the result of this the Patel gave security and ran away; and that the post of Patel came to him by purchase. "The debts which I have to recover are just. That my relatives have been killed is a fact. This your place of justice is well-known. Believing that you will decide the matter justly, I have sought justice at your hands. Keeping aside the distinction of Hindu or Mahomedan, whatever decision you pronounce I shall accept."

The Dharmādhikāris then took the oral and documentary evidences on both the sides, and considered the question whether (1) the Musalman was entitled to the payment by the Patel of the dues he had a right to recover from the Masur debtors, and (2) whether he was entitled to receive compensation for one murder. They decided against him. They held that he was not entitled to receive any money for the loss of their debt, because the Patel was not bound by any agreement to do so. Secondly they held that he was not to receive a compensation for the murder of a Mujawar, because "the Mujawars killed the Jagadales without any just ground, and justice demands that for every murder of an innocent

person 11 persons should be hanged. But Jagadale did nothing of the kind, but killed only 3 Mujawars." Bapuji then claimed that his rival's father had given a document when a prisoner, stating that he would give the money; but Narsoji pleaded ignorance of this document, considered it to be a false claim, and that Bapuji's people had, on account of Neb's partiality, looted the village while his father was in trouble. Bapuji thereupon said that Narsoji should perform an ordeal to prove that his claim was false. The Dharmādhikāris considered the question whether a party can be called on to perform an ordeal when there were oral and documentary evidences on the subject, and on the authority of *Vighnēśvar* decided that he could not be. So they concluded that the Mahomedan's claims were unjust. "Narsoji cannot be called upon to perform an ordeal as there is oral and documentary evidence to support his claim. In spite of this, you made Narsoji, Jagadale's father, a prisoner, you caused him great vexation and trouble, you deprived him of the enjoyment of his *vatan* and thereof, you have also caused him vexation by putting forward this claim. For this you deserve to be punished by being deprived of your life. But the present Government is a Mahomedan one and you are a Mahomedan. You have therefore to be pardoned. Your claim is false. Narsoji's claim is declared to be proved. Now you are ordered to pass a *yajitpatra* (a writing which is taken from a party whose claim is declared to be false)."

This interesting record shows that the *Smritis* played an important part in the administration of justice even under Mahomedan governments and even in cases which affected a Mahomedan; that regular officers were appointed by Government for decision of civil

disputes by arbitration; that the ordeal theory was a highly merciful one, as it was to be resorted to only when there were no human evidences; that the defeated party had to give a *yajitpatra* to the successful one acknowledging the decision; that transfer of cases was common; that there were *Sabhas* and *Dharmachatras* for the distribution of justice in every prominent place; and that the spirit of the regulations of Manu, Yagnavalkya, etc., was observed even in such a late period.

V. RAṄGACHARIAR.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN COCHIN.

Part III—An Era of Educational Reform (1907—1914).

I.

IT was in May 1907 that Mr. A. R. Banerji, I. C. S., succeeded Mr. Pattabhi Ram Rao as the Dewan of the State. The period of Mr. Banerji's regime (1907—14) constitutes indeed a brilliant epoch in the annals of Cochin. There was no department of administration that did not receive his careful attention and was not efficiently re-organised by him. A man of versatile gifts, of brilliant attainments, of high ideals, of splendid force of purpose and infinite capacity for industry, Mr. Banerji, during the term of his service in Cochin, was able to turn out work of such magnitude and moment as to stagger any ordinary individual. The little State of Cochin, which was more or less obscure before was brought by him into great prominence and made an absorbing centre of public interest and attention. In bestowing such eulogy on his administration it is not meant that it was altogether free from dark spots and ugly features. No doubt, in more matters than one, he showed himself hasty and impulsive and

committed mistakes, nay, blunders which, with greater care and discretion, could have been avoided. No doubt, some of the schemes projected or contemplated by him were such as to betray a lack of sober and balanced judgment on his part. Making due allowance for all this, it is but simple justice to say that there yet remains a substantial amount of useful and meritorious work to be laid to his credit.

It is no exaggeration at all to state that of all the departments in the State, it is the educational department that went in for a lion's share of the Dewan's attention. Mr. Banerji was at once an expert as well as an enthusiast in matters of education so much so that with his advent commenced an era of educational reform and progress in the State. In this connection, it may not be irrelevant to observe that Mr. Banerji's success in carrying out educational reforms was, in no small measure, due, in the first place, to the cordial support and sagacious counsel of the enlightened Rajah of Cochin, H.H. Sri Rama Varma, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., and, in the second place, to the ripe experience and practical judgment brought to his task by the Special Educational Officer, Mr. J. Vansomerene Pope. For a term of 3 years, Mr. Pope's services as Special Educational Officer were enlisted by the Darbar, with a view to a careful and detailed examination by an expert, of the conditions of education obtaining in the State and the inauguration of the necessary reforms. He was appointed as the chief controlling authority in matters of education and invested with such important powers as the preparation of the Annual Budget and of the consolidated Administration Report of the Department, the power of appointments, leave and punishments up to certain limits, the power

of sanctioning all contingent expenditure subject to Budget allotment, in the schools under his authority, the power of inspecting all educational institutions in the State and passing orders on the Inspection Reports of his Assistant and Deputy Inspectors.

The Special Educational Officer was entrusted with the work of drawing up an Education Code embodying the Grant-in-Aid and Educational rules under the new system. Further, the following questions were referred to him for special investigation and report* :—(1) a detailed examination of the existing conditions with reference to elementary education and the framing of a policy for its extension and improvement; (2) the improvement in the equipment as well as staff of High Schools so as to bring them up to the model standard; (3) the introduction of the most suitable and convenient system for the training of male as well as female teachers; (4) the determination of the curriculum and syllabus of each grade and class of schools; (5) the introduction of agricultural and industrial education, manual training, kindergarten, etc.; (6) the introduction of a system of departmental examinations and the constitution of a Board of Examiners for the purpose; (7) the introduction of religious and moral education; (8) the encouragement of the study of Sanskrit and the establishment of a college for the purpose; (9) the definition of the powers and duties of the head of the department and of his subordinates; (10) whether, after the Special Officer's term is over, the Director or chief controlling authority can without prejudice or loss of efficiency, be placed in additional

* *Vide* Administration Report for 1085 M. E. (1909-1910) or the various Proceedings issued from time to time on the subject.

charge of the Ernakulam College, as *ex-officio* Principal.

Mr. Pope entered on his service on the 1st of November 1909 and retired on the 23rd of September 1911. During this short period of nearly 2 years, all the questions referred to him were successfully tackled by the Special Educational Officer and with the hearty co-operation of the Dewan, a series of important reforms carried out by him so as to ensure the harmonious and all-round progress of education in the State, in the years to come.

II.

It has already been observed in the preceding article that during the period (1890—1907), a policy of drift had been followed by the Government with reference to the constitution of the Educational Department so much so that it gradually became more and more inadequate to meet the growing wants of education in the State. *Apropos* the subject, this is what the Dewan wrote* :—“The system is in the nature of a patch-work combination between the old machinery set up in 1891 and a few new pieces added to it from time to time..... I think I am justified in saying that, at no period, has the State educational policy been reviewed from a comprehensive standpoint and that, important subjects that came up for discussion from time to time have been threshed out independent of their bearings to allied subjects, with the result that patch-work reforms have been introduced side by side with obsolete systems which were left untouched. There is no consistency in the rules that have been laid down nor any continuity in the general policy that has been adopted..... Educational policy has therefore drifted during the past 10

years or so mainly because the Government have not placed this important department on a sound footing, by vesting controlling authority in competent and expert hands.”

The first task then that engaged the Dewan's earnest attention was the constitution of the Department on a sound basis. In the Press Communique issued by him in February 1908, it was proposed that the Department be placed under the controlling authority of an officer designated “Inspector of Schools” who would be responsible to the Dewan for carrying out the educational policy of the State and was to have the authority and power, within certain limits, to control the educational establishments and was to be entirely responsible for inspection work. He was to have no connection with the Ernakulam College which was to be presided over by a full-timed officer. In the matter of Inspection work, he was to be assisted by Assistant Inspectors and Sub-Assistants. He was to hold the same position as other heads of departments and exercise the powers of appointments, transfers and punishments to the extent that was prescribed for them.

The Press Communique having been subjected by the Dewan to public discussion, the above proposals were criticised in several quarters as creating a machinery “too stately, elaborate and costly” for the needs of the State, and it was further urged that a native gentleman with educational experience and knowledge of the Vernaculars would be most desirable as the executive head of the Department. In deference to these and similar views, the above proposals were thoroughly modified. The appointment of an Inspector as originally contemplated was

* Press Communique on Education (1908), p. 9.

shelved for the time being. The Inspectorate was made less costly and elaborate. In the Dewan's Proceedings issued on the 31st May 1908, it was announced that a Special Educational Officer was going to be appointed for a period of 3 years to deal with the educational questions of the State in detail and that he was to be the responsible head of the Department with power to initiate and carry out reforms. Secondly, it was announced that he was to be given an Assistant who was to work under his guidance and was to be trained for the position which was to be offered to him, as the head of the Department, on a salary of Rs. 250—400, on the expiry of the term of the Special Officer. Thirdly, it was announced that three Deputy Inspectors were to be appointed on grades of Rs. 100—125, 125—150 and 150—175. According to the above scheme, the Department was to consist during the term of the Special Educational Officer of the S. E. O. himself, his Assistant and 3 Deputy Inspectors and on his retirement, of an Inspector (Rs. 250—400) and 3 Deputy Inspectors.

The Durbar having failed in their attempt to secure the services of Mr. Arthur Mayhew of the Madras Educational Service, Mr. J. V. Pope, M.A., an educationist of vast and varied experience in native and British India, was, towards the end of 1909, appointed as Special Educational Officer. On the recommendation of Mr. Pope, the place of Assistant to S. E. O. was abolished and the officer holding that place was appointed as Chief Inspector of Schools (Rs. 250—400) so that from December 1909, the Department came to consist of a Special Educational Officer, a Chief Inspector of Schools and three Deputy Inspectors.

By the Dewan's Proceedings of the 2nd of December 1909, the powers and duties of the S. E. O., the Principal of the Ernakulam College, the Chief Inspector of Schools and the Deputy Inspectors were clearly defined and further, for purposes of educational administration and inspection, the State was divided into 3 divisions, each being placed under a Deputy Inspector. The chief powers of the S. E. O. have already been noted. The Principal of the Ernakulam College was given full disciplinary power within the College, as well as the power of granting casual leave and of appointing teachers in the Primary Department as well as pundits, drawing-masters, drill-masters, clerks, peons and menial servants. He was further authorised to fine or suspend, subject to approval, the rest of the staff excepting the Headmaster, as well as to pass his own bills for contingent expenditure, subject to Budget allotment. The Chief Inspector was made responsible for the inspection work of all Secondary schools and of as many important Primary schools as possible. He was given the right of proposing all appointments, promotions and removals in Secondary schools—excepting the Secondary department of the Ernakulam College—and of disposing of applications for casual leave. He was to supervise the tour programmes of the Deputy Inspectors and to forward with his remarks, their diaries. All correspondence from the Deputy Inspectors to the Director was to be addressed through him. As for the Deputy Inspectors, they were placed in charge of the Primary schools (Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular) and were to act under the immediate authority of the Chief Inspector. Powers and duties similar to those of the Chief Inspector were

allotted to them with reference to Primary schools.

On the retirement of Mr. Pope in September 1911, Mr. F. S. Davies, Principal of the Ernakulam College, was appointed Director of Education, the necessity for a permanent Director having been expressed by the Special Educational Officer. On the recommendation of the Director the number of Deputy Inspectors was reduced to two and an Inspectress was appointed specially for Girls' Schools. Thus, by 1913, the Department came to consist of a Director of Education, a Chief Inspector of Schools, two Deputy Inspectors and an Inspectress. The Principal of the Ernakulam College came to be a full-timed and to some extent, an independent officer.

The division of work and responsibility among the members of the Department as instituted in 1909 having been tried for about 4 years was found to be somewhat unsatisfactory. Being called upon to report on the system, the defects were thus pointed out by the Director* :—“Some of these rules, e.g. the submission of all correspondence through the Chief Inspector have led to serious delay in the passing of orders. The necessity of all proposals for appointment, promotion or removal passing through the Chief Inspector has led to undesirable delay in filling up vacancies and in dealing with urgent applications for leave.....it has led to there being thrown into the hands of the office an undesirable amount of responsibility. The heavy office work of the Chief Inspector..... has led to the neglect of certain duties upon which considerable stress ought to be laid,

* Director's notes on the division of work and responsibility between the Director and Chief Inspector of Schools (vide pp. 22-23 of Dewan's Proceedings, 23-2-1914.)

viz., touring with the Deputy Inspectors and the detailed inspection of the School-Final candidates.....” Proposals were then made by him for a new allocation of powers on the following lines:—(1) “The Chief Inspector of Schools shall control all Sirkar and Aided Anglo-Vernacular Schools, Secondary and Primary, Sirkar Training and Technical Schools and special schools (aided). He shall make all appointments in the Primary departments of Secondary schools, except the Ernakulam College, and in the Anglo-Vernacular Primary Schools with the exception of two girls' schools (A. V.) This will give the Chief Inspector control over 250 appointments, (2) The Deputy Inspectors shall be in charge of all Primary Vernacular Schools—Sirkar and Aided. All proposals for appointment would be made direct to Head Office. This would, to my mind, give the Deputy Inspectors a sense of full responsibility which they do not now feel and would give them a higher status than they now enjoy. It would make them directly and personally responsible for the condition of their schools. (3) The Inspectress of Primary Girls' Schools would have powers similar to those of the Deputy Inspectors, over all Girls' Primary schools, including the 2 A. V. schools. My suggested complete demarcation between Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular education will, I think, add to the effective control of education in the State.... In fixing responsibility, as I think, my scheme will, it will enable control by the Head of the Department to be more effective.”

The above proposals were sanctioned by the Dewan and thus a necessary demarcation was made between Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular education. This, it need not be said, was certainly a step in the right direction. The present system too is not perfect

and, in a subsequent article, certain suggestions will be offered for its further improvement.

III.

One of the objects on which Mr. Banerji was keenly intent from the very beginning was the extension and improvement of elementary education in the State. In spite of Mr. Rajagopalachariar's authoritative declaration as to the encouragement of private agencies in the matter of education no regular steps had been taken before to carry out his policy. The system of Grants-in-Aid was far from elastic and was administered by the Superintendent at his discretion. Seeing that the Sirkar was averse to a further extension of departmental operations and that private enterprise was starved by the stinting of grants, no progress at all was possible in the matter of elementary education and large numbers of villages—and that, with a population of 2000 and above—remained without schools.

The problem of elementary education engaged Mr. Banerji's earnest attention and was tackled by him in a firm and resolute spirit. The view held by him in the beginning was that, for financial and other reasons, no further extension of departmental operations was expedient and that the aid of private agencies must, as far as possible, be invoked for the development of elementary education in the State. This is what he wrote in the Press Communique* :—"Having regard to past experience, which justifies the assumption that the Government work in regard to elementary education is but a very small fraction of the work which is done by the people without any help from the State and having

regard to the disproportionately high rate at which the Government are paying for the education of each pupil in the Sirkar Primary schools, the only correct policy in the present juncture is to introduce an elastic system of grants under which the managers of a large number of unaided institutions may be able to equip them so as to make them really useful and efficient. No stereotyped system of elementary education can succeed in a State like Cochin with people of diverse castes and creeds." On the question of free primary education he came to the conclusion that for various reasons, the State was not yet ripe for such a system but, that, however, in connection with the backward classes, it might well be introduced.

I shall now proceed to consider the measures adopted with a view to the extension of elementary education in the State.

In the first place, it must be observed that, from the very beginning, special facilities were offered to the backward and poorer classes in the matter of education. As early as 1908, elementary education was declared free for these classes. Special schools were also opened, year after year, for their benefit. It is indeed gratifying to note that the facilities thus generously offered by the Durbar are being adequately availed of by these classes amongst whom education has been making slow but steady progress ever since. Three years later, Vernacular elementary education was declared free for all classes without distinction of caste or creed. The reasons for taking this laudable step are thus explained by the Dewan :—"The experience of the past two years has clearly shown that it is hard to discriminate the requirements of different localities with reference to the question of granting the concession to certain classes only. The

result, on the one hand, has been the grant of free education to many who were not originally selected for this privilege and, on the other, a spirit of antagonism has been abroad against these classes that, though largely benefited by the education, were looked upon as being treated with special favour. The development of elementary education is one of the most important duties of the State andthe recent hopeful experience justifies them to announce a general policy of free elementary education The policy of free elementary education (Vernacular) thus inaugurated by the Durbar in 1911, has been attended with fruitful results, having regard to the steady increase that has ever since been taking place in the percentage of pupils receiving Vernacular education.

In the second place, the object was sought to be attained by the establishment of Sirkar schools in special localities. Although the Dewan was at first in favour of restricting departmental operations as much as possible, it was found later on that, in the best interests of the State, such a policy needed relaxation. There were scores of villages in the State without schools and at the same time, without private agencies to take up the work of education. Without the intervention of the Sirkar, such villages could not, in the least, have hoped to receive any ray of culture. It was mostly in such centres that Sirkar Primary Schools were opened during the period. A feature of elementary education during Mr. Banerji's administration was the steady increase of Sirkar Primary Schools, year after year—as may be seen from the following statistics :—

Statistics of Sirkar Primary Schools.

Year.	No. of Schools.	Pupils.
1083 (1907-08)	55	6079
1084	75	11155
1085	93	13645
1086	100	14302
1087	105	14590
1088	115	16419

There is abundant scope still for the opening of Sirkar Primary schools and it may be hoped that the Durbar will continue to tread, without faltering, the path already chalked out.

In the third place, a liberal policy of Grants-in-Aid was inaugurated during the period and all possible encouragement was given to Aided Schools. It has already been stated that it was Mr. Banerji's aim to restrict the direct control of the State over Primary education within strictly narrow limits and by a generous system of grants, to encourage private agencies as much as possible, either to improve existing schools or open new schools. In pursuance of this policy, more and more schools were brought into the aided list year after year. It may be seen from the following statistics that the number of Aided Schools showed a steady increase down to 1085 and then began to decline with such rapidity as to cause alarm :—

Statistics of Aided Primary Schools.

Year.	Schools.	Pupils.	Grant.
1083	181	13872	13369
1084	239	19799	15336
1085	250	21681	22252
1086	207	17103	21762
1087	154	15072	26997
1088	158	16592	40297

The fact of this decline cannot, however, come as a surprise to those who take care to

* pp. 15-17.

understand the new and necessary conditions of recognition and aid enforced by the Cochin Education Code published in 1086. It became impossible for a large number of useless and inefficient schools to continue under these new conditions. Referring to this point this is what the Director says* :—"There is a heavy fall in Primary Schools (Aided) of 52. This is due to the introduction of the Code, the Grant-in-Aid portions of which came into force only on 1st Chingam 1087. It is also due, in a large measure, to the licensing of teachers which is an essential feature of our Code. Some managers hoped to the last that grants would be given in spite of the refusal of licenses and declined to appoint qualified teachers. Under the operations of the Grant-in-Aid rules, schools manned by unlicensed men have lost the few Rupees aid that they used to get.....Thus most of these inefficient schools died natural deaths." As a set-off against this decline in mere 'numbers' must however be recorded the vast and striking improvement that has taken place in the matter of efficiency, in connection with the schools that survived. One may however confidently hope that it is time for the lean ear to be succeeded by the fat ear. The hope cannot be unreasonable having regard to the elastic and liberal character of the new Grants-in-Aid rules,† by which (a) half salary grants are allowed to fully-trained teachers, (b) ordinary grants are given to make up for any difference between the income and expenditure of a school, and (c) special grants are given to supplement expenditure on buildings, land, furniture, equipment, etc.

In the fourth place, a 'sympathetic

* Report of the Director of Education to the Dewan, 2-4-1913.

† Cochin Education Code, Chapter VIII.

policy was followed by the Durbar with reference to unaided and indigenous schools. It has already been seen that the aim of the Dewan was, without interfering with them too much, to increase their efficiency and usefulness, by legitimate supervision and sufficient aid. The Grant-in-Aid rules were framed in a very liberal spirit with reference to these schools. In the first place, they were declared eligible to a special grant of Rs. 10 for text-books and Rs. 30 for furniture and equipment. Secondly they were declared eligible to grant under the ordinary conditions, provided they undertook to teach a language (classical or spoken) arithmetic, kindergarten, object-lessons and geography and to get themselves registered by the head of the Department. In spite of this liberal policy we find, to our surprise, that the number of these schools showed considerable fluctuations from year to year.

Statistics of Indigenous Schools.

Year.	Schools.	Strength.
1083	1352	31142
1084	807	17158
1085	704	15373
1086	697	15246
1087	544	12842
1088	1040	21563

To a small extent, the decrease must have been true, having regard to the effects of the new Education Code. But to a large extent, the fluctuations recorded from year to year must be regarded as fictitious, being the result either of inaccuracy in the returns taken or of the different principles followed in different years in taking the returns.

Fifthly, it has to be recorded that special schools were established for the backward

classes and night schools were opened in several localities for the benefit of the working classes. The night schools steadily increased from year to year and in 1912 full-timed headmasters were appointed for them.

Statistics of Night Schools.

Year.	Schools.	Pupils.
1085	12 (11 Sirkar + 1 Aided)	140
1086	13 (12+1 ")	738
1087	14 (13+1 ")	659
1088	17 (13+4 ")	777

These schools work from 7 P.M. to 9-30 P.M., i.e. for 3 periods of 50 minutes each. Only those are admitted who belong to the working classes, male or female, who, owing to their daily occupations, are unable to join a day school. No fees are charged for the pupils and the course prescribed is for 2 years. The curriculum includes Malayalam (reading, writing and spelling) simple arithmetic (written and mental) and such subjects as hygiene and sanitation, botany and agriculture, story-telling, geography and Administration of Cochin. The course followed in these subjects is however extremely simple and elementary. Books and slates are supplied to the poor pupils free of cost. These night schools are getting more and more popular every year and there is a bright future of growing activity and usefulness lying before them.

I shall now proceed to consider the steps taken with a view to the improvement of elementary education in the State. In the first place, the scale of salaries obtaining in the Primary Department was carefully revised and materially enhanced. Before Mr. Banerji's time, the minimum pay in Vernacular

schools was Rs. 5 and the maximum, Rs. 10. During his administration, the former was gradually raised to 8 Rs. and the latter to 20 Rs. In Anglo-Vernacular schools, the scale was fixed at a minimum of Rs. 9 and a maximum of Rs. 30. By reason of this enhancement of the scale of salaries and the more liberal distribution of grants to Aided Schools the Primary department is coming to be manned by a class of better and more qualified teachers than heretofore. In the second place, special qualifications were prescribed for the teachers of every department and it was ordered that only those who held licenses granted by the head of the Department could teach. Only those who had passed the Third Form and undergone the Elementary grade and Kindergarten training were declared eligible to teach in the Primary Department. Facilities were provided for the training of Elementary teachers and a special system of examinations in English and other subjects was instituted for the benefit of the untrained teachers. These examinations are being regularly held year after year and are being attended by large numbers of untrained teachers—especially of the Primary department. The need for these examinations will become apparent if we have regard to the prodigiously large number of untrained teachers in the Primary department in relation to the very small number that can be given admission into the Training School year after year. In the third place, detailed curricula of studies were framed for every grade and class of Elementary schools and adequately enforced. Subjects of practical utility and importance—hygiene, agriculture, botany—which had been neglected before were included in the syllabus and provision was made for kindergarten teaching. Lastly,

the schools were placed under a better and more efficient system of inspection. In the Education Code, special instructions were embodied for the help and guidance of the Deputy Inspectors of Schools. In all these ways, the Elementary schools were very much levelled up in point of efficiency and made sweet and attractive homes of sound and useful learning.

(To be continued.)

P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER.

PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY IN S. S. L. C.

DURING the Educational Conference held at Madura, a report of which was published in the 'Hindu' of the 22nd of March, one of the important resolutions passed by a responsible body of teachers was with respect to the position of Physics and Chemistry as independent subjects under the School Final Scheme.

While it is an admitted fact that the School Final System is an improvement upon the old Matriculation, the system is still in its infancy and will require many modifications before it can be made a permanent feature the educational activities of this Presidency. To my mind one such modification is in the necessary combination of Physics and Chemistry in Group C as being allied subjects instead of, as it is at present, treating them separately and leaving to the option of the student to select either Physics or Chemistry or both along with one or more of the other subjects.

To consider this problem we have to make a division of the Secondary school students into two broad classes, those who undergo the College course and those who terminate their general studies with the School Final.

Whether the same curricula of studies will suit both these classes of students is a subject of controversy. Without entering into this wider question but considering the fact that there is only a single syllabus for these two classes of students, let us see the disadvantages of the present system of treating Physics and Chemistry as separate subjects and the advantages of combining them.

To the student who is to undergo the College course, proficiency in either of the two to the exclusion of the other is a decided disadvantage, for, the knowledge of one subject is intermixed and even dependent on an elementary knowledge of the other; that is, no distinct line of demarcation can be drawn between the two branches of physical science or what comes to the same thing, before specialization in any one of the branches, a general acquaintance with both branches is to some extent imperative.

Then from the point of view of the lecturer of the Intermediate classes, he finds that he has to lecture to a class composed of students some of whom know Physics to the exclusion of Chemistry and others *vice versa*. Thus in both the branches of science there are beginners as well as advanced students and it is a practical impossibility to meet the needs of both. The only possibility for him under the circumstances is to cut a medial line, that is, while touching upon elementary points to avoid their detailed explanations; and the result is that one set feels that he is too quick while the other that he is too slow. Thus the efficiency of the lectures is very much impaired under the present system.

But even from the point of view of those students who begin their professional study after the School Final the proposed change would be greatly to their advantage. For the various professions into which they enter are medicine, sanitation, veterinary depart-

ment, agriculture, engineering and industrial pursuits. It is better considering all these professions, though not so much for engineering, to have a knowledge of both the subjects than of only one.

Among the arguments which may be advanced against the proposed change, the following can be considered to be the chief:—The substitution of two different laboratories instead of a single one and the corresponding increase of cost of equipment and maintenance, (2) the employment of at least two graduates in science specially qualified to teach Physics and Chemistry respectively, (3) less proficiency on the part of the student in both the branches, and (4) the difficulty of coping with the syllabus. No doubt these difficulties do exist but it is not hard to concert measures so as to minimise if not entirely eliminate these.

As regards the first, by a slight variation in the arrangement of the laboratory bench such as by having the sinks at the ends and by using the movable type of bench shelf or by similar alterations a single laboratory may be made to serve both purposes, though it is decidedly better to use two different laboratories wherever it is possible to do so; for it is a well-known fact that the noxious fumes incidental to the working of a chemical laboratory may do harm to the delicate physical apparatus. However, a careful teacher can minimise these to a considerable extent, if they cannot be entirely avoided.

Then as regards the other difficulties, I should like to make the following observations. If the proposed change is made no doubt the curriculum of studies will have also to be varied, for the present curriculum is so vast and comprehensive that teachers find it hard to finish the portions in time and are compelled to hold special classes on Saturdays and other holidays which goes directly against

the principle of granting holidays. In order then that the teacher's work may be more efficient and less annoying, the curricula will have to be considerably cut short, which I cannot consider to be disadvantage, if both Physics and Chemistry could be taught to each student, for, what is lost in gaining proficiency in one subject is made up by an adequate and necessary knowledge in an allied subject. Under the proposed change two different specialists will not be always necessary, for a Physics graduate or a Chemistry graduate can manage both Physics and Chemistry if the syllabus is cut short though he may require an Assistant or two in big schools.

As regards the lack of proficiency in students we must remember that the aim of Secondary school study is only to equip a student with general knowledge coupled with some details in a branch or two which is of special interest to him. Even under the present curriculum, an average School Final student cannot be said to be proficient in any branch without further training.

I therefore am strongly of opinion that the first resolution of the Madura Educational Conference deals with a very useful and necessary alteration and I hope it will receive the favourable consideration which it so richly deserves.

V. N. VISWANATHAN.

VERNACULARS AS MEDIA OF INSTRUCTION IN OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

ON the 17th ult., in the Imperial Legislative Council, at historic Delhi, was moved a resolution which, had it been passed into law, would indeed have made an epoch in the long and chequered history of India. The Resolution sought to make the Indian Vernaculars the media of instruction in Secondary Schools, while English was constituted a compulsory language. No one certainly was so sanguine—no, not even the Hon'ble Mover—that this momentous measure would become law at the very first attempt; and this the event has proved. But it was yet a good ground for satisfaction that it had been permitted to be moved at all, in spite of what some people thought its revolutionary character; while one must indeed congratulate the Hon'ble Mover on the actual measure of success he has so far achieved, in that his able advocacy has brought the question within the field of practical politics, and has elicited a promise from the Imperial Government to refer it to the Provincial Governments as soon as the war was over.

In our Province, we have already a rule that Vernaculars should form the media of instruction up to Form III, except under certain circumstances; but of even this modest beginning some parents and masters fight shy for one reason or another. The proposed Resolution goes even further, and substitutes the Vernacular of the pupil for English even in the three highest Forms. One common argument that is advanced against teaching in the Vernaculars is that opportunities for learning English are minimised considerably. This argument looks

plausible but cannot, I fear, bear much scrutiny. Does the present system really help the acquisition of correct English by the pupils? In the first place it is not every graduate that can talk English, much less pronounce it, correctly; and is it really helpful then to the pupil that he should be compelled to sit on his form and keep listening the livelong day to bad English and worse pronunciation? Perhaps the master responsible for the English teaching of the class is a man fitted for this kind of work, and he laboriously endeavours to form his pupils' English and pronunciation; but he is robbed of the fruits of his good work, done during a small fraction of the day, by the destructive labours of the other masters during the rest of the entire day. The drawback of these other masters does not lie merely in their less robust grasp of English, but in the need that so often arises in the course of a knowledge-lesson (as distinguished from the purely language lesson) to explain a difficult situation in the Vernacular, when the teachers produce such a sweet medley of linguistic hybrids, in which both the pupils' Vernacular and the king's English suffer such a heartless persecution, that the idiom of either language becomes unrecognisable, and the pronunciation of English, particularly its accent, suffers most. And to live on this fare for four hours a day, month after month, for a whole year is not, in my humble opinion, to have the right opportunities of learning correct English. And this method of teaching, I am coming to see more and more, is primarily responsible for the very unsatisfactory English which a boy of the Sixth is often seen writing, after ten years of study and practice; for he gets schooled much more in bad English than in good; and I have often heard the English master com-

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plain that his work is undone by the other masters.

But if the lore-lessons are imparted in the pupils' own Vernacular, not only will more lore come to be taught and better taught too, but there will be a great saving of time, a part of which again may be devoted to additional drill in English under the English master, who will then have the English side of his pupil, so to say, in all particulars, entirely under his own control. On this system, a school need have but two or three good masters with a scholarly grasp of English and a facile tongue, and decent accent; and pupils taught exclusively by such instructors must attain a mastery of English more satisfactory in every way than at all possible on the present system. For, amongst other advantages, one crying need of the present defective system will be satisfied. As things stand, the earlier stages of English teaching are confided to masters of the meagrest English scholarship; and they succeed marvellously in laying the foundation of bad idiom and worse pronunciation, a mischief that years of toil in the upper Forms can scarcely undo. I have tried to put these masters under the closest supervision, but they are indomitable in their blundering and impregnable to reform. However under the system I propose, the children of the least of the classes will be handled by a superior teacher of English, and a foundation will be laid early which will make the work in the higher forms so much the easier and pleasanter both to pupil and master. This is an advantage which no one can appreciate to the full who has not suffered under the present system of organisation. And to get just two or three masters of this kind is certainly much more practicable than to look for English in every one who calls

himself a B.A., or an F.A., or a "Matric," for among the genus of English teachers you find even the last species, not to speak of still lower grades. English masters of the type I am advocating may have to be paid from Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 a month; but that is money well-invested, for then English teaching will become nearly what it should be, and the results more than commensurate with the expenditure incurred. The saved time that the system would result in might be utilised in a larger and more leisured application of the direct method of teaching a modern language and the oral composition, which at present are not adequately employed, partly from the ineptness of the teachers and partly from the insufficiency of time.

But objectors have been sometimes heard to say: Can the subjects of the school curriculum, such as the mathematical or the physical or the natural sciences, be taught in the pupils' Vernaculars: have these the necessary stock of nomenclature and phraseology: have the teachers the necessary facility and felicity of expression to convey such instruction in their Vernaculars: indeed are there books on such objects in these languages? These objections merely bespeak the natural inertia of the human mind, and the essential conservatism of man's temperament. Why should a thing be impossible, because it is just novel? Nor is it so novel either. For were not the mathematical and other sciences once taught in Sanskrit and Arabic? Is English claimed even by Englishmen to be the only suitable vehicle of human thought? Where would English have been, had the nation been contented to communicate learning through Latin and Greek? A language grows along with the nation: in fact, national growth is conditioned by its linguistic

vitality. The difficulty of the nomenclature is no great impediment either. The rule of conduct in such matters seems to me to be very simple. If you borrow the thing, borrow its label also. You need not lament that there is no Tamil equivalent to *kerosine oil*, nor shy at adopting or adapting that very name in Tamil. And the fact is that no body does lament at all, our objectors included, for they know that this earth-oil burns as brightly and cheerily in Tamilian homes as in English, though the former have not christened it with their own name. Of course in all cases where you have special names already in the vernaculars, by all means keep them: in other cases it would seem to agree better with the ways of language growth to adopt the foreign name along with the foreign thing. If you are too proud to stoop to the borrowing of a foreigner's word, do not then perpetrate the greater meanness of stealing the foreigner's thing. Let us bid a farewell, a long farewell to sentiment, of which we have already had our share and more than our share; let us quit us like men, and do business that pays in this world of the almighty dollar.

Then again it is said that the masters have not the requisite facility and clarity of expression in their own vernaculars. This admission, if it really corresponds to a fact, is very humiliating indeed to us, Indians. But sentiment apart, I am not at all sure that obscurity of expression always indicates a mere linguistic defect in the teacher: the defect may lie much deeper, in his want of proper grasp of the subject itself. And that this last is the real cause in most cases at any rate must follow from the circumstance that the Indian is a very voluble specimen of humanity; and in his ordinary concerns of life he has never been known to fail for

want of words, for as a great Eastern teacher has observed, "Out of the abundance of the heart, the mouth speaketh." But even supposing that this is a real difficulty, it will disappear in time. The needs of the times will bring up a race of masters who will be as clear-tongued in their own language as they are now supposed to be in a foreign. The difficulty, if any, is small and quite temporary. Then as to the books, the same principle of demand creating the supply will operate. The masters who are facile with their tongues will become facile with their pens, the more readily when they see how much money there is in that occupation. We see already a great many books on the Natural Sciences written in Tamil and Telugu by competent people, besides first rate novels of the most modern type; and there is no reason why further demands should not receive further response, unless we suppose that the fertility of the Indian intellect has dried up with the last one-act play of a Sambhanda, or the Shakespearian parody of a Doraisawmi. Some inconvenience, no doubt, is bound to be felt at the beginning; but that is a condition attendant upon all transitions, a condition which must be cheerfully borne in view of the great and permanent good to be enjoyed under the new order of things.

Just one other point. It may be urged that in some schools or perhaps in most schools, chiefly those situated in bi-lingual districts, there may be boys speaking two or three different vernaculars; and that would mean the employment of a duplicate or a triplicate set of teachers, which is expense. But in all such schools, the classes and forms work in two and three divisions each with a master of its own. And in the event of instruction coming to be imparted in the vernaculars,

EDUCATION AND TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS.

It is not here proposed to make this a peg to hang a pedagogical discourse upon. Lofty aims and high ideals it is essential to cherish if for nothing else but to uplift us from the petty routine of our profession. Even the examination ideal is better than nothing in so far as some good comes of it incidentally. Enough for a simple work-a-day ideal if the teacher would aim at making useful and honest citizens.

Education is a sorry profession indeed, and particularly so in that, unlike law, medicine, etc., it tempts any daring outsider to meddle with it, and even presume to lay down the laws of conducting it. Here as elsewhere there holds the theory of "natural enemies" between employers and employed. The management of private and quasi-public institutions is generally vested in a motley body of men, drawn from various professions who by virtue of their affluence or of their success in their own walks of life, are judged competent to govern and control an educational institution. In most cases these honorary governors contribute little or nothing to the school funds but their solicitude for the school is hardly the less. They possess considerable power of patronage, and their ways are often mysterious. Their grip of money is the harder, because "it is not their own," as will be evidenced from the grudging grants of money which they make to the school. "Want of funds" is their ready remorseless reply to any petition asking for the advancement of the school; want of accommodation, meagre library, ill-equipped laboratory, congested classes, insufficient staff, low salaries, all meet with the same sweeping cold

One last word and I am done. To insist upon a particular language in defiance of all other considerations looks like battling for the chaff in preference to the wheat, for words are even as the chaff compared with ideas. What will do the country good is a medium of instruction which will teach the people things and ideas in the quickest and the most direct manner: and in my humble opinion English does not do this; but the country's vernaculars will do it, if given an honest trial. That provides the only chance for education to filter down to the masses. And that is sure to contribute more readily to the material prosperity of this ancient land.

C. T. PARTHASARATHI MUDALIYAR.

rebuff. Sometimes even the promised increments are withheld, vacancies stand long unfilled, a spirited teacher or two dispensed with and a few such injustices are perpetrated with impunity—all under cover of that fatally elastic expression "financial exigencies." They do not seem for all the world to possess any educational policy worth the name. A perverted reflection of municipal and local factiousness is what stands as a substitute for it.

We do not propose to quarrel with Educational Committees. Constituted as these are, they cannot be expected to act better, and show better spirit. Installed as life members, with no personal interests at stake, and meeting with no effective check outside, small blame to them if they make light of their responsibility. The blame rests almost wholly with the teaching body, who in a spirit of lazy apathy mixed with a weak sense of loyalty and obedience have given themselves and their school away to the sweet mercies of the management. There appears to be a notion amongst school masters that theirs is merely the routine work of the class, strictly limited to the teaching of the class lessons. Such a belittled sense of their duty hardly does credit to the education they claim. They are something above mere illiterate mechanics who do the day's work for their wages. The noble work of education is left to their care, and it is they that should shape and guide education in a manner best fitted for the times and for the country. Possessed of culture and enlightenment and directly engaged in the business, and professionally trained as they are, they are most competent to draw up plans to forward the interests of their school education, and any scheme devised without their consultation is bound to be defective and

even mischievous. The managing body, unacquainted with the teaching capacities of masters, ignorant of the standards of pupils, of the subjects of school instruction, their scope, and importance, cannot surely be trusted to lay down any authoritative dicta for the conduct and organisation of the school; and if such mandatory instructions are as a rule imposed on schools, it can only be justified by the great power which the managers wield, and the servile meekness with which the teachers submit. It is exceedingly uncharitable to expect the managers, hard-pressed as each of them may be by the business and worries of his own profession, to interest themselves more than they do in the schools left to their charge. Some of them are young men, the *quondam* pupils of the very masters over whom they now sit in judgment. They lack educational experience and can but snatch an odd moment or two to glance over the office papers of his school, and just sign their names in supposition of having seen them; and who, if not the headmaster and teachers on the spot, men who have a good grasp of the actual condition of things, will advise them and point to them the way? The attitude of the teachers is at best unmanly who believe that, their class work done, they may go to sleep, and need take no thought how it goes with their school, or what changes may be made in it, or how certain things adumbrated will affect the well-being and prestige of their institution. The teachers seem hardly to recognise a great moral responsibility of this kind. They are slaves who dare not speak their views, and who, what is far worse, take credit for unobtrusive and modest demeanour in letting their school matters drift how they may. Alas! what a pitifully dwarfed sense

of the noble calling of a schoolmaster! The prosperity and prestige of the school entirely depend upon the co-operation and harmonious relationship between its teaching-body and its managing-body, the kind solicitude of this, and the glad service of that. The moment they cease to act in unison, that moment begins the decline of the school. "A house divided against itself cannot stand." Where the management begins to overbear, and the teacher quails or frets under a sense of thralldom, there the discipline of the school is undermined, and round about the place there breathes an air of moral turpitude corrupting all who come within it. There can be no honour, no dignity, no self-respect in such a school. Let parents beware of sending their sons to it.

It is in the very justice of things therefore that the headmaster and his teachers should have a voice in the management of their school affairs. They should feel that they are factors in the making of their school, and a legitimate pride in the consciousness. It will add joy to duty, and there will reign for evermore a spirit of cheerfulness and inspiring enthusiasm in all school work.

It is not sufficiently recognised that the modern schoolmaster is a far more overworked individual than his predecessor of a few years ago. There is a notion prevalent that the race of schoolmasters has degenerated, and they have grown more ease-loving and averse to work than the old sturdy race of schoolmasters who with fewer holidays, worked six or seven and twenty hours a week, and extra hours in holidays, and taught night classes besides. There may be some truth in this, and it is in a line with the theory of the physical degeneracy of modern times. To say this is not to solve the problem of

overpressure in schools. But it must also be borne in mind that the old times have changed, and that teaching in schools is not now done as it was wont to be. The democratic spirit of the times is visibly felt in the school precincts, and has affected the school method, discipline, and organisation. The motto now is "*Rule by love.*" Easily told, it is infinitely more difficult to win love and rule by it, than to govern by fear and drive the boys like dumb-driven cattle. Soft persuasion is inexpressibly harder and requires far more tact and skill than high-handed coercion. "*Don't tell boys: let them learn.*"—another maxim easily said, supposed to lighten the present-day schoolmaster's work. But oh! What a labour it is to elicit, or put the boys in a state of preparedness to glean knowledge for themselves! Love of work and taste for knowledge are not to be induced by a passive silent teacher quietly seated in his chair. What a zealous worker must the teacher be himself, if he should create and foster in his boys delight in work? Such teaching demands great resource in the teacher and unwearied enthusiasm; it is far more exhausting than words can tell.

The days of good old classics are gone. We have fallen on the days of syllabuses and curricula. Extensive reading is the fashion now, and intensive reading though not positively discountenanced seems to linger just by gracious sufferance: it does not *pay* in the examination. Quite a flood of school books has overflowed the land, and swamped the immortal classics. The boys are confronted with a heap of books which they have got to read in a year. They are to summarise them and summarise at a fast pace; and summary has come to be, as it were, the sum of school boys' existence—summary of a hasty mecha-

nical kind. The hurry of school life has almost incapacitated the school boy from hard thinking. He writes much and writes rapidly; he speaks volubly; but he lacks precision woefully.

The school subjects too have suffered a vast change. A graduate of some years past can hardly recognise his subjects in the school curriculum or in the examination papers. Mathematics has outgrown its past self unrecognisably; History, specialised as it is now, is grown vastly big, and laughs a laugh of scorn at the lean text-books of years ago. The Geography of to-day has developed frantically, entrenching upon all sciences; and one is everywhere and nowhere in the land of geography. English has fallen upon evil times: too many text-books, indiscreetly selected, has been the bane and torment of schools. Grammar, strict grammar is sternly ruled out, lest it should provoke and centre thought, and give precision and accuracy to language. It is marvellous what a lot of things our school boys know, but lamentable to reflect how few things they know well.

As a consequence of this prodigious expansion of the scope and range of school subjects, the work of the teacher has increased to an enormous extent. Each subject demands a specialist, and presents quite a dreadful array of books to be gone through if the appointed syllabus is to be done justice to. The syllabuses themselves are ill-defined and vaguely worded and cover an appalling extent of knowledge. Each subject is in itself an all-engrossing study. The framers of these syllabuses seem to have vied with each other as to which of them shall bear most hard on the boys and teachers. Text-books suited to cover these syllabuses are hard to

find, and they are supplemented, if not quite superseded, by Notes—boy's notes, teachers' notes mixed up together. Text-books, it was thought, induced cramming; but has not the remedy proved worse than the disease? Good text-books written in good English it does some good to 'cram,' but what shall we say of 'cramming' notes? Teachers' notes are certainly far inferior to good text-books and cannot be good samples for getting by heart; and in the absence of the teachers' notes the boys have *their own notes* which they are obliged to get up. What an abomination!

Examinations, one would think, have now fallen into deserved discredit, and boys and teachers are now saved the worry of them. But the fact is exactly the reverse. Examinations used to visit twice or thrice in a year; but now they are almost daily visitations. We have now examinations of all kinds; formal and surprise examinations, oral and written examinations, examinations of class notes and home preparation notes. Week in, week out there is examination in one subject or another, by one or another teacher. It has come to stay like a chronic fever of the school. All thanks to the S. S. L. C. scheme and its remorseless marking system! It has quite overturned the whole school system, transferred bright and buxom boys into toil-and-care-worn lads, and reduced enthusiastic teachers into miserable examiners poring over inky manuscripts, and drudging accountants ciphering at mark books. Verily the whole scheme looks like an organised conspiracy to sap away the manhood of the country. A class of boys present a woeful sight—a set of drooping, dejected, jaded creatures looking woe-begone like doomed victims!

The teacher's work is a despair. With

specialisation of subjects comes specialisation for teachers; and what with vast heaps of books already in the field, and what with vaster numbers 'in preparation' or 'in contemplation,' life would be too short, even were it extended to thrice its mortal length. Besides what a tiring work is the school master's! Look at those pictures of tragedy stalking to and from the class rooms. A teacher teaches one hour in a class; the bell goes, but with the bell he has to go to another class-room to inflict his tired presence upon the boys there. The inexorable school organisation forgets that the teacher is human flesh and will suffer fatigue and exhaustion. Hour after hour he goes his round of teaching, and pours his life out of his mouth. True, there is the recess hour, but it flies all too soon, and vanishes before the teachers have had a taste of it. Every teacher has, it must be admitted, his leisure hour every day when he may be at his ease, *provided* no teachers are absent, in which case he will be constrained to do stop-gap work. It too often happens that a teacher just after strenuous work betakes himself to some vacant room, there doffs his turban, and thinks to rest, when, like a preverity of fate, comes a summons demanding his ghost in some class where the teacher is absent. Alas! what curses may he not mutter then! Two hours of leisure a day is a rare privilege of very few blessed teachers. On the other hand the exigencies of the time-table will not afford any leisure at all to some teachers on some days of the week, though on the rest of the days they have more than one hour leisure. What profit is it if such carcase of a teacher goes to his class? What animation can there be in his teaching? What spirit is he going to infuse into his boys? Will he not, on the

contrary, kill what life and sprightliness there may be left in them? Let him not teach in such a mood at all.

What adds insult to injury is that the schoolmaster, so worked to death, is often reproached with being behind time, a stick-in-the-mud, a creature that ever draws within its own shell. Indeed what spirit is left in him when he has poured his life-blood out in the school? He has hardly time and energy left in him to run his eye over a newspaper or a periodical. The daily routine-work is all-engrossing. His work in school must be considerably lightened before he can barely do his duty. He should at all events keep himself in touch with the march of the times; read the periodicals, and other literature bearing on education. It is again very necessary that the schoolmaster should have free and easy intercourse with society outside and take an active part in social functions at least to counteract the dwarfing and narrowing tendencies he is apt to get into, having most largely to do with little immature minds, and thrown into such company as he is for the greatest part of his time. It will at least take the schoolmaster out of him. Again such free convivial occasions serve not a little as times for unbending and relaxation, and recouping the lost spirits. For the same reason is it essential that he should read poetry and light literature and keep up his animation and ideals. Lastly is he not a citizen? And has he no duties to his country? A lawyer finds time to do his part in the politics of his country; in fact he feels he is bound to. So a doctor, a merchant, and every other professionalist, except the teacher who believes it is none of his business to meddle in politics, nay more it is forbidden field. He retires from all public movements,

and is nowhere in public gatherings. He has cultivated a sort of morbid sensitiveness, and smarts under a fancied disregard or neglect, which, in truth, he has half invited by his own apologetic or confessed inferiority. He needs to be much more self-confident, to carry himself head-erect, and cultivate the free and easy manner of one who has a place in society. They talk of the pride and prestige of the teaching profession, which do not meet with due recognition in the world. But respect is not to be demanded or begged for: it comes to where it is due. High salaries will surely advance the profession in public esteem. But they cannot go all the way. The schoolmaster must earn his respect by his merit and capacity and active public work. Living away from the busy world, hardly ever mixing with public men and manners, does he expect the world to respect him as a matter of religion? Let him work and compel recognition, not whine for it.

Our schools are prison-houses where teachers are worked like slaves to the last point of human endurance. Over-pressure is the nightmare in schools; and until work is considerably lightened both for boys and teachers the problem of the benighted schoolmaster can never be wholly solved. There must be quite a surplus fund of public spirit and enthusiasm in the master before he can impart them to the boys. The schools do not at present educate; they like heavy mills grind hard and turn out what can be hardly called men. Let us mend our schools in time.

V. M. D.

THE TEACHER.*

The teaching profession is a noble one. There is glory and honour, grace and dignity in it. Its plain simplicity is almost sublime and it is as humble as it is divine. Such is the verdict the world has passed on our profession. It is as old as the Earth and as new. It has waded through centuries of revolution and change and glided on to us with all its original force and vigour. It has inspired many and is inspiring all of us. It is our prop, our strength, our consolation. We are safe in the citadel of that verdict, let the Earth shake, or the Heavens threaten to fall down. Our class-room is a kingdom better than any the most ambitious prince dreams of, and we are monarchs armed with mighty love whom nothing could resist—not even Krupp.

And our subjects, well may we be proud of them. They come to us trailing glories of Heaven ere sin could blight or sorrow fade them. Buoyant minds, bright faces gleaming with smiles of love and looks of reverence—these are what we see before us and not that grown up humanity—a bundle of virtues and vices—potent for both evil and good and as often dangerous as safe. Yes, they are spotless, indeed, immaculate. To think of them is to cast off gloom; to be with them is to associate with Heaven's children; to read their thoughts is to taste the sweets of purity, innocence and love; to instruct or to amuse them is to enjoy angelic bliss itself.

This then is at once the society of the teacher and the subject population over whom he reigns supreme. "An ideal situation" you will say. Indeed, everything about the teacher is ideal, for, such is himself, his duty, his instrument, his goal. The world of education, in fact, is a realised ideal and as it broadens its borders, the thorns of life shall cease to be, the gloom of it shall fade away and its horrors shall be buried deep down

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below. The educational world stands apart from the hurry-scurry of life, its worries and cares, its sorrows and anxieties, feuds, jealousies, temptations with all their train of folly, sin, and crime. It is the calm crystal moon shedding its balmy light even while a storm sweeps the sky and clouds dash against one another. In the desert of pitch-darkness it is the solitary lamp sending beams of light far and wide. In the immensity of fathomless waters that whirl and roll, it is an island of meadows and fields, of evergreens and happy homes.

Of this world of education, the votaries are the teachers. They form its backbone, its defence, its frontier guards, its custodians of peace. On them hangs the fate of a world and such a world. The task before them is almost insuperable; their responsibilities are so heavy, and so overwhelming. They have to watch and ward day and night. They have to toil on and on unceasingly, patiently. They have to knock a hundred times and wait a hundred days before their prayers will be heard, the doors opened and their work recognised. They have to plough the land, sow the seed, hedge in the field all around, see the seed sprouting, growing and then they must live a long, very long time upon the hope of a good harvest and when the reaping day comes, they have to be content with a poor yield; and that at best, I tell you, for the reaping time may never come; the growing plant may fall a prey to the canker-worm, the blight or a blast.

The work of the teacher is no job. There is an idea in our country that the teaching profession is for the very mediocre and that a little knowledge qualifies one to be a teacher. Never can popular notions be more at fault. The pity is that this idea is not without its effect for there is an influx of the average into the educational field—an influx that admits of no high standard of efficiency, that sees not our goal nor cares for our ideals. There is a danger that the vitality of our vocation is not and all

the honour and glory of it may, ere long, become a thing, not of the living present but of the dead past. It is high time to look to this vulnerable point in the frontier. High time it is for us to show our might, to assert our claims and let the world know that there are more things in the teacher than are actually exhibited, that in him rests the hope of the future, the millennium that is to be. It is time for the public too to understand our vast responsibilities, our divinely appointed duty and to recognise our influence, though silent, yet always good and just and not impotent, instead of ignoring or trying to set it at naught. And may God grant us the strength to do our duty to keep its ends and ideals before our minds and to strive ever after them.

For now-a-days many slip into the title of Teacher, without knowing its meaning. To others this lofty calling is an "unelected vocation" and some there are with the teacher's garbs, with the lawyer's ambitions, with the merchant's speculative fits. Woe to such as trifle with their duty. "Know thyself" is a Heaven-sent commandment and the teacher who knows not himself is a puzzle and a shame. Cast thou thine impurities before thou enterest the Temple of Learning. Thou that seekest admission with a willing mind, with an honest purpose and whole-hearted sincerity, thou deservest to be admitted

And canst ascend the heights of Parnassus
To dwell there for ever with the Muses.

As for those triflers and idlers, for the maskers and speculators that make a plaything of a profession, let us believe that Nemesis will have her day and will pursue them with hoops of iron and blades of steel even to the ends of the Earth.

"Know thyself" again I would say for that is what we ought to know. He risks all that is dear who enters life before knowing himself. The teaching profession is not for all. It is for the chosen few. Every man ought to look within himself and measure his mind's calibre; he ought to know his forte, his tastes and inclina-

tions, to make a thorough study of himself before dashing and plunging headlong into a profession. The danger, if all do like this, of half-heartedness, of inefficiency, or of unsteadiness, can never threaten the business of life. There could not have been, if every teacher had known himself well and then picked up his profession, any room for discontentment, disappointment, for misery or mortification. As it is, we often find some taking to this our walk of life precipitately, with false ideas and soaring aspirations and when they are in it, they feel its bitterness unpalatable and then they go away or remain—may God forbid the latter alternative—for if they do, what can they be but an ear-offending instrument—a hurdy-gurdy by the side of the harmonium of our life? Why should men neglect the divine precept "Know thyself" and then make life miserable and murmur in vain at the just ways of God? Our calling is for the select few. He knows the truth who would, look within himself.

For mighty is our duty, meagre is our reward. We do fair work but fair wages in our realm is a debatable thing. We should be content with the crust and see the solid substance slipping away from our hands. In this material age when money sways the minds and men scramble at it, it is not all that can put up with a pittance and be happy in life. A few months back I made acquaintance with one of our brothers. He was rather an elderly man, but the furrows in his face, his set gaze, and grim aspects revealed to me that he was worn much less with years than with cares. He told me that he was a teacher and desired to know what I was. Teachers are never known to be wanting in sympathy and respect towards teachers. I am no exception to the rule, and so was I glad to meet one of my own kith and kin and with a jubilant feeling of fraternal love and not without pride, I said, "I too, am a teacher." At this his whole frame began to quiver, his lips began to quiver, his wrinkles curled and he was wild

with fury and rage. He tried to speak; but speech, for a time, failed him. At last these words burst forth "Thou young man, reckless thou art to have thus welcomed the misery of a pedagogue. I tell thee—a man of thirty years' experience—seek thy fortune elsewhere ere it is too late or thou art doomed." He stopped with these few pithy words. I was astonished, stunned. I stood wondering, mute, yet with a mind full of thoughts. I was moved. I did pity him; but how could I help him, poor soul. He did not know himself and could not see what he was about when he became a "pedagogue." He must and does suffer for his fault.

Contentment, though negative, is a virtue which the teacher has to cultivate. Without it he will never be able to do his work peacefully, faithfully, unswervingly. Let not the ambitious man join our rank, lest he should become a ruin, a wreck. The above instance is a tragic failure of one to be happy with one's lot, in the midst of the temptations of gold and power that no coward can overcome. But contentment alone does not make a teacher nor does culture with it. What we ought to acquire and assimilate is almost undefinable. When we would attain perfection is well nigh unknowable. Be the attainments of any teacher of the best and highest type, even then he cannot be too advanced for the dullest of classes. Our boys are not too low for a Newton and if a Gibbon were to teach them history I dare say that they will not fail to appreciate him. A doctor of literature is not too much to teach language in the Preparatory class. Paradoxes these may seem but their truth is as certain as self-evident axioms. For who are they whom we everyday teach, advise and admonish? They are not mere boys as men understand that term. Ay, they are the future Newtons, the future Gibbons; they are an embryonic race of glorious citizens, of poets and philosophers, of statesmen and generals, of men I say, of masters, of heroes.

And if these boys do not develop and attain their fulness, the fault is as much ours as theirs. I put it as selfishly as possible but selfishness does not make us immune. If they perform not what they promise to, we have to share in the blame and there is no denying it.

Perfection in the teacher, indeed is not a defined, measured quantity. He must be a man constantly progressing, never receding, without end, without finish. A galaxy of men in buds of all shapes and shades, this is what he finds in the class-room: this is what he has to deal with there. And again, each boy in it is a distinct entity and is different from every other boy. The discerning teacher finds before him a double-sided task and he has to get through it and see that the sides do not rub against each other. The unity of the class he must recognise while the individual existence of each one of his pupils he cannot neglect. He instructs the class as a whole but he must not fail to develop the speciality of each boy in it. And this, remember, at the same time. While thinking of the forest we cannot afford to neglect the trees; while teaching the class we must consider the boys. The successful teacher is he who makes each one of his pupils feel that the lesson is solely intended for him. It is he who instructs and interests every one and that simultaneously. He it is who takes all his boys with him and his course must not be too rapid for the dull nor too slow for the genius. He has to foster a hundred different tastes, has to recover a thousand and one straying sheep; he has to convert numberless Huns and now he must curb and now he must trim and be a nurse throughout his life.

Well, to the unthinking mind the teacher may seem to be quite an ordinary being. And there are many ordinary men in the profession. A sadder fact is the number of those with chance certificates and chance diplomas. It is not my purpose here either to attack or to defend them.

I leave them to their own pricks of conscience, to society's scorn, to the censure of superiors, to sleepless nights and unhealthy thoughts of haunted brains. "All this is chaff which let the wind blow where it listeth." But let me turn to him that shines among such, as shines the sun that emerges from the thick dark clouds of the Indian sky. He and his profession is my subject and of him I am never tired to speak. He is a man, take him for all in all. He steers safely in a fragile boat, in a shoreless sea of storms, of floating icebergs too strong even for a Titanic, of whales waiting with yawning mouths for a human prey. In a world of dangers and temptations he walks on, nor stops his course; walks through the path of duty calmly but with an iron will, quietly, yet ever hopeful of reaching one day that "place of Glory where God himself is sun and moon." He is not a scenic show. Riches and power fail to tempt him. Let not others recognise his greatness. He does not want it. He is careful of what he does and knows he does good. He strives to leave the world better than he found it; and in this he finds hope and happiness and such joy that power, worldly glory or material reward bringeth not. Him we may call "a teacher."

For me the word implies much more than what it seems to say and when I consider all that it implies I shudder at its immensity and pity my littleness; yet hope that never-failing friend refuses to forsake me and so I look to the day when I may feel proud of having worked, of having done my duty, of having battered the world. This is the prospect, the bright prospect that twinkles in the dense darkness of the future. But digressions apart, let me say something more of what we ought to be, something of what I think to be our needs and requirements. A vigorous soul in a vigorous body drilled and disciplined, this every one of us must have, so that against illiteracy, and against ignorance we may fight and win Victoria Crosses.

Our class-room is an unique battlefield and our vital energy is there every day spent. It is with our life's blood that we build up young minds. Even more than the soldier a vigorous body the teacher needs, for he sees service every day, the soldier spends his time in the expectation of seeing it and perhaps may never see it—not after this war when, let us pray, by force of humane feelings, right and justice, his very office shall become a puzzle to the world. But our institution is a thriving one. Even amidst the clash of arms, the boom of cannons, the burst of bombs, educational activities continue to progress and when the long period of peace ushers in, then shall we have our heyday and then will all understand the grandeur of our mission.

Vigorously we have to work and our bodies must be healthy and hale for we have not merely to expect and await The Thousand Years' Peace but must and can ring it in. Terror is now reigning over the West and all those who see it and hear of it tremble. Look at that huge sacrifice of humanity, look at the pile of dead bodies, blooming youths in thick array, marching, dashing and dying, look at the multitudinous rows of cannons that monster like thunder for prey, the swelling blood in the battlefield, look at that carnage that vast enormity of crime and know what peace means and what its blessings are. In our hand is the mint that makes the future man. We can shape him as we wish and if, after all, he loves peace, seeks it and finds it, then we shall have done a great service to the world, then we shall have gained our purpose and reached our goal, rung out all strife and rung in a thousand happy years.

Little boys come to us with seeds of greatness. We will grow their greatness even as the patient toiled garden, and when it has grown, make it yearn for the laurels of peace. But vast is this task and we need more things than mere physical strength. I do believe that no teacher can afford to be a moral coward. We

should have supreme confidence in ourselves, an individuality, an independence all our own. We cannot bend to every wind that blows, we will rather break and show that in us too there is the quality of manliness, of bravery, of heroism. We cannot be too pliable, too tame. On us to a great extent depends the many-sided future of our country. These little boys whom we can make or mar are the real strength of our father-land. If this is to be realised at all, we must send them out as men, with a mind and will, with ideas and feelings, with plans and purposes, with a resolve "to do" or "die". Nature intends that all of them should become men and if any does not who but we will bear the blame?

And be a man yourself. Be a mountain of moral courage, for we can teach our boys far better by force of character than by any conceivable method of theorising. There are indeed various ways of teaching but of all these preaching is the most effete. We have not much to tell our boys. They know enough. They come to us for education, not for information. Information, the man in the street can give them enough of it. What they really want is to get themselves educated. To cram into them a cyclopædia is a murderous policy. It makes them machines rather than living beings. It nips them in the bud. It kills the life in them. Educate them, that is what we should do, and by education I mean a well-balanced discipline of mind and body, the strengthening of the physical frame, the blossoming of the intellect and the building up of character. Give them a thoroughness, originality, real comprehension and mature imagination—create in them a real confidence in the reasoning faculty inherent in their minds, endow them with a power to perceive the reason of things around them and above all elevate them beyond partiality, beyond prejudice; then alone they will have received true education. All talking and gasing is mere farce and does not even deserve association with the "class."

This is what the boys want and he can best give it who himself has received it. If we show them an example in ourselves, if we impress them while yet their mind is impressionable, with all that is man in us, they would take a leap in the dark—I mean their progress will be so sudden, silent, substantial.

It is of vital importance to our native land that our little boys should become good citizens. They form the rank and file of the growing generation and on their maturity and development depend the hopes of a new and rejuvenated India. For witness the picture that the India of to-day presents, say in the Social Reform field. Society—and I seriously doubt if there is such a thing at all—is cleft into two—one containing the majority of the people and the other the minority. The larger part represents the conservative side—a conservatism not to check immature revolutions but persistently to uphold whatever is hackneyed or antiquated and to abhor whatever is modern. It represents the ignorant side—an ignorance that sticks and stings not for want of light to dispel it but because there is obstinacy in it—an obstinacy not to allow light to do its work. Innovations and reforms are stubbornly looked down upon and customs and modes of life of a bygone age are paid an unreasonable amount of deference at once annoying and dangerous. Again it represents the superstitious side—a kind of superstition that tends to foster a system of philosophy in which there is no place for the material and the laical.

The lesser part is the embodiment of the modern spirit, of the scientific spirit, of culture and civilisation, well-intentioned and impartial, eager to do good and check evil but almost powerless in the practical world overwhelmed by the massive bulwark of conservatism, of ignorance and superstition.

Regrettable is such a state of affairs but we shall not stand aghast and despair. The strong

hold of unintelligent opposition to social reform is not after all impregnable. The opposing majority will melt away, the trembling minority will gather strength; reform will come and go. It would become a matter of course, a Nature's law and glide through us even as the evening breeze that passeth through and shaketh not the leaves. Only the little ones in our classes should grow and possess big souls within, with a character built on the force of morals and religiousness and reason, and nothing would be impossible, nothing beyond our country's reach. We must be great architects, great as Wren and then we can erect St. Pauls of character. We must be great masters and teachers and then our pupils are sure to achieve success. India wants a variety of talented men. Honour to us, we are her purveyors. We must be honest and supply unadulterated goods.

The question of character formation on moral stability and strength is, indeed, of profound importance for the teacher as well as for the taught. Yet it must not be allowed to become bald, to degenerate into the stiff austerity of the Puritans. Severity of manners cannot, with safety, be stressed too far. Life does not want it and is even against it. Life is always worth living, is always enjoyable. "It is not an empty dream." Learn to love your life and you will find it the best of all God's blessings. A stern, grave immovable artificiality in character is not for the teacher. He must combine the seriousness of morals with the play of Love. Love is at the root of all the activities of men. It is she that brings success, that wins salvation. A man without her is worse than a beast and he who knows and respects her is most like his Creator himself. Adam and Eve were happy in the Paradise. It was, however, not the Paradise that made them happy. It was love. Christ defied crucifixion, sacrificed himself and saved mankind for his love of man was immense. Again the Buddha found his revelation in Love.

The greatest act, the noblest deed, the grandest selflessness is all traceable to love.

Nobody is denied the bliss of love. It is in every one. Those who are attached to us we love and in this form every one knows it. Even the brute *Negro* knows it. He loves his children and enjoys life: we should learn to love our neighbour; else we defeat the purposes of God. It is imperative in the case of the teacher. He cannot afford to part with such a mighty weapon. His love, moreover, shall not stop with the neighbour. He must take it to the classroom and there let it play as long as it will, for

There is no diviner duty than Love
Nothing sublimer than that balmy Love
Which cheers up our mind and makes us happy
Ah 'Love, Venus, my joy.' I long for thee.

He is bless'd who hath found in love his friend
God within him dwells; Angels him attend
Envy and avarice, malice and guile
Nor courts them he, nor brooks them for a while.

Remember the two friends of Syracuse
Never am I tired on their love to muse
Strike Damon, Pythias would feel the blow
They twinkle in the misty past and glow.

Such is love, such her charm; she has the grace of God, the power of his thunderbolt. I know of no better instrument in the hands of the teacher. She will win where method fails. Education can be made a matter of pleasure, if a bit of love be mixed with it and then even a class of dunces or of rogues will eagerly swallow it in and clamour for more. Love must be returned. It is the law of the Universe. And if we love our pupils, they will in turn love us; they will respect us, fear us and take our sayings for Gospel truths. Mutual love between the educator and the educated is of the very essence of our profession. It lightens their task; it brightens both and goads them on to work. Where love reigns there gloom does not exist. A teacher who works with love cannot be a pessimist and pessimism in him is not an excusable sin. A gloomy philosopher does not turn out promising young men. If a teacher is subject to occasional melancholy, let

him look out for love and she is sure to come to his rescue. She is unconquerable, irresistible and those who woo and wed her are privileged to share in her vast powers. The teacher must do so however tediously long the days of courtship may seem to be. He cannot get on without love.

One thing more I wish to emphasise and that is the thirst in the teacher for knowledge, for up-to-datedness. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing" we must all drink deep the Pyrean Spring. Among us there is no such thing as mediocrity in knowledge. We have to drink and drain the fountain of wisdom. It is our drug and our only drug. There are patients in crowds before us and we cannot grudge giving it. Every day we must replenish, take in stock or the danger of insufficient supply will scare us. We will go to the great thinkers and masters of the past and there we can find an inexhaustible store to meet our ever increasing demand. In them we will find a charming society—so charming indeed that many do careers them. They are the light of the world, the guide of men, the nurse of the ignorant, the salve for sore minds. Time writes no furrows on their faces. They are for ever youths—youths at all times growing to be more and more young. They are not beyond our reach, nay, any one's reach. They are every man's property and amidst them a commoner can claim equal rights with a lord. Let us then seek their company, think with them and read their thoughts, spend with them the time that is our own and stronger and stonger we will grow to bear the heavy burden on our heads.

Let us also keep before our minds the ideal of that historian, divine and great educationist, who by his profound religious and moral force of character asserted his just views, and struggled on, nor could the most tremendous opposition stop his onward march, the ideal of that man who strove with might and main to do what he thought right, the ideal of him who changed the face of education, of that great soul, of that giant mind, Thomas Arnold of Rugby. God help us.

N. K. VENKATESWARA AYYER.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY AND THE METHODS OF TEACHING IT.*

In a short paper on so important and great a subject as the Teaching of Geography, it is impossible to do more than to offer a few suggestions for the improved teaching of the subject.

It is necessary at the outset to deal with the history of geography and geographical teaching. The foundations of geography are to be found in antiquity. Geographical myths are to be met with in the *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata*, in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. So far as we know, the Greeks seem to have been the earliest people to make, though at first only in an irregular and unscientific manner, any distinct study of geographical facts. Anaximander (B. C. 611—545) is said to have invented geographical maps, terrestrial and celestial globes. He is also said to have discovered the inclination of the ecliptic to the earth's equator. Herodotus gives general geographical descriptions, and discusses the influence of the physical features of a country on the changes of its inhabitants.

Military and commercial enterprise during the Middle Ages enlarged the knowledge of the surface of the earth. Valuable contributions to geography were made by Arabian astronomers and travellers. The discoveries of Columbus and Vasco de Gama, and the astronomical system of Copernicus aroused great interest, especially among the Germans. It was during this period that geographical instruction began to be given in German schools.

In the seventeenth century, the interest in astronomical geography was furthered by the invention of the telescope by Galileo. At the same time Lord Bacon gave to the world the principles of the inductive method. John

* A paper read before the Teachers' Association, Municipal High School, Walajapet, by Mr. V. Srinivasa Rao, a teacher.

Locke regarded geography as a science of observation, and urged the use of globes and maps.

During the first half of the eighteenth century, the teaching of geography was mostly in the manner of play outside of school hours. It was at this time that geography, instead of being a mere appendage to other subjects, especially to history, was raised to the dignity of an independent science. In 1715, geography was introduced into the High School at Edinburgh with the use of globes and maps. In 1768, Frederick II introduced it into Prussian schools by a special decree. In the beginning of the nineteenth century Pestalozzi urged that the child should begin his geographical studies by observing the little tract of country where he lived and not by studying the map. Pestalozzi's idea was not realised by himself; but his pupil Henning wrote a book, in a series of parts, treating of the geography of the home, of the divisions of land and water, meteorology and climate, minerals, plants, animals and man, political institutions, and elementary ideas of astronomical geography. The chief merits of Henning and other followers of Pestalozzi consisted in the comprehensive study of the home and its surroundings. The great Humboldt regarded the earth as the home of man. He laid stress on the use of maps and map-drawing; urged the utility of measurement in developing in the scholar, ideas of distances, heights and areas; and demanded self-activity in the pupil.

At the present day, the study of geography occupies an important place in Germany. The German ideal is to have one continuous course of geographical instruction from the earliest school year to the University. Out of a number of Universities in Germany, more than half have professors of geography on a footing of equality with other professors. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy is conferred also for proficiency in this subject. Austria is very closely imitating

Germany. France has of late shown great progress in this direction. In England, till very recently, geography was neglected. J. S. Keltie who was appointed by the Royal Geographical Society to inquire into the state of geographical instruction in English schools, said, "In this country it is believed that as anybody can teach the subject, so anybody can write a text-book of it." However, the great English Universities now possess lecturers in geography; and the subject receives due attention in public schools. In India, especially in the Madras Presidency no attention seems to have been paid to the proper and efficient teaching of geography.

Gentlemen, having now so far given you a rough idea of the history of geography and geographical teaching, I now proceed to enquire what the objects of teaching geography are. We shall then be in a position to see how far these objects are realised and how far it is possible, by improved methods of teaching, to approach their realization. In teaching geography, a teacher should have in view two objects—a *practical* and an *educative* object. There is scarcely a subject which is of more use to a people in their every day life than geography. The greater a people and the greater their commercial interests, the more indispensable does a knowledge of geography become to them. But another object is, or should be, realised in teaching geography and that is the training of the intellect in all its faculties, not the strengthening of the memorising faculty alone, but the development of the reason, of observation and of imagination. The fact is that the teaching of geography, as generally carried on in our schools, serves neither of these purposes, except to a very slight degree. Long lists of mountains, rivers, capes, towns, exports and imports, etc., answer little practical purpose but that of passing examinations. Little use is made in after-life of this carrying knowledge. And no educative purpose other than that of strengthening

the memorising faculty is answered by committing to memory lists of meaningless, because unrelated, facts, yet if rightly taught, both the practical and the educative objects may be readily realised. The geography lesson, generally disliked by teacher and pupils, may be made the most interesting of the subjects in the school curriculum. No other lesson affords more opportunity for the application of general principles, for the exercise of the imagination, and no subject yields such fruitful results if only the pupil is taught to observe and to read into and interpret the map.

Many of the faults committed in teaching geography would soon disappear if the teacher would dispense almost entirely with the text book, or at least not adhere to it so slavishly as many do. Many geographical text-books are bad in themselves, and too often does the teacher limit the information given to that contained in the book. The geographical text-book, of course, has its uses. It supplies many facts which no map can give, it systematises the pupil's knowledge; it is a means for familiarising the pupil with new and difficult names; above all it is adapted for the revision of facts gained from the map. But the teacher should remember that the text-book like the Atlas should be used almost exclusively for review and task-work at home, just as the teacher's instruction and the wall-map should be used for class-work. The usual practice with many teachers is to spend the whole geographical period in bearing as a memoriter exercise, the portion of the text book prescribed for the previous day's home task. The best teaching is that which dispenses with the text-book and relies upon the map. The pupil should be led to find out for himself the leading physical features of the country and should be induced to express the result of his observation in a verbal statement. Particular stress should be laid on the importance of the pupil expressing his knowledge in words; for experience has

taught us that teachers are too often content with a loose and slovenly indication on the wall-map of a locality by the pupil rather than make the latter undergo the impressive and intelligent course of indicating the locality in words. Much of the breaking down of pupils in examinations is due to this improper and slovenly use of the map. The wall-map then is the foundation of all geographical teaching. If the pupil has been taken properly through the preliminary stages in what the Germans call Home Geography, he will have learnt the true meaning of a map, and will have acquired the power of reading maps. In the Home Geography, the pupil depends upon his own direct personal observation. After that stage has been passed, he must depend upon the observations of others in a sphere extended beyond his own personal knowledge. These observations are recorded in maps, and hence the importance of the map in geographical teaching.

If the map is intelligently read and interpreted it becomes for the pupil a series of vivid pictures. By means of a few fundamental principles, the pupil will be able to read in the map, the history in general terms of the people; he will closely connect political with physical geography; he will see why some people have prospered and others have not; he will see that the continents have their distinctive features which are reflected in the character of the people. Of course this kind of study of the map, this connection of the physical characteristics of the country with its history, can only be duly appreciated by advanced pupils; but experience has convinced us that such considerations can be appreciated even by younger pupils.

Connected with this question of the importance of the map is the subject of map-drawing. There can be no true teaching of geography unless the pupil is taught first, to *observe*, secondly to *describe*, and thirdly to *represent*. It is map-drawing which is the rep-

resentation of the facts previously observed and described by the pupil. Map-drawing promotes clear intuitions; it promotes self-activity, and is the means of completely associating the facts and relations already learned. Yet map-drawing (in this country at least), is much neglected. It is rare to come across a student who can give a tolerable re-production from memory of the map of a country which he has been studying. The question in an examination paper involving map-drawing is either not attempted, or, if attempted, generally an extremely bad performance. On the other hand, map-drawing must not engage much of the hour for teaching. After the pupil has received sufficient instruction in the art of re-producing a map according to scale, he should be left to practice such work at home with the aid of his atlas. Map-drawing begins with the plan of the school-room and its neighbourhood. No more interesting lesson can be imagined than that which forms the introduction to the subject of geography, in which the teacher slowly builds up the plan of the school and its neighbourhood on the black-board. In the earliest stages of map-drawing it is not necessary that every detail should be drawn. It is enough if the child can give a rough outline. It must have come within your experience that a child in drawing a picture of a man draws a small circle for the head, a larger one for the body and two straight strokes for the hands and legs respectively. The drawing does not attempt details, but is a correct one in its general outline. So it must be with map-drawing. A German Professor in a paper on Geography says "Geographical training and understanding does not depend so much in the first instance upon exact knowledge of the outline of a land as upon a knowledge of its position in regard to neighbouring land, seas, etc. It is not at first important to know that France has a number of peninsulas. Rather should the pupil's attention be directed to the fact that France lies between two seas and two countries; for in this consists

its importance. So the isolation of Spain, the insular character of England, the position of Germany in the "heart" of Europe, are facts of great and prime importance. For the sharp apprehension of these relations it is desirable to disregard all unrelated facts."

The subject of map-drawing naturally leads me to say a few words on the subject of the use of the black-board in teaching geography. The black-board is also lately indispensable. It may be used for the purpose of delineating the outline of a country the details of which should be filled in by the teacher in testing the knowledge of his pupils. Better still it should be used for reproducing on a large scale important localities too small, or crowded with unimportant names on the map, to leave a clear impression of its leading features. In such a map all indistinct points can be clearly marked. Such countries as Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Tibet are generally drawn on too small a scale on the wall-map. In such cases the black-board must be utilized. From first to last the blackboard must be in constant requisition for illustrations for emphasis, and for revision, but, it certainly should not be used, as it often is used, for the purpose of merely reproducing classification and items of the text-book.

Lastly, the teaching of geography must be made as realistic and as dramatic as possible, especially in the early stages. Where procurable, natural objects should be introduced, models, maps in relief, plans, pictures, photographs and historic incidents should be freely made use of. These will serve to arouse interest, will make the facts presented vivid and realistic and by so doing will help their retention. What may be called dramatic lessons may be given in teaching latitude and longitude by employing a common ball or an orange with a piece of wire on which it can revolve. A globe and a lamp with a reflector may be effectively used in teaching the phenomena of

day and night. The points of the compass can be taught most realistically without any apparatus but the blackboard, placed at first flat on the floor or table. It may be mentioned that all the objects that have been referred to above are necessary accessories to a geography lesson in schools where the very best methods of teaching geography are to be employed.

In the presentation of facts the teacher must avoid giving mere lists of names. The relative value of facts must be ascertained, for an isolated fact is of little or no value. By the process of natural association, by which for instance productions are connected with industries, minerals with manufactures, bays and gulfs with harbours, an additional value is given to a fact; the memory is considerably relieved, and what is actually necessary to be remembered will be remembered the more readily because interest has been aroused. The pupil should not be dosed with unrelated statistics. It is, for instance, far more important that a pupil should know that India is so many times larger than England, than that his mind should be burdened with the meaningless statement that England contains so many square miles.

In summing up, I would say that the teacher must free himself from the thralldom of the text-book which is the cause of too much importance being attached to words instead of things. He must make the map the foundation of his teaching and tell the pupil nothing which he can discover for himself from the map. He must bring the blackboard frequently to his aid and must make much more use of map-drawing. The lesson must be made as realistic as possible by use of objects, pictures, photographs, &c., and there must be a natural association of facts to exercise the intelligence and assist the memory. In giving figures, their relative value must be ascertained by reference to a known unit. Being an associating science, the able teacher will constantly make use of kindred branches of know-

ledge to interpret geographical facts. In the ways indicated above, the geography lesson may be prevented from being, what it so often is, the most distasteful and the least educative subject in the school curriculum. We should not commit the fatal mistake of beginning a course of geography with a list of definitions, with proofs of the rotundity of the earth, and with the attempt, to inculcate the 'simple notions' of the globe. The idea that the earth is a globe is quite beyond the comprehension and experience of children. The first lessons should be on the geography of the pupil's neighbourhood, next should be given an idea of the earth as a whole, after which the pupil may be brought back to study single countries beginning with his own. The proper method of teaching geography is therefore the best one even for examination purposes. Good teaching, if we—teachers would but believe it, always 'pays.' Provided the teaching in the lower classes is sound and thorough and the vernacular freely used in explaining difficulties, the teacher will find that he has plenty of time to teach according to improved methods. Where pupils have been taught to take an intelligent interest in geography, they will soon make an intelligent and gratuitous use of the atlas and will supplement the teaching of the class by reading books of travels, adventure, &c. By discussing the best methods of teaching, our Association will do much towards the introduction of such methods into our school, and on no subject is its influence more needed than that of the teaching of geography.

(To be continued).

HEADMASTERS OF INCOMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

At the recent Legislative Council, Madras, the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri moved a resolution recommending that, with a view to removing the inconvenience caused to the management of such schools, an inquiry be made into the working of rule 23, chapter III of the Madras Educational Rules, which requires that headmasters of incomplete secondary schools should be teachers holding collegiate trained teachers' certificates.

The Hon'ble mover began by reading the old rule on the subject. It was: "The teacher of an upper secondary form shall possess a certificate of having passed the First Examination in Arts; the teacher of a lower secondary form a certificate of having passed the Matriculation or the Upper Secondary Examination, or the late Higher Examination for Women; the teacher of an upper primary class a certificate of having passed the Lower Secondary or the late Middle School Examination; the teacher of a lower primary class a certificate of having passed the Primary or the late Special Upper Primary Examination. With the sanction of the Inspector, a teacher of long standing may be appointed to a higher form or class than is herein prescribed." The conditions of education generally and of the supply of qualified teachers had not improved so far as to justify the forcing up of the professional or general qualifications required of headmasters of incomplete Secondary Schools. Still the Hon'ble mover observed that under the present rule headmasters of incomplete secondary schools were required to be teachers

holding collegiate trained teachers' certificates, that is practically Licentiates in Teaching. The object of the rule was no doubt excellent, as it was intended to speed up efficiency. What they had, however, to see was whether that ideal could be worked up to. The time when the rule was newly added was a time in the history of secondary education in this Presidency when it passed through some adverse circumstances, and it was then considered that secondary education and elementary education were two distinct things and that they should be treated under separate rules. It was also then considered that, as far as possible, elementary education must be stimulated while a pause must be called in the progress of secondary education. In those circumstances, among other things, the Department ruled that a large number of incomplete schools which then taught up to the III Form or to the standard of what was previously known as Lower Secondary Examination, should be given the choice of either rising to the status of high schools or of sinking to the status of elementary schools. If schools desired to rise to the upper secondary grade attempts were made to put difficulties in their way. One of the difficulties was that a rule was framed that in the three Upper Forms the teachers should be L. T.'s and the Headmaster had necessarily to be an L. T., and every teacher, even in the lowest classes, should be a Matriculate. Several schools were given the choice by a general circular. The result was to be seen in certain striking figures. Between the years 1907 and 1916 as many as 226 incomplete secondary schools were obliged to fall to the status of elementary schools. At the present moment there were 158 in-

complete secondary schools. When the new rule was put into the Code it was discovered that there was a great deal of complaint from the Managers that, while they desired to appoint L. T.'s, it was difficult to find the men. Many more schools complained that their funds could not afford to pay a salary of Rs. 80 or 90 required by L. T.'s. The Director thought that, in those circumstances, a corrective should be applied and not that the rule itself should be abolished, and that certain provisions should be made for exempting a large number of schools. Even to-day, out of 158 schools, only so few as 41 have been able to fulfil the regulations, by having L. T.'s as Headmasters. The remainder were in a very peculiar condition. The Director offered them a sort of alternative: he told the managers of schools that if they could not find L. T.'s for themselves as headmasters they had better find headmasters of neighbouring complete secondary schools, who must be L. T.'s, and ask them to supervise the incomplete schools, and that if they did so the Department would accept them as substitutes for fulfilling the condition of the new rule. The result of adopting that alternative was that more than 100 incomplete secondary schools had now these supervising headmasters. Dr. Bourne, when he propounded this alternative, had in his mind the idea that every complete secondary school should have round it a number of incomplete secondary schools, which he called its feeders, so that the curricula and examinations in the incomplete schools might be controlled from the central complete secondary school. That might have been possible if all the schools were under the same management. But, as a matter of fact, in most places

the management was all distinct and the headmaster of a complete secondary school had nothing whatever to do with incomplete secondary schools, the artificial connection having been brought about only to satisfy a rule of the Department. Very often it was found that headmasters of complete secondary schools were unwilling or unable to undertake the duty of supervision of incomplete schools. Sometimes the management of complete schools refused to spare the services of headmasters for the purpose of supervising the work of other schools. In some cases, the salary or honorarium demanded was as high as Rs. 150 or Rs. 200 for six or seven visits in a year. From all accounts received from everywhere, these supervising headmasters had done precious little, as Sir Alfred Bourne observed in his quinquennial report. He (speaker) therefore asked whether it was necessary to keep up any longer the farcical arrangement of having a headmaster to supervise incomplete secondary schools in which he had no interest except that created by the offer of a few tens of rupees. The speaker then proceeded to instance a few cases in which the arrangement caused inconvenience in various schools in the Presidency. He proceeded to point out that if L. T.'s were procurable, nobody would object to the rule, as it was an eminently desirable rule. But they had no L. T.'s in sufficient numbers, and even when they were available they demanded so high a salary from incomplete secondary schools that they could not afford it. There were difficulties in turning out a sufficient number of L. T.'s owing to want of accommodation in the existing Teachers' College at Saidapet. He knew that Government intended to open another New Training College at Rajamundry,

so that in about eight or nine years they might find a sufficient number of L. T.'s. Till then, in his opinion the present rule should go; but when once the Government framed a rule it was found difficult to let it disappear, as somehow or other the practice of Government was to try to work a rule though it might work hard. The speaker then read an extract from the quinquennial report of the Director of Public Instruction, in which it was admitted that the alternative of having supervising headmasters for incomplete headmasters had proved fruitless. Dr. Bourne pinned his faith on a second alternative. That was to have one headmaster appointed to several schools under the same management. He called such an officer an itinerating headmaster with no school of his own. Mr. Sastri said he was not responsible for the elegant phraseology. Few managers however, had a network of schools in the same neighbourhood. This alternative had so far been carried out by two authorities, the Municipality of Palghat and the District Board of South Arcot, and solved the difficulty caused by the rule only with respect to some 15 schools. Dr. Bourne's favourite device therefore was even more impracticable than the original rule, and not worth any serious consideration. The rule operated as a check on the growth of incomplete secondary schools and must be abolished.

The Hon'ble Rev. Pittendrigh seconded the resolution and said that the Hon'ble mover had established a *prima facie* case for inquiry, and that was all that was asked for. The subject referred to in the resolution was just that kind of case that should be remitted to that committee of experts that was promised. He thought that it would save a great deal of

time if Government would accept the resolution and refer the matter to that committee.

The Hon'ble Mr. P. Rajagopalachari, on behalf of Government, observed that, as the Hon'ble mover himself admitted, the rule of having L. T.'s as headmasters of incomplete secondary schools was not an absolute one. It said that the headmaster shall ordinarily hold a collegiate-trained teacher's certificate. It was both a declaration of policy on the part of the Department as to what it was they were aiming at and also a rule of practice laid down for the department so that gradually they might work up to a state of affairs under which every secondary school, even an incomplete one, shall have a duly qualified teacher at its head. So far as the policy was concerned, the Hon'ble Mr. Srinivasa Sastri expressed a warm appreciation of it and he had conceded that the object of the rule was excellent, the aim being the securing of efficiency in teaching. The question, however, remained how the rule had been working, whether it was working oppressively or in such a manner as to seriously militate against the maintenance of incomplete secondary schools. On that also the Hon'ble mover gave a sufficient answer, but his complaint appeared to be that the rule enabled the Director to abstain from enforcing the rule rigorously, and in the result the rule was practically a dead letter. He did not think that was a strong reason why they should disturb the rule. If the rule were cancelled, they would take away the one weapon which the Director now had for encouraging incomplete secondary schools to have L. T.'s as their headmasters. The Hon'ble mover recommended that the rule might be abrogated for some years at the expiry of which they would have more L. T.'s. But it should be remembered that the

moment they took away the rule there would not be any inducement for managers to raise the standard of efficiency of schools, and the result would be that people would not rush to join the Teachers' College as they now did. The present rush for admission to that College was due to the existence of the rule now complained of by Mr. Srinivasa Sastri. Proposals were now under consideration for opening another Training College somewhere in the Northern Circars, there was another at Trivandrum, the Mysore Durbar would have one, so that they would soon have four training colleges. After the rule had been in force for nine years to drop the rule now and to go back to a state of affairs under which it would be open to managers to employ cheap untrained agency would be a most disastrous step for them to adopt. After all, what was the inquiry that was required to go into? The excellence of the rule was admitted. His own impression was that the leniency shown in working the rule evidently for preventing trouble was now being turned against the Department. The rule had not been worked oppressively, and there was no justification for the cancellation of the rule, and hence there was no question to be referred for enquiry.

The Hon'ble Messrs. Ramabhadra Naidu, K. Rama Iyengar and B. N. Sarma spoke in support of the resolution.

The Hon'ble Mr. C. V. S. Narasimha Raju pointed out that the ideal aimed at by the rule must not be given up, but Government might take away the provision requiring the work of incomplete schools to be looked after by supervising headmasters.

The Hon'ble Mr. H. S. Duncan observed that it was not the case that the rule frightened several managers of incomplete secondary schools from raising their schools into complete

secondary schools. Several schools succeeded in getting L.T.'s as headmasters and grew into efficient High schools year after year. It was not correct to say that headmasters of secondary schools had nothing to do with incomplete secondary schools of which they were supervising headmasters. If a headmaster of a few incomplete schools was a supervising headmaster, those incomplete schools were feeders to the headmaster's complete secondary school, and he must therefore have great interest in the efficiency of instruction in and the management of those schools. They were now turning out a little over 100 L.T.'s every year, and in course of time it would be possible to meet the wants of the incomplete schools. He was therefore very much against having the rule taken out of the Educational Rules. He hoped that if the rule remained, eventually they might be able to get the incomplete schools set upon a better footing than at present.

The Hon'ble Mr. Ramachandra Rao said that the work of supervising headmasters in incomplete secondary schools was similar to the inspection of subordinate Civil Courts by District Judges: The supervising headmasters treated their journeys as pleasure trips and made it a time of enjoyment rather than of instruction.

The Hon'ble Mr. Rajagopalachariar, in his final reply, said that the device of supervising headmaster was really no portion of the resolution and that device was introduced by the Department so as to make things easy. Government would make an enquiry as to how supervising headmasters had been doing, but he would not commit Government in any way. There seemed to be an idea that the object of the rule was to check secondary education. He denied that the effect had been to retard

education, but if, in the process of enforcing the rule, a number of mushroom secondary schools had disappeared, efficiency in the other schools had been greater and the result had not given a set-back.

H. E. the President pointed out that the Department could not undertake an enquiry, because that would mean that they upset the rule which was admitted on all hands to be a desirable one. But all that had been said during the debate on the resolution would be remembered. There had been sweeping statements made which he was certainly not prepared to deny or accept. Truth probably lay between the two extremes. He could give the Hon'ble mover the assurance that all that had been said in the debate would be scrutinised by the Director of Public Instruction, and if improvements could be made in the working of the rule, which admittedly was being worked with great consideration, and if other substitute could be found to get over the transitional stage they would have a larger number of collegiate-trained teachers.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri withdrew his resolution on the strength of the assurance given by His Excellency.

PUNJAB UNIVERSITY: CONVOCATION ADDRESS.*

Paris smiled, for an hour or two, in the year 1801, when amidst Napoleon's mighty projects for remodelling the religion and government of his Empire, the ironical satirist Sylvain Maréchal, thrust in his "Plan for a Law prohibiting the Alphabet to Women." Daring, keen, sarcastic, learned, the booklet contained so much of pungency that we can hardly wonder at the honest simplicity of the author's friend and biographer, Madame Dufour, who declared that he must be insane, and proceeded to prove herself so by soberly replying to him. This incident is cited, not because of any sentiment of sympathy for his very startling thesis, which, by the way, was supported by one hundred and thirteen "weighty" reasons, but because it furnishes an illustration of the extraordinary extremes to which men have been known to resort in their devices for securing what to them have, for the time being, appeared to be adequate and reasonable provision for the intellectual training of youth.

In the history of education in this Province, nothing so far removed as this from the commonplace in educational theory has been advanced; nevertheless we have not been without our lesser and greater wars waged between men and parties of men whose aims were, in general, one, but whose choice of methods has exhibited sometimes a rather astonishing variety. Such diversity of opinion amongst men, most of whom have had a just claim to speak with a measure of authority, has unquestionably not been barren of good results. The valiant struggles of one who for a time held the position of Principal and Registrar of the Punjab University College, to defeat the aims of those who had at heart the introduction of a University system modelled upon the plan of the older Indian Universities, are matters of history. Although the end was defeat, it was a defeat closely allied

to a victory, since it issued in securing for this Province a University, which has consistently aimed to give the cultivation of the classical languages of the East a place of prominence in her curriculum.

And so all along the way, from a date when a University had not begun to be dreamed of, from 1849 to 1914, there have not been wanting men, teachers by profession and others no less keenly and intelligently interested in problems of education, who have wrought well, and led onward to results to which we may point with satisfaction to-day. From amongst such leaders (to refer only to those who are no longer living), there may be named Sir William Rattigan, Col. Holroyd and Sir Lewis Tupper; Rai Bahadur Sager Chand, Maulvi Muhammad Husain Azad and Bishop French; Dr. Forman, Dr. Sime and Khan Bahadur Saiyid Muhammad Latif; Pandit Navina Chandra Rai, Rai Bahadur Lala Lal Chand and Dr. Oman, not to speak in detail of that line of distinguished men who have occupied the position of Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab and Chancellor of its University. Mention of these names suggests the share borne by some of them in the provision of material equipment for the work of the University. During the period from 1874 to 1904, the University College, and later the fully organised University, could boast of but one building as its own. This was the structure still known as the Senate Hall, erected in 1874. Toward the cost of this Rs. 27,333 were given by His Highness the Nawab of Bahawalpur. In 1904 the University Hall was provided at a cost of Rs. 1,75,208. 1911 saw the erection of a Library Building costing Rs. 52,983. In 1913, what was formerly known as the Convent property, opposite the Senate Hall, was acquired at an expense of Rs. 2,75,000. In this are housed the Oriental and Law Colleges, the only institutions supported and directly managed by the University. Within a few weeks we expect to see completed a building and appliances for an Observatory. This provision will involve an outlay of about Rs. 25,000. In

addition to these another structure is shortly to be put up on a site adjoining the present Library, and is designed to provide for the rapidly increasing requirements of that important feature of our work, and also to furnish an additional Hall for Examinations and for University Lectures. The expenditure upon this will slightly exceed Rs. 90,000.

In pursuance of the desire to give to our operations something of that quality which belongs to a teaching body, a new departure was entered upon in 1913, when through the aid of a liberal recurring grant from the Government of India, we were able to secure the services, for a period of several months, of such distinguished scholars as Professor Ramsay Muir and Professor Arthur Smithells, to whom we are greatly indebted for a very decided and valuable stimulus given to the study and teaching of the subjects of Modern History and of Chemistry. In addition to these, mention must also be made of the valuable services rendered as lecturers by Dr. Horovitz on Arabic Literature, Dr. J. C. Bose on the subject of Physics, Mr. Gordon Sanderson upon Moghal Architecture and Mr. S. N. Gupta on Indian Art. Arrangements for the present year included a course of lectures on Economics by Professor Mavor of the University of Toronto, but circumstances have arisen to prevent his coming. We have been more fortunate in the matter of a lecturer on the subject of Physics, and it is with real pleasure that we welcome the presence here to-day of a distinguished scientist, Dr. Fournier d'Albe of the University of Birmingham, who some weeks ago entered upon the duties of his appointment.

Whilst referring to an occasional one of the steps in the progress achieved in years remote and near, a word of reference may appropriately be made to the pioneer amongst all our Colleges, one which this year completes its first half-century of conspicuous usefulness in this Province. Venerable in years, in comparison with all others, the Government College stands, not bearing the

faintest sign of such infirmity as we are wont to associate in our minds with long periods of life and service. On the contrary steadily growing, setting the pace for others in many things that are most essential, she is still in the youthful vigour of a life that gives promise of an ever increasing influence upon the entire educational situation in this part of India. The University of the Punjab extends to day to the Government College, Lahore, with which her own infant days were so intimately associated, most hearty congratulations upon the achievements of the past, and felicitates the College, and herself as well, upon the sort of history which it gives promise of making during its second fifty years of life.

It is not only in the provision of facilities for training, that advancement is to be noted. There has been a very remarkable increase in the number of students. This growth in numbers may be very briefly indicated. In Oriental Examinations there were, in 1882, 283 candidates of whom 127 passed. In the same year 249 persons appeared in the Matriculation test, and of these 100 were successful; in the Intermediate, 37 with 20 successful; in the B. A. 15 with but one who satisfied the examiners; in the M. A. 3 of whom all passed. Turning to the present year, the figures are these; in the Oriental tests, candidates and passes number 786 and 466 respectively; Matriculation 5,312 and 2,866; Intermediate 1,344 and 709; Bachelor's Degree 688 and 303; Master's Degree 66 and 38. When in 1882 these examinations were instituted there were, in all the high classes of all the schools in the Punjab, only 500 pupils as against 8,000 in 1914. There was one Arts College, with about 100 students; to-day there are sixteen such colleges with a total enrolment of more than 4,000.

But not to weary you further with statistics, let us pass to consider for a moment the significance of this enormous increase in the number of those who have gained, or are in process of acquiring a more or less liberal education. Time was when students of the situation confidently predicted an early subsidence of the wave of eagerness after that

* Address delivered by the Rev. J. O. R. Ewing, M.A., D.D., L.L.D., Vice-Chancellor of the University of the Punjab at the Convocation held recently.

particular type of training to be obtained in our schools and colleges. Years have passed, and there appears not even the feeblest sign of diminution in the demand. School and College buildings are full, many of them more than full, and still the youth from city, town and village come in annually in increasing numbers. The problem of how to provide for these threatens to become acute. It is obvious that existing places of learning must be enlarged or new ones established. The extent to which either or both plans shall be followed will depend upon a complexity of circumstances and conditions. But we are not, at this moment, concerned especially with the precise method which may be adopted to meet the need; we are thinking rather of the outstanding fact, that there seems to be practically no limit to the demand likely to be made upon Government and upon private bodies, for that particular form of training which was brought into vogue one-third of a century ago, or for some other form, possibly dissimilar in some particulars, yet possessed of the same general features as that which now prevails. In view of these things, every thoughtful friend of the people must of necessity give heed to certain considerations interwoven with conditions as we find them to-day, and as they will develop in the very near future.

In this relation a brief word as to the product, the output of our system may not be out of place. We hear from various quarters many voices raised in depreciation of the quality of the work. They tell us that youth are being "educated away" from their normal and natural means of livelihood; that in the professions of Law, Medicine and Engineering or in the direct employ of Government there are far too few openings to satisfy the legitimate ambitions of any but the few; that the instruction given is not in itself of much value, since, owing to the fact that it is imparted through the medium of a foreign tongue, it is essentially superficial; that our Province is destined to be filled ere long with a host of unhappy dissatisfied men, who, conscious of a high degree of preparedness for entry upon the higher walks of life find those walks closed to them through no fault of their own, but merely because of an over-supply

of men who wish a share in the same tasks that already engage the lives of as many workers as can find place within the scope of them. The list of reasons urged against things as they are, might indeed, be almost indefinitely extended.

Yet, after giving all due weight to each objection, and freely admitting that defects are many, and that the call for remedy and reform is exceedingly urgent, there still remains, I believe, the amplest ground for the contention that the system with which we are dealing has not failed, but on the contrary has, judged by its fruits, been surprisingly successful. Witness the lives and the work of many hundreds of graduates whose influence for good has been mighty. That defects are visible and adverse criticism very prevalent are not, in themselves, sufficient to put upon any form or system the brand of failure. Were it so the perusal of a few modern books or journals connected with education, would speedily convince us that there is little that is not out of joint in the schools and colleges of England and America.

Beginning from 1849, when the first school in which the elements of Western learning might be acquired was opened, and again from 1856, when the Department of Education was organised, there has been a steady and in the more recent years a rapid extension of educational machinery, resulting as we have seen in a small host of men and women, boys and girls who have reaped great gain from these advantages. It is not forgotten that out of our population, of every one thousand persons, 937 are still illiterate. This is not as it should be, or as it will be. The movement towards a very wide dissemination of knowledge has begun. Our contention at this moment is only this, that it has started not wholly upon wrong lines, and is destined eventually to bring under the scope of its influence an entire people.

That this rapidly swelling stream of beneficent influence should be stopped now, is unthinkable. That it will increase vastly in volume within the coming few decades is, I believe, certain. The great problem of our day is that of discovering whatever of mistake may exist in our methods, so that, with improved machinery and more expert

masters of it, the youth of the coming days may be still better fitted than their fathers are to take a helpful part in all that tends to ameliorate the lives of themselves and others.

The conviction grows upon one daily that those charged with the responsibilities of leadership in this part of India are, even now, face to face with a condition where a very wide extension of facilities for the best possible type of education will be imperative. What the Government may be able to do, in this direction, I do not know. Fortunately for my own peace of mind I am not, and shall not be called upon to decide. But the history of the decades that have passed warrants the assurance that we, who look to those in authority over us for great things in the line of the spread of enlightenment amongst the people, shall not look in vain. But supplementary to all that can fairly be looked for from this source, it is clear that individual and communal enterprise will be called upon to bear a share, far in advance of all that we have yet seen attempted.

Let us not, in our ambition to advance far beyond what has yet been attained, ignore or undervalue the achievements of the past. A comparison of things as they are in the Punjab with the standard reached in the West is apt to be seriously misleading. It is the rate of progress that counts most of all. If we would fairly estimate what has been done here and what we may reasonably expect to do, we might wisely, I think, put into contrast, the West of fifty years ago and the West of to-day, while we compare the conditions of a half century ago in this Province with those of the present time. One would not wish to make too much of this consideration, and yet a note of caution may not unreasonably be ventured against a tendency, observable in certain writers upon matters pertaining to education in India, to put the stamp of disapproval upon our degree of attainment by contrasting it with what has been actually done in the West, and neglecting to give India credit for

the truly remarkable rate of progress made. We are by no means satisfied with what has been done; but we do believe that the observance of such caution, as that to which reference is made, will make it clear that there is no reason for the sounding forth of any note of discouragement; but rather ample cause for anticipating a splendid advance in all that goes to make up the best type of education. As the sage in *Rasselas*, discoursing upon poetry, only convinces his hearers that no one ever can be a poet, is there not a danger lest some of our modern sages, by insisting upon unreasonable and impossible standards, foster a sentiment of hopelessness, fatal to the best endeavour?

One thing more in this connection. It does not seem that one is speaking too strongly when he gives it as his opinion, that failure to meet the situation of the hour is fraught with peril for the future. There is no thought here of physical peril; but of something much more serious and more to be dreaded than that. Ignorance, mental stagnation are, it is true, to be dreaded. But no degree of mental apathy can ever constitute so serious a menace to a people as a superficial education, a vicious system of so-called training, that bears in its wake wrong ideas and false conceptions as to the true meaning of a man's life amongst his fellows. Mere extent of information does not complete the ideal of the educated man. The preparatory stage, the College lectures, the tests applied by examiners have all been safely surmounted. More or less of consistent work has been done: but is the man educated? That is not so clear. The possession of a diploma is by no means synonymous with the possession of an education. Sometimes the man of a special kind of scholarship is cited as the type, the one who in some department of literature or of science has advanced very far. But a man might conceivably know a dozen different languages, yet never speak sensibly in any one of them. Still more deplorable it is when great accumulations of facts and the

smatterings of the schools push out from its proper place that symmetrical culture of mind and spirit, which alone can save the man from becoming the enemy, in fact, even though not in deliberate purpose, of his kind.

Gentlemen, I make no apology for a reference, on this occasion, to a topic that fills the thoughts of men and women all over the world, to the almost entire exclusion of many questions that ordinarily engage their attention. More than one-half of the population of the earth is directly concerned, on one side or other, in the greatest struggle of all the ages. Of those who remain, none can claim to be otherwise than profoundly interested in the result of this momentous contest. It is no part of my purpose here to dwell upon the causes which led to this situation. The appalling fact is before us, that many millions are facing other millions of their fellow-men on the field of battle. Of these thousands are dying, leaving homes desolate and families bereaved. It is a struggle into which the British Empire has entered with depth of conviction that its cause is just, and that it must, and will, prevail. The response to this great call of the hour has been marvellous, both in its extent and in the hearty enthusiasm and effectiveness with which it has been accompanied. Indian soldiers have shown, as it was known that they would do, the most splendid valour, in the presence of the mostly deadly assaults of the enemy. Some of those who as lads studied in our schools, and have stood in this Hall, in years that have gone, to receive the diploma of the University, and have uttered the same vow that you have taken upon yourselves to-day, have already laid down their lives on the field of carnage. Amongst these latter, I make mention, with both grief and pride, to the son of one who is an honoured member of our Senate, and to whom and to whose family our hearts go out in warmest sympathy. Others of our graduates may have already fallen, and it is not unlikely that still more may be called to die in the pathway

of duty. But what of that, if an Empire like this be saved from the hand of the destroyer? War is terrible; and of all sad facts none is sadder than this, that the passions of men should render it, at certain crises, inevitable and a thing to be preferred, when it comes to a choice between a supine yielding to injustice, wrong and the overthrow of the best ideals of men, on the one hand; and on the other, a deliberate determination to employ the best that we have for the defence of those things which, after all, are better than life.

None of the great countries absorbed in the present gigantic conflict can ever again revert to the conditions that preceded the outbreak of hostilities. This is as true of India as of any other land. When the struggle shall have been ended, there will still remain the necessity for the best effort of the country's best men, a need as great as that which exists now when she has not hesitated to offer, as a free gift, the lives of so many of her sons.

Of this there can surely be no possible doubt, that the Eastern Millions and the Western Millions of the Empire will understand and appreciate each other more adequately than ever in the past. Mutual regard and respect are being strengthened and being sealed in the blood that is being shed in a common cause. These are bound to be, in the years of your lives, young gentlemen, claims upon you the magnitude of which you have not as yet to any great degree measured. God grant, these be not demands for you to share in physical warfare. Personally, I do not believe that it will be so; for it appears to me that the present struggle is destined to teach the world a lesson, which Peace Conferences, with all the nobleness of their aims, have largely failed to do; that is, that nations must submit to arbitration, and that wars must cease from off the earth. Your conflicts are to be rather those in which mind and spirit are to be the chief weapons. For these your country stands in need of you, and upon you and such as you will largely depend the future of your land.

A few months ago, posters appeared all over Great Britain, surmounted by an enormous heading, which read, "Your King and Country need you." The summons took effect; hundreds and thousands crowded the recruiting stations. Before that call came, these volunteers were doubtless only average, self-centred citizens, absorbed in business and anxious about feeding and clothing the dear ones in their homes. But all at once business was forgotten; personal welfare became a consideration of small moment; even the interests of the home ceased to seem important. And what was it that transformed these young men from selfish strugglers into unselfish servants of their country? It is idle to talk of their being lured by the glamour of military romance and glory. The real explanation lies in the conviction that came to them that they were needed. King and Country needed them. There is no conviction so mighty as this in leading a man up to the supreme possibilities of his manhood. Your life is not meant to be a dream of rest and a scene of idleness, but a field of activity, energy and persistent toil. King and country, home and society, the great suffering world need you every one. They need the best that your lives can ever give.

"God and War! but when brute war is ended,
Yet there shall be many a noble soldier,
Many a noble battle worth the winning,
Many a hopeless battle worth the losing.

Life is battle,
Life is battle, even to the sunset."

We are requested to publish the following:—

NOTICE.

THE

SOUTH INDIAN TEACHERS' UNION CONFERENCE.

This year the Conference will be held at Nellore on the 7th and 8th proximos under the presidency of M.R.Ry. K. B. Ramanatha Iyer Avl.

Programme:

7th, 7-30 A.M. Welcome Address by Miss Tancate.
" Presidential Address.
" Subjects Committee Meeting.
" 6 P.M. "At Home" to all the delegates.
8th, 11 A.M. Resolutions and Papers.

The Reception Committee will gladly make the necessary arrangements for the lodging and boarding of the delegates in case they make a requisition to the Secretary on or before the 2nd prox.

Special arrangements will be made for Europeans, in case intimation is given on or before the 2nd prox. to Miss Tancate, A.B.M. Compound, Nellore. The boarding charges, it is roughly estimated, will amount to 1 Rupee per day in the case of Indians, and 2 Rupees per day in the case of Europeans.

The Secretary requests all those interested in education to attend the Conference and make it a success.

V. SAYANNA SASTRI, M.A., L.T.,

Secretary, South Indian Teachers'

NELLORE, } Union Conference, Nellore.

23-4-1915.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

"Industrial Education," by the Hon'ble Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair.

At the Fifth Anniversary of the "National College" at Masulipatam, the President, the Hon'ble Justice Sir C. Sankaran Nair, gave a stirring address, in the course of which he said :—

A large part of the speech of Mrs. Naidu and a portion of the report of the Headmaster of this institution was occupied with a defence and a justification of the courses pursued in this College, of a combination of scientific and technical education with literary education. Such defence might have been needed some five years ago when this institution started. But now you have only to look around and see what is being done here. You will see in the workshop that the students are put to manual labour, and that on the whole they get a manual training, and further that this training gives them that alertness and spirit of enterprise which are necessary to success in this world. You will see not only that the ryots frequently resort to this place for assistance and advice, but that those responsible for this institution have already succeeded in bringing under cultivation waste lands which would have continued waste, they have succeeded in utilizing water which even the Government officials had not been able to utilize and which had, therefore, been allowed to run to waste, has been utilized to the improvement of Government revenue and benefit of the ryots themselves. That will give you an idea of the practical benefit conferred by the institution. They are taught that manual labour is not degrading and can never be degrading so long as it is useful to the country, and that our best intellects are required in the interests of productive industry. They are required to go through drudgery to make them fit for the production of great industries and to be captains of industry. The necessity of such training dawns upon them and through them upon all who come into contact with them, and finally we all feel that we have a corrective to that absorption in mental training which makes our mind keen and subtle, but leaves our bodies weak. But if this is all the impression you carry with you when you leave this compound you will be very wrong, because the institution is not merely or mainly a workshop for material profit, though now I understand from the report it is worked at a loss. It is mainly intended to send out good citizens, and therefore special attention is paid to moral and mental culture. Religious

education as you have seen to-day is given, not in the dogmas which divide the various Hindu sects but in the right principles which bring out our unity and tend to the unification of races and sects. Education is not, of course, confined to orthodox Hindus. The good old Hindu rule of free education is carried into practical effect, the lower classes being free. In the higher classes only those who are able need pay their fees. The curriculum is under Indian control. Indian history is taught from the true standpoint showing the causes of our degradation and indicating the means of our regeneration without a knowledge of which progress is quite impossible.

Above all the boys are made to feel that they will find in their teachers a friend, a helper and a councillor that their education is undertaken from a spirit of sacrifice, and no sacrifice of them is demanded for the benefit of their teachers. It is undertaken to train India's future citizens and shape India's destiny. The boys are not subject to the discipline of the barrack room; what is required from them is voluntary submission to rules framed out of having regard for their benefit and sanctioned by their own public opinion and self-respect. Boys of this institution, you can acquire here that practical knowledge which is necessary to success in life; you can acquire the energy and organising power which conduce to individual as to national success, and, above all, you can acquire that character and spirit of sacrifice which are needed to uplift your country. A word now about the Professors of this institution. They have undertaken this work as a labour of love and thought, though some of them have attained the highest honours this or English Universities can bestow and possess qualifications which might justly entitle them to expect positions of high remuneration, of power or influence.

"Agricultural Education," by Dr. Leslie C. Coleman, M. A., Ph. D.

At the distribution of certificates and prizes to successful students of the Mysore Government Agricultural School, Dr. Leslie C. Coleman, M. A., Ph. D., Director of Agriculture, addressed the gathering as follows:—It seems hardly necessary for me to emphasize the importance of Agricultural Education in Mysore. Agriculture is, and will undoubtedly remain the foundation of the State's prosperity. It is therefore to the improvement of agriculture and agricultural conditions, as to no other source, that we must look for the sound development of the State.

I have before me the first class who have com-

pleted the course in our Agricultural School. I am glad to know that a fair proportion of you are going to turn your backs on the allurements of Government service and propose instead to cultivate your own lands. I feel sure that in making this decision you are making out for yourselves the most useful and influential career possible for you.

I wonder if you realize to the full the extent of your responsibilities and opportunities. Most of you possess (or your fathers possess) fairly large estates. This in itself will place you in positions of importance in your home, town or village. The practical and theoretical training which you have received in the Agricultural School will enable you to utilize this influence in a very practical manner in the improvement of the agricultural methods not only of your own lands but also of the lands of those about you. You have also received useful and practical instruction on the business side of agriculture—a side which sadly needs development in Mysore. In the running of your hostel you have had the opportunity of learning something of the great advantages which spring from co-operation. In all these directions you should go out from here as missionaries in the truest sense of the word carrying tidings of enlightenment and emancipation to the ignorant and the economically oppressed. Furthermore, I wish to impress upon you that the Agricultural Department of the State expects to keep in close touch with you and to utilize you as its agents for the spread of agricultural information throughout the State. I trust that your intercourse with your teachers has given rise to that mutual confidence which will induce you to come to the Department for advice and assistance in the larger affairs of life with which you are about to grapple.

Let me emphasize one other point. There is and will, I presume, remain in the State for some time to come an impression that those young men who are not likely to prove a success in other walks of life are quite good enough as material for an agricultural school. I have in mind one young man, an agriculturist by caste, and the son of a Patel who came to me for a letter to the Principal of one of the Bangalore High Schools. When I suggested to him that he might utilize his time more profitably by joining the Agricultural School, he replied that he wished to finish his education. In his mind apparently the training given in the Agricultural School could not be properly called education. Now, it is for you, young men, to prove by your future careers that the training in the use of hand, eye and brain which you have received during the past two years, is education in

a more real and practical sense than the memorising out of books which now bulks so large in the minds of many people in this State.

The Vernaculars as Media of Education, by Mr. Ramananda Chatterji.

Babu Ramananda Chatterji, Editor, the "Modern Review," writes the following special article in the "Punjabee":—

That boys and girls should receive knowledge through the medium of their vernaculars is the only natural arrangement. It is only the peculiar circumstances of India which necessitate a discussion of the suitability of a pupil's mother-tongue as the medium of instruction. Yet even in India, in the earliest stage of a child's education, the vernacular is invariably the medium of instruction. I have, indeed, heard that in the Punjab children are taught in some schools through the medium of Urdu, though their mother-tongue is Punjabi. I do not know whether this is true; but, if true, it is only an exception to the general rule, prevailing throughout India.

A nation's best thoughts and ideals are embodied in its literature; and a nation can show itself at its best and in its native hue only in the literature written in its vernacular. Each nation, each people, each race, has something characteristic to contribute to the sum-total of human thoughts and ideals; and this it can do best through the vernacular. So the cultivation of the vernacular language and literature is incumbent on all.

So long as knowledge is, for the most part, acquired through a foreign tongue, not only is its acquisition comparatively slow and difficult, but it also remains to a great extent unassimilated. It becomes entirely a "permanent" national possession, a part and parcel of the national consciousness, only when it is acquired through the medium of the vernacular and is embodied in the vernacular literature.

A writer in the "Calcutta Review" for December, 1855, p. 309, said :—

"History tells us, that no nation has ever yet been civilised or educated, save through its own vernacular, and that the uprooting of a vernacular is the extermination of the race, or at least of all its peculiar characteristics. Speech, thought and existence are so closely bound together that it is impossible to separate them. They are the great trinity in unity of the race." In the abstract, then, all must agree that the vernacular should be the medium of instruction, and that the vernacular

language and literature should be cultivated. But as India is ruled by foreign rulers, it is necessary for us to learn their language. As modern knowledge cannot be acquired by reading books in any Indian vernacular alone, it is all the more necessary to learn a foremost foreign language. For inter provincial intercourse, for the unification of India, for international intercourse, and for the transaction of business outside one's own province and beyond the bounds of India, it is necessary to learn a widely used foreign tongue. As all the above purposes are served by learning English, it is necessary for us to know that language.

The recent resolution in the Viceroy's Council which has roused fresh interest in the question under discussion, did not contemplate the total abolition of English. It proposed to teach English as a second language in secondary schools, all other subjects being taught through the medium of the vernaculars. This simplifies the discussion to a great extent.

Let us now see whether the subjects usually taught up to the Matriculation standard can be taught through the vernaculars. In the lower classes of high schools vernacular text-books are used; and in the higher classes though the text-books are English, the vernacular is freely used by the teachers to explain them to the students. Speaking from my experience of Bengal, I can say that Bengali has been used by some very successful professors in explaining mathematics and the physical sciences to their students in the College classes. This shows, *"prima facie,"* that when Bengali can be used for the purpose of exposition, it can also be used for the purpose of writing text-books. And what is true of Bengali is true of the other advanced vernaculars of India also. In Bengali there are text-books for use in vernacular middle schools and training schools in such subjects as history, geography, physics, chemistry, physical geography, botany, algebra, trigonometry, etc. I presume similar text-books exist or may be prepared in the other leading vernaculars. These text-books may be made suitable for use for Matriculation students by inclusion of additional matter and other means.

So long ago as 1864, that is, half-a-century ago the late Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan established a Translation Society which translated into Urdu such books as Todhunter's Algebra. If this could be done fifty years ago, we should be able now to prepare scientific and mathematical text-books for Matriculation students. Readers of the papers written by Dr. Brajendranath Seal on the knowledge of mathematics and the physical sciences

possessed by the ancient Hindus (published by the Panini Office of Allahabad) know that in Sanskrit there already exist some technical terms suitable for us in Kinetics and other sciences.

It is well-known that before contact with the Western world, Japanese literature was not more advanced than the leading vernacular literatures of India, and that Chinese literature, on which the Japanese fall back for borrowing or coining new words, is not more copious, rich or advanced than Sanskrit, Arabic or Persian literature. These being the circumstances it is remarkable that Count Okuma, Premier of Japan, founded the Waseda University in 1882 partly because he wished to see an institution "where all the work" "was done in Japanese." The lack of suitable text-books was a difficulty overcome by making part of the school a publishing office for such—an office which has recently (1905) begun to prove remunerative. ("The educational system of Japan" by W. H. Sharp, p. 292). About a year ago Waseda University had one hundred and eighty professors and instructors with more than seven-thousand students. It has departments of Politics, Law, Economics, Commerce, Science, Engineering, and Literature, in fact every faculty except Medicine. There are some other Japanese Universities where the medium of instruction is Japanese, though, unlike Waseda, they prescribe German, French or English text-books also.

However, if University education can be given and higher mathematical and scientific text-books can be written in Japanese, it is clear that the advanced vernaculars of India can be used for writing text-books for the Matriculation course and as media of instruction up to the highest grades of Secondary schools. If in the mathematical and scientific text-books, the technical terms are given both in English and the vernacular, as they are given in many Bengali text-books, students after matriculating would be the more easily able to follow college lectures delivered in English.

The "Pioneer" on Sectarian Universities.

Sectarian Universities are, generally speaking, out of favour in the Western world. The religious tests which they imposed were disliked because they were felt to interfere with freedom of conscience, and the Universities themselves were seen to foster the prejudices of a particular sect which it was desired to merge in the common nationality. We may conceive that the former objection has little force in India. An Indian student's religion is determined by his birth. The Indian Sectarian Universities will, as a matter of policy, not close

their doors entirely to students of other creeds than their own (though that device will not really make them any the less sectarian); and, if they did, the non-conformist seeker for knowledge could still resort to the secular Universities. But in the second objection the gist of the whole question lies. No doubt the reply may be made that so long as denominational colleges exist under a merely examining and non-religious University, the drawbacks of a narrow sectarian atmosphere make themselves felt at present in the colleges exactly as they would do in the University. Whatever sectarian prejudice possesses, Ram Bux of Benares is not appreciably affected by seeing his name in the same B. A. list of the Allahabad University as Khuda Bux of Lucknow. But that argument, it seems to us, covers rather less than half the ground. Universities, if they are to fulfil the ideals presented to us, are the microcosms where all kinds of characters and opinions mix and inform each other. It is a trite saying that their universality is not of learning but of life. They are the organised commonwealths, but not the mobilised army corps of education. It may be well to assemble students in denominational colleges, but the educational ideal requires that those denominational colleges should be grouped together in a non-denominational University where Saiyid may mix with Brahman and Kayasth with Parsee. Nor can it reasonably be denied that the religious prejudices which a sectarian college encourages are at least likely to be strengthened in a University where students of one faith gather not in hundreds but in thousands, and where numbers and prestige alike tend to associate material greatness with the spiritual idea.

It must not be forgotten how closely religion in India is identified with politics. We prefer not to dwell on the danger that students of one creed focussed in large centres, controlled by a sectarian committee, may prove to be ready-raised levies for the purposes of political adventurers. That peril is an obvious one against which Government will no doubt take its precautions. But, apart from any question of deliberate guidance, we do apprehend that the educational division of Indian students into two marked religious communities may tend inevitably to throw them into two different political camps. The free mixture of caste and creed in the lecture rooms and debating halls of Indian Universities was one means by which there was hope of national type of character being evolved. Such has been abandoned in the new scheme for a nearer and clearer goal. It may be that, in the present state of things, an Indian nationality can only be approached through

the development of the racial characters of the several communities and that before a man can be a good citizen of India he must be a good Hindu or a good Mahomedan. But we are walking in uncertain ways without clearly discerning where they lead; and prudent men must feel that there is at least a risk that the greater if remoter good is being sacrificed to the nearer and more apparent one. It will rest with those who guide the new movement to do their utmost to obviate this risk.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Meeting of the Senate.

A meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held recently at the Senate House, College Square. There was a large attendance and the Hon. Dr. D. P. Sarvadhicari presided.

The first item on the agenda was the election of the Syndicate for the remainder of the year 1915-16 in place of the Hon. Dr. Nilratan Sarkar, M.A., M.D., whose term of office as an Ordinary Fellow of the University expired on the 31st March, 1915, but who has since been re-appointed as an Ordinary Fellow.

The Hon. Dr. Nilratan Sarkar was re-elected.

The Senate next accepted the recommendation of the Syndicate that in extension of the affiliation already granted to the Ripon College, it be further affiliated in Physics and Chemistry to the B.A. and B.Sc. Pass standards with effect from the session 1915-16.

The Senate then accepted the recommendation of the Syndicate and permitted six Indian students to appear at the M.A. examination this year as non-Collegiate students in the subjects which were noted against their respective names in the agenda.

Sanction was given for the admission of one student to the current B.A. examination as a non-Collegiate student as his percentage of attendance at lectures in Philosophy had owing to illness fallen slightly short of the prescribed minimum and after some discussion permission was given to about a couple of dozen other students to appear at the next Preliminary Intermediate or Final Examination in Law as non-Collegiate students, the deficiency in their attendance ranging from 1 to 33 per cent. There were only two who had this high percentage of deficiency and small-pox was the cause. Their cases were considered separately and sanction was given with only five objectors.

The Registrar then placed before the Senate a letter from the Government of India, Department of Education, having reference to the proposed change in Section I, Chapter XLV of the University Regulations.

Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee pointed out that the letter to which this reply was sent on 5th March 1915 was dated 3rd November 1913. He thought they ought to congratulate the Education Department of the Government of India upon the expeditious way in which they attended to the correspondence in this case. He trusted the Hon. Mr. Hornell would make a note of it.

The letter was directed to be referred to the Faculty of Medicine.

This concluded the business before the meeting.

THE BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

Scheme for Additions.

The scheme for additions to the Bombay University was unanimously passed by the Senate at its meeting on the 9th instant. Dr. Mann, Chairman of the Committee, which has been considering the subject, mentioned that the funds it was proposed to use for the purchase were given to the University two years ago by the Government of India as non-recurring grant and the Government of India had approved of the plans which had been submitted to them. Dr. Mann explained that the adoption of the proposal would be the second large step in converting the University into a body active in teaching and research and would be an outward and visible sign of transition of the University to a new position when it would be the centre and inspirer of higher knowledge, original enquiry and of fertile research in Western India.

New Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University

Sir Pherozeshah M. Mehta has assumed charge of the office of Vice-Chancellor of the Bombay University in succession to Sir J. J. Heaton.

Reviews and Notices.

CHARACTER TRAINING, BY MRS. E. L. CUBOT AND MR. E. EYLAS. (HARRAP & Co.) 3s. 6d. net.

This is an American publication and very much resembles the book on "*Character and Conduct*" in the Moral Education Series recently reviewed by us. It supplies matter for the moral training of pupils for eight educational years from childhood up to the High School stage and embraces a variety of subjects from 'Helpfulness' for the first year to 'Choosing a Calling' for the last, and no principles of conduct and qualities of character which promote the welfare of the individual and society are omitted. In the absence of religious instruction in Government and most other schools in India no attempt is made by teachers to train up children in these principles although opportunities for doing so can be created in the teaching of the Readers both in the Vernaculars and in English. Even where time is provided for specific "Moral Instruction" the teachers cannot find suitably classified and arranged material. This book gives both the material and the method to enable teachers to do so, and by so doing makes it easier for the moral lesson to be given a definite place in the curriculum of the school. For each month enough material has been provided for at least one lesson a week; generally a passage for reading, a story for telling and a poem or prose extract for memorizing have been given. The last chapter entitled the "Choice of a Calling" divides human interests into five great types: art, science, nurturing or care-taking, business or industrial pursuits and public service, and points out that where inclination is combined with thoroughness, sympathy, a proper use of time, perseverance, responsibility, discipline, and high ideals, success is certain. A boy impressed with the lessons conveyed in this need never want for work in which he can make himself useful to himself and to his fellow beings. Another interesting chapter at this time is that on Patriotism. The predominant note of the whole of the ethical teaching in the book is social service and strength of character—two special needs of the Indian nation at the present time. We can recommend the book for use by all who are engaged in the teaching profession and have a real desire to improve not only the intellect but also the heart and morals of the pupils entrusted to their charge.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY, BY JOHN MCFARLANE, M.A., M. C. M. LECTURER IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER. (PITMAN AND SONS). 7s. 6d. net.

The University of Manchester has done a great deal towards organising the teaching of even the commercial subjects on a more rational and scientific basis and this volume before us by the University Lecturer in Geography will stand high as a standard authority in the subject. What has given to geography a new interest and a new value in recent years is the substitution of regional for political units. This regional treatment enables even laymen to fully understand and appreciate the nature of geographical control and distinguish one region from other for purposes either of exploitation or of occupation. In this *Economic Geography* the author has "endeavoured to divide the countries of the world into Natural Regions and to trace the influence of the geographical conditions of each upon the economic life of man within it." We recognise that in India the economic development is influenced not by geographical environment merely but also by the political conditions which prevail. The interaction which takes place between man and his environment cannot be ignored and the author has done well to classify and examine each regional unit and trace the influence of its geographical conditions upon the life of man within it and to present the details of the economic life of the different communities.

So far, the book is satisfactory. But we regret it is disappointing in several respects. We are surprised that enough stress has not been laid on "General conditions." The first three chapters are devoted to a consideration of these conditions and not more than 26 pp. are assigned to it. Physical conditions of economic activity deserve much better and more rational treatment. The chapter on Climate is equally disappointing. The author truly observes: "Climatic conditions are of the greatest importance in explaining alike the dense population of the monsoon countries and the scattered tribes of the desert, the higher civilization of temperate lands and the lower development of tropical regions." And yet nothing more is attempted in this chapter than a consideration of the circulation of the atmosphere by which the air movements in high altitudes are assumed to be scientifically determined. Such statements as "the Trade Winds have been sucked in from their usual course by the continental low pressure area" are among those

which the scientist would find fault with. The chapter on Vegetation is the most disappointing of all. About twenty of the vegetable products are selected and conditions of growth are explained. Details are thoroughly accurate and comprehensive but what is lacking in the book is the exposition of the fundamentals. Matters of economic importance are of world-wide importance and broad outlook is necessary in its treatment.

The book is again without good illustrations and that takes away from its value. Teachers of Geography will however find it a standard book of references.

LIFE OF LORD HARDINGE, BY M. RAMAKRISHNA ROW OF M. R. KRISHNA RAO AND CO., NELLORE. 4s. 8.

This biography of our present Viceroy is in simple and chaste Telugu. The chief incidents in his life are referred to in brief in the opening pages. The rest of the book is devoted to a consideration of the chief questions which have been agitating the public mind in recent years. The author has, in inimitably sweet language, shown how the illustrious Viceroy has won the affection and esteem of the people of India committed to his trust. The Resolution passed at the last Session of the Indian National Congress praying for an extension of the period of Viceroyalty is referred to. The sad incidents of the death of Lady Hardinge and of her son are in a very touching language presented by the author so as to draw the reader nearer to the Viceroy. This biography aims at showing that the Viceroy is the best of the pro-Consuls ever sent out to rule over India. Some of his utterances are translated in flowing Telugu. We are sorry the book has no illustrations. School boys will find the book delightful for reading.

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APRIL 1915.]

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movements of 1848, the Frankfurt Parliament and the Hungarian Rebellion, the Schleswig-Holstein Question, the Austro-Prussian and the Franco-German Wars, the foundation of the German Empire and its central European Hegemony. From 1878, a new era of European History has definitely opened and the publishers intend to bring the parent book up-to-date with as little delay as possible.

BELL'S ENGLISH HISTORY SOURCE BOOKS: (a) THE NORMANS IN ENGLAND, 1066—1154; (b) THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENT AND THE WAR WITH SCOTLAND, 1216—1307. (GEORGE BELL AND SONS). 1s. each.

We have already to hand two volumes of this series, viz., *the Welding of the Race* and *Palmerston to Disraeli*, a review of which was published in our issue of October last. We there pointed out the value of such a series as an indispensable adjunct to the teaching of history. The era of source-books has definitely set in; and we have not the least doubt that the present series will take a first rank in it. Not only are the extracts given capable of being used as lively illustrations to the remarks made by teachers; but at the same time they are so varied and present so many aspects of the history of the periods to the minds' eye, that they would be sufficient material to work with, even for high-grade students. For instance in the first volume we have extracts from the most famous of contemporary or slightly later chroniclers like *William of Malmesbury*, *Simeon of Durham*, *Florence of Worcester* and the like, as well as pieces from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, the *Domesday Survey*, the *Dialogus de Scaccario*, etc. Economic features of the times, the various phases of civic and guild activities and of social life generally are also presented. *Matthew Paris*, *Roger of Wendover*, *Rymer's Foedera* and *Walter of Hemingburgh*—these are the main quarries from which the major portion of the extracts of the latter volume are taken. These ought to satisfy even college students and give them enough matter for inference-drawing, for comprehensive grasp of essentials and for lively illustrations. We heartily commend this series to the earnest attention of teachers and students alike.

GENERAL EUROPEAN HISTORY, 1789 TO 1900, BY O. J. THATCHER AND F. SCHWILL, EDITED AND ADAPTED BY A. HASSALL. (JOHN MURRAY). 2s. 6d.

This small book is a reprint of the concluding portion of Thatcher and Schwill's *General Sketch of European History*, being now issued in popular form owing to the great demand now made for some simple record of the events of the nineteenth century. The period begins with the French Revolution which created the important political principles of the sovereignty of the people and of national unity. These principles were embodied, in the various movements of liberalism which have swept over Europe ever since 1830. After the foundation of the German Empire in 1871, and the completion of Italian unity and Hungarian autonomy under the Habsburg rule, we might say that very generally constitutional or limited monarchies on a national basis have been set up throughout Europe. The few exceptions that remain to this general rule are now Poland, Finland, Ireland and the Slav territories under Austrian rule. The African problem and the Chino-Japanese War of 1895 have also received fair treatment; but as the publisher cautions us in the preface, the later chapters were written in 1901 and reflect the sympathies and impressions of that date; and hence from the present angle of view of Englishmen the book may need much alteration, especially in its distribution of praise and dispraise to the diplomatic skill of English Ambassadors and Foreign Ministers. Maps illustrating Central Europe in 1810 and 1845, and the Balkan Peninsula in 1881, have been added as a special feature to the book, as well as a small index.

THE OXFORD HISTORY READERS: (a) OUTLINES OF ENGLISH HISTORY, BY R. STEAD; (b) THE STORY OF THE EMPIRE, BY F. L. BOWMAN; (c) THE GEORGIAN PERIOD, BY MRS. JAMES OWEN; (d) THE REIGN OF EDWARD VII, BY MRS. LAURENCE BINYON. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS).

The present series is another valuable addition to the fast increasing supply of historical and narrative readers in which Messrs. Blackie and Son and Messrs. Nelson & Co. have been hitherto so prominent. These readers are graduated according to the growing comprehension of the secondary school boy. The first book which stands fourth in the list gives an account of the

history of England in the shape of simple narrative lessons beginning from the landing of Cæsar in Britain and coming down to the Boer War. The lessons on the Danes in England and on the Age of the New Learning are specially good and their value is enhanced by charming coloured plates. *The Story of the Empire* is intended as a short sketch of the growth of the British Empire and dwells largely on the striking and picturesque incidents in the lives of the 'buccaneers' and the early colonists, round which the boys' mind may build up a frame work of future knowledge. The book is supplemented by a selection of passages illustrating the difficulties and triumphs of explorers and pioneers, like Cartier and Hearne, Wolfe and Clive, Campbell and Cook. *The Georgian Period* is illustrative of social life in England in the eighteenth century in its educational, commercial and agricultural aspects as well as those changes which were brought about in the nineteenth century. An appendix to the book contains the principal poems relating to the period like, 'Welcome Royal Charlie,' 1745, Byron's 'Eve of Quatre Bas,' etc.

The Reign of Edward VII largely deals with the development of national defence and the Boy Scouts movement, and briefly touches upon the peace policy of Edward. All the volumes have a set of questions at the end which are designed as a test of the care with which the text has been read, and also as a stimulus to further thought. The smooth and bold type, the numerous and beautiful illustrations and the pretty binding—these also enhance the attractiveness of the series.

PROTECTED PRINCES IN INDIA, BY SIR DAVID WEDDERBURN.—(CONGRESS GREEN BOOK.) PUBLISHED BY THE BRITISH COMMITTEE OF THE INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS. Price 3d.

This pamphlet is a reprint from an article contributed by the author to 'The Nineteenth Century' of July 1878. It is a plea for the establishment of a tribunal consisting of judges of men of the loftiest character in India to hear and decide cases in which the interests of the ruling chiefs are concerned and the Government of India is a party. Now the British Government as the paramount power, acting in their executive capacity, decide all cases, civil and criminal, to which the Protected Princes are parties. If the Secretary of State confirms the decision of the Indian Government, there remains as a Court of Appeal only the floor of the House of Commons where the original decision against the appellant is once

more confirmed. As Sir William Wedderburn says in the prefatory note to this pamphlet the Indian princes enjoy neither the independence of foreign princes, nor the privileges of British subjects. When accused of crime they are denied the privileges enjoyed by the meanest British subject, and are not tried by their peers, nor confronted with their accusers. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is not open for appeal to the ruling chiefs. And what is now required is the substitution of the judicial for the diplomatic system in dealing with the Protected States. The mere existence of an impartial tribunal in which Government might be compelled to assign reasons publicly for their policy would be a complete protection against any act of flagrant injustice. Mr. John Bright pleaded for the establishment of such a Court as early as 1858. Mr. Fawcett advocated it, Sir David Wedderburn strongly championed the cause; and the present magnificent outburst of loyalty to the Empire on the part of the Indian princes may be used by the Paramount Power as an opportunity for doing justice in this long-suffering cause.

OXFORD SUPPLEMENTARY READERS—SCENES OF HANOVERIAN TIMES—HENRY FROWDE. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS.)

The series of which this book is the first instalment consists of long and simple passages from the writings of men who lived in the times that they described and from the works of great historians. Thackeray's *Delights of Travelling*, De Quincey's *Mail Coach*, Defoe's *Stourbridge Fair*, Gladstone's *England in the Jubilee Year*—these are but representatives of a number of life-like sketches with which the book abounds. As far as possible, all difficult documents have been excluded, and only simple and picturesque episodes are dwelt upon. Each passage has a few words of explanation as its introduction and these carry on the continuity of the story from chapter to chapter. The book enables the child to drink from (original works) "fresh water and not from a muddy pool" in the words of Dr. Arnold.

A PRELIMINARY HISTORY OF ENGLAND, BY M. K. ELLIOTT AND M. S. ELLIOT. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LONDON).

This little text-book gives a plain and simple account of the most important events in English History and of their causes and effects. And in particular the sequence of historical cause and

effect is pointed out and brought pointedly before the learner's mind; and the authors have attempted their best to prevent the narrative from becoming a mere series of isolated facts. Wherever possible chapters on social history have been added, and prominent constitutional events have received adequate treatment. The book is plentifully supplied with maps; though the pictures are few and far from being attractive. The maps are very clear and accurate and the chronological table is everything that is to be desired. Each chapter has got an introductory para. dealing with contemporary rulers and powers. On the whole the volume is a fairly successful attempt at text-book writing for beginners and deserves every encouragement at the hands of schools.

THE ABBEY HISTORY READERS. BOOK VI—THE VICTORIAN ERA (1837-1912). (GEORGE BELL AND SONS). 1s.

This latest addition to the *Abbey History Readers* gives a brief and clear summary of English History from 1837, as well as of the growth of the Overseas Empire. Egypt and the Sudan troubles, South Africa and the Boers receive good treatment; and there are special chapters devoted to the prime-ministers of the century and to the growth of literature. The book forms an excellent preparatory course for secondary students and is well-illustrated with reproductions of pictures; and we commend it for use in the Fourth and Fifth Forms of our schools.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

BOOKS FROM MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO. LONDON.

- The Progress to Literature, edited by Richard Wilson: Stage I. Wendy's Friends, 10d. Stage II. The Home of the Lost Boys, 1s. Stage III. The Chimney Corner, 1s. 3d. Stage IV. The Stage Porch, 1s. 6d. Stage V. Masterful Men, 1s. 8d. Stage VI. King's Treasures, 2s.
- Elementary Principles of Economics, by Richard, T. Ely, PH.D. LL.D. and George Ray Wicker PH.D., 4s. 6d.
- British Orators, by J. H. Fowler, 1s.
- The British Empire: Six Lectures, by Sir Charles P. Lucas, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., 2s. net.
- Representative English Comedies, Vol. III, edited by C. M. Gayley, Litt. D., LL.D., 2s. 6d. net.
- The Pupil's Class Book of English History Book 1, from Early Times to 1485, by Ed. J. S. Lay, 6d.

Esone and other Poems of Tennyson, by Rowe and Webb, 1s. 9d.

Essays in Criticism, by Matthew Arnold, 1s. net.

BOOKS FROM MESSRS. G. BELL & SONS.

Examples in Arithmetic, by W. M. Baker, M.A. and A. A. Bourne, M.A. 2s.

In Many Lands, Books I and II, by Samuel Gibson, 1s. each.

A Shilling Arithmetic, by W. M. Baker, M.A., and A. A. Bourne, M.A. 1s. 4d.

Practical Heat, Light and Sound, by T. Pictor, M.A. B.Sc., 1s. 6d.

A Senior Mental Arithmetic, by Samuel Gibson, 1s. 6d.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century, by E. Nixon and H. R. Steel, 2s.

Via Romana: A First Latin Course on the Direct Method, by Frank Granger, 1s. 6d.

A First Course of Practical Chemistry for Rural Secondary Schools, by William Aldridge, B.A. B.Sc., 1s. 6d.

Leaders of English Literature, by A. F. Bell, 2s. net.

Bell's Shakespeare for Schools, edited by S. P. B. Mais, M.A.

Coriolanus, King Henry IV. Part I and Part II, King Lear and Twelfth Night, 1s. each.

Bell's Simplified German Texts: Frau Luna Section A, by Von Ottilie Wildermuth, 1s. Bilder Aus Der Neueren Deutschen Geschichte, Section B, 1s.

Bell's Six Penny French Texts: La Capitaine Pamphile, by Alexander Dumas, 6d. Trois Contes, by Topffer, 6d.

C'est La Guerre, by Marc Ceppi, 1s. net.

Le Journal D'Un Garnement, by A.S. Treves, 1s. 4d. net.

Waterloo, by Erckmann Chatrain, 2s. 6d.

La Lac De Gers, by Topffer, 1s.

The Adventures of Baron Munchausen, by W. H. Austie, 2s.

OTHER BOOKS.

Hemlatha, by Dr. V. Rangacharya; Madras: Sri Balasubramaniam & Co. Re. 1.

Charles Dickens's A Tale of Two Cities, edited by Egerton Smith 12 as. (Bombay Oxford University Press.)

The Children's Comedies of Prose and Poetry, London: Philip, 4d.

The Simpler Parts of Speech, by Percival C. Wren, M.A. Bombay Cooper, 6 as.

Story Poems for Composition, by Percival C. Wren, M.A. Bombay Cooper, 10 as.

Principles of Physical Geography, by G. C. Fry, M.Sc. London, Clive.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The Madras Collegiate Association.—The Annual General Meeting of the Association was held recently in the Presidency College, under the presidency of Sir Harold Stuart, and some formal business was transacted. There were present a dozen members.

The report showed that at a meeting on December 7th, it was decided to abolish the Cricket and Hockey Knock-out Tournaments, the Professors' Cup to be given as a College Cup for the best athlete in the Sports and the Stokes Shield to be held in the possession of the Association. With regard to the general conduct of the competitions, it is satisfactory to report that the rules made in relation to the wearing of College colours and the scratching of matches without due notice have been effective. Though there have been a few cases of teams scratching without notice to the Secretary, this evil has been much less prevalent. The system of arranging fixtures at weekly meetings has been continued, though College representatives have not attended regularly, particularly towards the end of the season when their attendance is most useful. Changes were also introduced this year in the conditions of the school competitions. The age limit for players was removed, thus making the School terms as representative as the College terms. A second change was the tentative substitution of a Hockey for a Cricket Tournament. The accounts show a credit balance of Rs. 568-7-8.

Sir V. C. Desikachari proposing the formal adoption of the report and Mr. Armstrong seconding it, the Resolution was carried.

Sir Harold Stuart was unanimously re-elected as the President and Sir V. C. Desikachari and Lt.-Col. Giffard as Vice-Presidents. The Secretary for the year is to be Mr. Armstrong.

Before the meeting dissolved Sir Harold Stuart proposed a vote of thanks to Mr. E. W. Green, the retiring Secretary, Sir V. C. Desikachari seconded the proposal, and Mr. E. W. Green made a suitable reply.

The Canara High School, Mangalore.—The Canara High School Day was celebrated with great enthusiasm on the 3rd instant. Refreshments were served in the morning to all present students and old boys of the school. At 9 A.M. the Business Meeting of old boys was held. Though an appeal had been made to old boys for Rs. 200, it was announced at the meeting that over Rs. 350 had been subscribed apart from the subscription for prizes. A letter was read from M. R. Ry. K. U. Shama Rau Avgl., B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Madras, promising Rs. 150 towards commemorating the services of Mr. A. Vasudeva Rau, B.A., L.T., Retired Headmaster of the School, and the meeting resolved to take steps to raise a

sum of Rs. 2,500 for suitably commemorating the services of Mr. A. Vasudeva Rau, and the late lamented Mr. A. Srinivasa Rau, who had been teaching Science for over 20 years in the school. It has been decided that the memorials are to take the shape of an oil painting and scholarships. It was also resolved that the School Day was to be held every year in the middle of Christmas week, and that the next School Day was to be celebrated in December 1915. After this the old boys dispersed to meet again for refreshments along with the boys of the High School Department at 8-30 p.m. At 6-30 all assembled with the numerous visitors in the Bhuvanendra Hall for the distribution of sports and class prizes, under the chairmanship of Mr. M. E. Couchman, I.C.S., the esteemed Collector of the district. After the recitation of Sanskrit and Kanarese verses, prepared for the occasion, the School Report for the school year 1913-14 was read by Mr. A. Padmanabhaiah, B.A., L.T., Headmaster. It noted with regret the losses in the teaching staff, by retirement and death above alluded to. The school had been worked at a deficit of over Rs. 2000 for the year under report. It thanked the Government for the Teaching Grant of Rs. 935. After the Report had been read, the prize-distribution and unveiling of the oil painting of the late lamented Mr. A. Vasudeva Rau was performed by Mr. Couchman, after a brief account of his life had been given by Mr. Panduranga Kine, retired Deputy Collector. Mr. Couchman then delivered an eloquent speech.

GOVERNMENT ORDERS.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 13,545, towards the cost of acquiring two houses and certain improvements thereof for use of the Scottish Ladies Association Girls' School, Georgetown, Madras, subject to the following conditions:—that, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note No. 820-C, dated the 1st February 1915, are adopted; that all the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code have been duly complied with; and that the title to the property is found to be valid by the Government Solicitor. On the above conditions being fulfilled the grant will be paid as funds become available.

The Government accept with thanks the offer of M.R. Ry. B.B. Gadgil, Loni, to endow a prize tenable at the Presidency College, Madras. The Accountant-General will be authorized to receive the Government securities offered. The applications and the draft notifications referred to in the Director's letter will be awaited.

The Government are pleased to sanction, as a special case, a grant not exceeding Rs. 36,045, towards the cost of constructing a new hostel for the S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, subject to the fol-

following conditions:—that, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer are adopted; that the Superintending Engineer, VI Circle, is satisfied as to the suitability of the foundations; and that all the 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 Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to establish, with effect from the 1st March 1915, a hostel in connection with the Government Training School for Muhammadan Women at Guntur. They also sanction an expenditure of Rs. 50 on the purchase of utensils and a recurring expenditure of Rs. 21 per mensem on account of rent, the pay of the cook, etc., and other contingent charges, subject to the condition that the pay of the cook and the waterman will be met from Provincial funds as a special case for a period of one year only. The initial expenditure on the purchase of utensils will be met from the Imperial grant for hostels.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 7,085, towards the cost of constructing a building for the S. P. G. Girls' Higher Elementary School, Nandyal, and a grant not exceeding Rs. 12,700 towards the cost of constructing a building for the boarding house attached to the school, subject to the following conditions:—that, in carrying out the works, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer are adopted; and that all the 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.

St. Gabriel's High School Literary Society.—The second anniversary of the Literary Society of the St. Gabriel's High School was recently celebrated in the School Hall with the Hon'ble Dewan Bahadur L. D. Swamikannu Pillai presiding. The proceedings commenced with some music after which the Secretary of the Society read the report for the past year which showed good work done. The students then staged some scenes from a piece entitled "Falsely accused" which showed their histrionic talents and were well applauded. The President then delivered a short address in which he congratulated the Society on the progress they have made and the actors on their skill on the stage. He impressed on them the duty of obedience and spoke about the great progress the school has made during the past few years. Rev. Fr. Honher, the Headmaster of the school then in a few well chosen words expressed his thanks to his Assistants for the valuable help they had been giving and proposed a vote of thanks to the President of the evening.

Government Training School, Trichinopoly.—The premises and the lower hall presented a very gay appearance on the occasion of the anniversary of the Teachers' Association attached to the school. Mr. Ramaswami Iyengar, B.A., L.T., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Trichinopoly, presided. Among the audience, in addition to the gentry and representatives of the local institutions, most of the Elementary School masters of the town were present. After music recitations, etc., by the members, the annual report was read by the Secretary. This was followed by a lecture by Mr. T.V. Swaminatha Iyer, B.A., L.T., on the "Purpose of Education and the Functions of the Educator" which was full of practical and useful advice to teachers. The Chairman's remarks were impressive and instructive. Mr. K. V. Ramakrishna Iyer also addressed the audience giving very useful suggestions to Village School Masters. The successful function was brought to a close with the distribution of flowers, *pan supari*, etc.

Local Engineering Schools.—In an order issued in January last year the Madras Government decided to establish a mechanical engineering school for the northern part of the Presidency and requested the Director of Industries to submit detailed proposals for the purpose. The Government have now considered the remarks that Mr. Tressler submitted and have come to the conclusion that the school should be located at Oocanada in connection with the Local Fund workshop at that place.

The Public Works Department estimate the value of the whole concern, including that of the stock in hand at the close of September 1914, at Rs. 83,460. The Government have accepted the valuation and they sanction the purchase of the workshop from the Godavari District Board.

The Government consider that for the Vizagpatnam district, the St. Aloysius Industrial School should be sufficient for the present. The Director has been requested to report how the school may best be aided by the Government and developed.

The Christian College, Madras.—The following are some extracts from the report of the College Council for 1914. The average number on the rolls of the College for the short term was 757 and that for the long term 846. The most marked increase was in the Honours Classes, the number in which rose from 78 to 113. The increase is more than accounted for by the alarm caused in Madras by the raid of the *Bmden* in September and by the severe epidemic of cholera which prevailed about the same time. It is worth noting as indicative of the place the College holds in relation to Christian education in the Presidency, that of those admitted into the first class in July, fully two-thirds matriculated either from the School Department of the College, or from

other Mission High Schools, while in the case of the Third Class, the proportion which the number admitted from the Intermediate Class of the College, or from other Christian Colleges to the total number admitted was only slightly less.

The fees in the College amounted to Rs. 77,542-14-0 as compared with Rs. 66,289-8-0 in the previous year. Library and athletic fees paid by students amounted to Rs. 1,655. So that the total fee income of the College (as distinct from the school) was Rs. 79,197-14-0. The following grants were received from Government in aid of the ordinary working expenses of the College—a teaching grant of Rs. 34,500, a grant of Rs. 2,614 for scientific apparatus and for books; and a grant of Rs. 8,229 towards the installation of electric lights and fans in the College Hall and in the Anderson Hall. During the year the sum of Rs. 2,908-5-1 was spent on the purchase of books for the Library.

The average number on the roll was 879 as against 920 for the previous year, a decrease mainly due to the reduction in the size of the first form. The fees collected amounted to Rs. 28,533-8-0 as compared with Rs. 28,311 in the previous year. The financial statement prepared at the time of the Inspector's visit showed that the net cost of the school to the management was Rs. 7,700-7-6. The athletics of the school were up to the average if not above it. A new development was entered upon in the way of combined gymnastics and athletics.

The Inspector paid his annual visit to the school in December. Steady work was done, and good tone prevails in the various classes of the school. Throughout all, the development of knowledge and more secular qualities has been maintained; and while the achievements of old boys in intellectual or public affairs are gratifying the growth of an earnest, modest, manly and god-fearing life is the chief service which the school seeks to perform.

Sanskrit Education.—In 1912 the Government sanctioned a somewhat clumsy arrangement for the encouragement of Sanskrit education. Once every four years, scholarships were to be awarded to 30 students studying Sanskrit in college for the four-years' collegiate course. It has now been arranged that eight scholarships shall be awarded every year; and, as each scholarship runs for four years, the total number of scholarship-holders will be 32 instead of 30. The scholars will be selected in accordance with the results of a public examination in Sanskrit each year at the end of the school course. The examination is to be conducted by a Board consisting of the Professor of Sanskrit in the Presidency College, the Superintendent of Sanskrit Schools, the two Supervisors of Sanskrit Schools, the Principal of a Sanskrit College and two non-official Sanskrit pandits—the Principal and the pandits to be recommended by the Syndicate of the University.

St. Bede's European High School, Mylapore.—There was an interesting gathering at the above school, which is situated quite close to the Mylapore Cathedral, to witness the distribution of prizes, by his Lordship the Bishop of Mylapore. This school resembles the St. Gabriel's High School of the Archdiocese, and is conducted on similar lines. Founded in 1907 by the much respected Dr. de Castro, who was then Bishop, assisted by two priests, Fathers Salgado and Anacleto, it has grown in the past 8 years with a remarkable vigour. It opened with a pupil-roll of 55, and there are now 124. When founded, it was located in a rented building, it has now a spacious home of its own, which was formally opened by Sir John Wallis, about a year ago. The report being read by the Head Master, his Lordship the Bishop distributed the prizes. It was most gratifying to witness the alertness first of the prize-winners, and afterwards of their less fortunate school-fellows, who appeared in a somewhat lengthy programme of song, recitation and drama, which followed the distribution. The evening's entertainment concluded with a complimentary address from his Lordship in which he referred to the pleasure the ceremony had given him, adding words of encouragement for the future.

Doveton Protestant College, Madras.—The sixtieth Anniversary meeting and distribution of prizes at the Doveton Protestant College took place with the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart in the chair. There was a large gathering of parents and guardians of the pupils present, and among those were the Hon'ble Mr. H. S. Duncan, Acting Director of Public Instruction; the Hon'ble Mr. T. Richmond, the Rev. E. Langdale Smith, the Rev. J. E. Neill, the Rev. C. F. Hatchell, Lieut. Rishworth, Capt. V. G. Staggs and Messrs. W. Barton, J. R. Atkinson, and W. St. Leger.

Mr. W. D. Raynor, Principal, next read the report. The Chairman then distributed the prizes to the successful pupils. The prizes included Doveton Silver medal for general excellence, D'Sylva memorial prize for mathematics, and Chester memorial prize for proficiency in physics.

At the conclusion of the above ceremony, the Chairman delivered a most interesting and appropriate speech. The Rev. J. E. Neill proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman for his very encouraging words. The meeting terminated with the singing of the National Anthem.

The Pittapur Rajah's College Day.—The above College Day celebration came off on Saturday the 17th instant. This is the first one of the kind and the Executive Committee have arranged to celebrate it annually in future.

All the old boys were treated to a sumptuous breakfast at 11 A. M.

In the evening at 5-45 there was a very large gathering of past and present students of the

College and all the leading citizens of Cocanada in the specially erected pandal in the College premises. Rao Saheb Y. Venkatrao Pantulu Garu, presided on the occasion.

The President began his opening speech with a prayer in Sanskrit, and said that the College had been in working order for over half a century and it was a matter for regret that no arrangements had been made to celebrate the College Day till then. After speaking in eulogistic terms of the personality of the College Principal, Rao Bahadur R. Venkataratnam Naidu Garu, F. M. U., he went on to point out the advantages and importance of institutions like the College Day Association, that it brings home to them the sense of corporal unity and engenders in them a feeling that the College is a living institution and that its success is the success of all connected with it. He then traced the history of the College and closed his remarks with a sound and wholesome advice to the young students present. Several toasts were then proposed including "the old boys" "the present boys" and "our country" and responded to in suitable speeches by distinguished old students of the College.

The Tamil Academy.—An organization for the advancement of the Tamil Language and its Literature—"the oldest, richest and most highly organised of the Dravidian Languages," as Dr. Caldwell described it—appears to have been working silently for some years past in Madras and it has now been duly registered. With a view to encourage a systematic, scientific and critical study of the classical works of Southern India, and to stimulate original research into the antiquities of the Tamil country the prominent members of the Tamil Academy are offering gold medals to the writers of the best essays on the celebrated Tamil authors and their works. The essays will doubtless be judged by a competent literary Committee consisting of eminent Tamil scholars, and we have every hope that Tamil graduates and other earnest students of Tamil literature will avail themselves of this opportunity for the cultivation of the historical study of the ancient Tamil classics, which forms part of the general scheme of the Tamil Academy.

The Salem College Day.—The first Salem College Day was celebrated with *éclat* the occasion having called together a large number of old boys of the College, even from outside the district. After tennis and light refreshments in the morning, there was a business meeting, at which it was resolved to invite donations from the public, to form a Poor Boys' Fund for the College, and rules were adopted. A successful social gathering in the evening was followed by a crowded public meeting in the gaily decorated College Hall, presided over by Mr. U. Venkata Row, B.A., B.L. Several toasts were proposed including the old boys, the present boys, and our country and suitably responded to. The Hon. Mr. B. V.

Narasimha Iyer responded to "Our Country" and exhorted the young men present to cultivate the virtues of patriotism and self-sacrifice even while at College.

Banganapalle State Schools: Prize-distribution.—The Prize-distribution of the State Schools was held in the State Secondary School under the presidency of His Highness the Nawab on the 28th ultimo. The function began with the reading of the report of the State Schools by the Supervisor of Schools for the year (1913-14).

Then followed the dialogues and recitations. A scene from Shakespeare's Julius Caesar was enacted. The part of Antony was well played.

The prizes were next distributed by the Nawab to the pupils.

The Nawab then rose amidst loud cheers and delivered a short speech in Urdu. He said there was a perceptible improvement in education in the State and hoped there would be a corresponding progress year after year. He congratulated both the Supervisor of Schools and the Head Master on their work.

The Nawab, his brother and the princes were then garlanded and the function terminated.

A Teachers' Meeting at Mayavaram.—The third Anniversary of the Secondary School Teachers' Association was held on the 17th inst. in the High School Hall with the Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastriar in the chair. A good number of teachers attended from the district centres including Raj Bahadur S. Appu Sastriar. The Secretary read his report on the work done by the Association last year and it showed much activity in varied directions, the Poor Boys' Education Fund being a noteworthy feature. The report over, Mr. V. Guruswamy Sastriar, B.A., L.T., of Tirukattupalli read a paper full of interesting observations on the present condition of schoolmasters, their limited scope for freedom in managing schools and in teaching the boys, their insecurity of tenure, their obscurity in the public estimation in spite of greater self-sacrifice, their indifferent treatment by school managers, their utter helplessness in old age for want of provident funds and so forth, every item of these being portrayed in strong language so as to bring home to the public a real picture of the profession in all its aspects and activities. The Chairman in his speech narrated and discussed most of the questions affecting the schoolmaster's profession and exhorted them to keep up their high ideal, assuring them that their lot was cast in more cheery days with brighter prospects in store. With the usual votes of thanks the meeting closed.

Later on in the day Mr. V. S. Sastriar unveiled the life-size portrait of the late statesman the Hon'ble Mr. G. K. Gokhale hung up on the school wall and in doing so referred to the deceased's eminent virtues and great services to India.

CALCUTTA.

Indian Association for Cultivation of Science.—The Second Quarterly Meeting of the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science was held in the rooms of the Association at 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta on the 17th instant, Dr. P. C. Ray, C.I.E., Ph. D., D. Sc., F. C. S., a Vice-President of the Association was in the chair.

After the customary business was finished, the learned Chairman asked Mr. Francis V. Fernandez to read his paper on "Action of Monochloroacetic acid and Thiosemicarbazide." The action produces a new compound of remarkable properties. Only a few of such compounds are known. The interesting discourse was listened to with rapt attention.

The Chairman next asked Mr. J. N. Rakshit to read his paper on "Metallic derivatives of acid amides; Constitution of Sodium and Potassium derivatives and amides." It is a very important investigation in the field of Chemistry and the investigator was encouraged by the Research Fund Committee of the Chemical Society of London with a grant for the continuation of the research on metallic derivatives of acid amides. This very important communication was greatly appreciated and applauded.

The Chairman next asked Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee to deliver his very interesting and instructive discourse "Amoeba in Calcutta Filter Water. A method of determination of protozoa contents in potable water." The learned lecturer said that hitherto the analyses of water generally directed their attention to the determination of its amoeba contents, and no particularly useful method was yet discovered for the determination of the protozoa contents. These organisms are no insignificant causes of the pollution of water. Dr. Chatterjee has discovered a method which consists of the process of taking 250 c. c. of tap water containing, say even one protozoan, which is multiplied to millions in 24 hours by introducing into water perfectly sterilized culture medium and of studying conveniently the properties of these organisms.

As the time was far advanced the Chairman postponed the discourse of two more papers which would be read in the next meeting.

The Honorary Secretary then announced the name of Babu Sudhanshu Bhushan Banerjee, who became a Life Member of the Association by subscribing Rs. 250 to Dr. Sircar Memorial Fund.

After a vote of thanks to the chair, the meeting separated.

The next meeting will be held early in July. Scientists desirous to read their papers in the next meeting are requested to send their papers within June to Dr. Amrita Lal Sircar, L.M.S. F.C.S., Honorary Secretary, Science Association, 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta.

Bengal Literary Conference.—The eighth Literary Conference of Bengal met on the 4th, 5th and 6th instants at Burdwan under the presidency of Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprosad Sastri. About 500 delegates from all parts of Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Orissa and nearly 2,000 visitors, including the Maharaja of Natore, Cossimbazar, Raja Bonbehari Kupu attended the Conference. Ten resolutions were carried unanimously. Among others a resolution was passed to approach the University with a request to allow the candidates for the Matriculation examination to write out their answers in Bengalee in all subjects except English, to make the attendance at lectures in Bengalee compulsory in I. A., I.Sc. and B.A. examinations and to select text books for these examinations. A resolution was also passed urging the University to introduce Bengalee as a subject for the M.A. degree examination with Pali as a ballast to keep up the high efficiency of the standard. Another resolution to establish an astronomical observatory with a view to the correct observation of the stars to carry through the urgent reformation of the Bengalee Almanac, on which depended the true performances of all Hindu rites and festivals, was also carried. The Hon. Maharaja of Cossimbazar himself undertook to bear the maintenance cost, which was estimated at Rs. 200 a month by Prof. J. C. Roy of Cuttack, besides all the initial expenditure of a house and instruments for the purpose.

BOMBAY.

Teaching of Sanskrit and Persian in Bombay.—With a view to encourage oriental learning the Local Government have sanctioned a grant of Rs. 100 per annum each to eight Pandits and four Maulvis employed in teaching Sanskrit and Persian on traditional lines and are not in Government service. These grants are tenable for a period of three years. In 1913 the Government decided to allot personal allowances to Pandits and Maulvis in the Government service. Subsequently a suggestion to give a similar allowance to those who are not on the Government service was accepted, and as Western India was the centre of Sanskrit rather than Mahomedan learning it was recommended that a larger portion of the sum allotted for this purpose in last year's budget should be reserved for grants to Pandits.

**THE SILVER JUBILEE OF
MR. P. T. SRINIVASA IYENGAR'S
PRINCIPALSHIP OF THE
MRS. A. V. N. COLLEGE,
VIZAGAPATAM.**

(BY AN EXPERIENCED EDUCATIONIST).

THE Silver Jubilee of Mr. P. T. Srinivasa Iyengar's Principalship was celebrated on the 15th instant by his students, past and present, and the public of Vizagapatam. It was not simply the completion of the twenty-fifth year of his Principalship that was in the minds of the many connected with the celebration; for the mere existence of a person as the Principal of a College could not evoke such enthusiasm of vast crowds of students and public. It is the great educational work of that eminent scholar and teacher, it is his phenomenal many-sided intellectual activity that stand out more prominently than the devotion and courage which he brought to bear on his duties as the head of the institution to save it from extinction and to bring it to the proud position of a "Model College;" and they have no less claim on the esteem and gratitude of the teaching profession than his encyclopædic learning has on the admiration of the scholars.

Mr. Iyengar is well acquainted with the progressive educational systems in the West and has laboured hard to adapt them to the conditions obtaining in India. He has left the stamp of his genius on every part of the educational system in the province,—from the standards and forms upwards. There is not the slightest defect in the teaching of any school subject that has escaped his notice. Some of the more important of the reforms largely or exclusively to be associated with his activities, may be noticed.

Beginning at the bottom of the school, we see what he has done to nationalise the teaching of a new language. What progress has been made in spreading what is known as "The direct" method of teaching a language, is due to him. That, like any other new thing, may have suffered in the hands of bad teachers; but where it has been rightly understood and earnestly worked out it has produced results which, one would wish, could be more extensively seen. The demonstrations made of that method at the earlier sessions of the Secondary Teachers' Conference in the A. V. N. College, kept the teachers of the old school wide awake, who are working the method in their schools though with varying degrees of success. It has spread in the Training schools as well.

Then there is the "reformed series of English books for Indian schools" which he has written conjointly with Mr. Yates. That series has a value all its own. As one who was long the Headmaster of a High School and had much to do with the teaching of English in the lower classes, I hail the reformed series as a blessing to schools. How refreshing it is to turn to this series from the other readers in the field, where we find numerous ideas which boys cannot be made to understand, and expressions and constructions which boys cannot be got to use. I always felt it a waste of time to teach readers which contain such ideas and expressions and constructions; and the reformed series, which is altogether free from that great defect and presents matter at once interesting and intelligible to boys, is bound to greatly strengthen the hands of the English teacher. This I look upon as not the least of Mr. Iyengar's reforms.

Mr. Iyengar has worked at on another subject taught in the lower classes. That is Arithmetic. He has written some text-books of arithmetic for them, and one has only to use them to see the beauty of the author's plan. When Mr. Iyengar detects an evil, he traces it to its finest roots and begins his work there. His English readers and arithmetic illustrate that.

School History and Geography he found worthy of his attention. Who that is familiar with the old way of handling—it cannot be called teaching—those subjects, did not feel it the most unfortunate part of school work? Mr. Iyengar said they could be converted into very interesting subjects, as capable as any other subject of exercising boys' intellects; and that he did so well, that he was appointed University Lecturer in Geography. In History, he said that the boys ought to be made to make use of sources, as is indicated in his *Tales from the Story of India*; and the source books and the excursions frequently made by the boys of Mrs. A. V. N. College with the teachers to neighbouring places of historical interest, made history a subject of living interest.

Even in the teaching of Drawing, so little cared for in many schools, Mr. Iyengar has introduced reforms. Having himself an eye most susceptible to what is beautiful in art or nature, a thing that can be said of few English-educated men, Mr. Iyengar takes good care that the eyes of the boys are trained and their æsthetic side is well developed. Such was the taste evinced by his boys in the subject that a class was held in his College for the Drawing Masters of many schools in the circle.

Mr. Iyengar took immense pains to familiarise his views to his assistants, and his lynx

eye was in every class, on every teacher, when his methods were being tried. The College was, as it were, a training college, to the teachers. Not content with the success of the methods in his College, he toiled to give the widest publicity to the results of his experiments in his own institution; and the Secondary Teachers' Conference and the magazine, "The Teacher," were brought into existence. The Conference was largely attended year after year, and those who heard his discourses, left it so much the better teachers for it; and his contributions to "The Teacher" are a most profitable reading. The syllabuses of his College, every one of which was the result of his experiments, were published in "The Teacher" and widely copied.

The wave of reform surged far out of his college and caught the whole circle and rolled far beyond. Hence it is, that his college has come to be regarded as a "model college."

Great as is all this work of Mr. Iyengar which has earned the gratitude of the profession, his attempts to reform the vernaculars may be said to be greater still and more far-reaching in their beneficial results, in a very important sense. The question has roused considerable opposition, but nothing daunted, Mr. Iyengar is in the thickest of the fight, a fight between rationalism and conservatism, between progress and stagnation. It brought him much unpopularity, but not he the person to mind it in a good cause. As Mr. G. V. Apparao humorously observed at the Jubilee, Mr. Iyengar "enjoys" unpopularity, which is "the spice of life." He may lose his cause for a time, for conservatism like superstition dies hard, but sooner than later reason must carry all before it. It is a heroic

struggle that Mr. Iyengar and the adherents of the cause are carrying on; and with their resources and persistence on the side of the cause, the day cannot be far off, when the importance of the living language of the people as the medium of imparting useful knowledge to the masses, particularly when the elevation of the depressed classes is very much noised about everywhere, when the great importance of elementary education is receiving increasing attention, will be recognised by all that have the welfare of the country at heart. Then will the nation bless the name of Mr. Iyengar. Time will unfold the supreme value and the need of the reform that Mr. Iyengar is fighting for.

Such, in brief, is the great educational and patriotic work of Mr. Iyengar which the country should gratefully remember. We should not, however, forget, that in all his great work of reform Mr. Iyengar has had the co-operation of Mr. Yates. No two men have ever worked together for any cause with greater zeal than have Mr. Iyengar and Mr. Yates in the cause of educational reform. If the country wants more Principals like Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar, it wants also more Inspectors of Schools like Mr. Yates.

Of Mr. Iyengar's great research work in Indian History, in the Dravidian languages and in Hindu Philosophy, I will not speak: I need not. It has been long before the world. Nor need I speak of the part he has played in the University reform and in the framing of the School Final Scheme.

Such a man, as Mr. G. V. Apparao observed, is a "hero and one of the most eminent of the sons of Mother India."

AN ODE

BY

K. S. RAMAMURTI, B. A.

I

You celebrate to-day
The happy Silver Jubilee
With speech and swelling ecstasy
And gratitude's display,
Of one, a gift to you and coming ones,
Who taught so well the fathers and their sons,—
The fathers in the crowded halls,
And sons within these stately walls.
You free the horse and draw his car
And shout, "Long live our Iyengar!"
Men no less old than he
Sharing his pupils' glee.

II

You give this "Model College" to his pains,
Devotion, courage, tact and mighty brains,
And him this grateful day.
But turn the other way.

What see you there?

He was her care

As she was his. Give then her praise.
Amidst this all recall those days,
Those awful days of dark.
If then he made his mark,
What gave him all that saving wit?
Pray what brought out his marvellous grit?
If hopeless seemed her lot,
And all was stink and rot,
That same decay manured his sweetest bloom:
His sun arose upon that blinding gloom.
Anotherwhere, where all was right,
What but his lore had shown its might?
If thanks the sage the chastening pain,
If heat brings on the welcome rain,
Let Iyengar of nerve and brain
Thank more those years of ceaseless strain,

Waved on his brow the proven hero's plume
Than what he toiled to save from sighted doom
Should his heroic fight
That gives this day this sight.

III

Whoever debt to th'other may be more,
They both are one with growing care
A growing home still makes his share,
Inseparable bound, one life, one core.

IV

To keep the scattered sons in mother's eye
He builds for them a mansion by and by
And lives with them and lives for them, their guide
To make the children's lives their parents' pride.

V

The sons still ask for more,
A taste of higher lore
From him of learning's high renown
To thank him for their coveted gown.
In silent thought the sire revolves his scheme
And will one day fulfil his waking dream:—
Who built the firmest on the sands,
Can this and more where now he stands.

VI

So on with grateful voice and joy,
You care-worn man and careless boy.
How play the waving shadows of the past
On radiant bosom of the flowing tide!
How moves the bark the future's gentle blast
As plies your helmsman's skill by Progress' side!

VII

But wait. Is this but Silver Jubilee?
By years it is, by work much more must be.
Work measures best.
Make that the test.
In shortest time may most great energy:
It must be then his Golden Jubilee.
In years but two begins the crop of lime

And bends the branches with its weight:
The grandsire's plant endures till grandsons' time.

E'en so 'tis with the working great.
And so it is with Iyengar,
In scholars' sky that glorious star.

VIII

Now boys who honour him with heart's acclaim,

Best honour him with his-like life
With what marks out his serving strife,
Be leal to him that way and serve an aim.
You know the privilege of your seat
At that great teacher's worthy feet.
And pray your sons may have 't as well
And in your lives his work may dwell.
God grant he lives to be our Grand Old Man
And bless with health and strength his serving span!

AN ADDRESS.

To

M. R. Ry.

P. T. SRINIVASA IYENGAR Avl.,
Principal,

Mrs. A. V. N. COLLEGE,
Vizagapatam.

SIR,

We, your students, past and present, and the public of Vizagapatam, offer our sincere congratulations to you on this, the Silver Jubilee Day of your Principalship of the local College. Some among us had not the fortune of reading under you, but have, all the same, come under the influence of your intellectual and spiritual teachings, and claim you as our Guru and Preceptor.

Few, Sir, among your contemporaries, have been at the head of an educational institution for such a long time; fewer still can look

back with proud satisfaction on so much good work done by them for their institutions. You have, unremittingly and ungrudgingly, devoted the best years of your life to this College; and it is no exaggeration to say that, into the twenty-five years of your service, have been crowded the labours of a life-time.

When you took charge of the College this day twenty-five years ago, it was struggling for existence, with poor funds, deficient strength and defective accommodation. Never once, in the many years of its struggle for vigorous life, were you known to despond. The history of the Mrs. A. V. N. College is the history of your restless energy, inexhaustible resourcefulness and dauntless courage. For a quarter of a century, you have managed the institution in its struggles and difficulties till it reached its present position of a model College, with ample funds, enormous strength and splendid accommodation. It was held up as a model to other Colleges by successive Inspectors of Schools, Directors of Public Instruction, and officers of higher rank; nay more, even Governors of the Province have been pleased to testify to its excellence. Vizagapatam, Sir, has sufficient cause for ever cherishing the memory of the day on which you first set foot on its shores.

It is beyond our power, Sir, to dwell adequately upon your intellectual greatness. We have also to admit that very few among us have the capacity of even fairly appreciating your great powers. You are without doubt one of the most distinguished of our Indian graduates. On all educational subjects, you are acknowledged to be an authority; the Department recognised the fact by appointing you as a Chief Examiner in English,—the first Indian to attain that distinction—as Uni-

versity Lecturer in more than one subject, and as member of a number of Boards. The present School Final Scheme owes its origin to you, and to one or two other up-to-date educationists; and the Government has done the greatest honour to you by adopting your scheme in its entirety. You took a prominent part in framing the new regulations of the University, and in the revision of the courses of studies and examinations consequent on the passing of the Universities Act of 1904. Your advocacy of a natural, vigorous style in the writing of books in the South Indian Vernaculars is making slow, but sure headway. To you belongs the honour of having introduced in this circle, whence they are spreading throughout the Presidency, some fast, others slowly, modern methods of teaching English, Elementary Mathematics, History, Geography, Elementary Science, as well as Manual Training. While such are your labours in the educational field, you have not been idle in others. Your researches in Indian History, in the Dravidian Languages, and in Hindu Philosophy, have gained the approbation of Indian and European scholars. To you any profession would have been the same, as your great attainments would have brought distinction in all equally; that you have chosen to become an educationist has proved to be of the most vital importance to us.

Sir, as an abiding monument to your genius and services stands this grand building which you have earned for the College, and to remain in which is in itself an education, as one Director of Public Instruction remarked. Ere long will rise as another monument to your greatness the College Hostel, which again is entirely the

outcome of your exertions, and which promises to be a fitting complement to the present pile of College Buildings. A life-size enlargement of your photograph will be now placed in your College,—your College, inasmuch as it owes its existence to you,—that future generations of the students of the Mrs. A. V. N. College may look at the benignant features of Principal Srinivasa Iyengar. As an humble token of our respect, we request you, Sir, to accept this casket.

In conclusion, we pray to God to spare you long and give you health and strength that you may realise your wish of making this institution a first Grade College, and we, our wish of celebrating the Golden and the Diamond Jubilee of your Principalship.

We beg to remain,
Sir,

YOUR STUDENTS, PAST AND PRESENT,
AND THE PUBLIC OF VIZAGAPATAM.

We are desired to publish the following:—

NOTICE.

TATA EDUCATION SCHEME.

Two studentships, enabling the recipients to proceed to Europe for the acquirement of special knowledge in any department of Science, Art or Engineering, or for fitting themselves to enter the higher branches of Government Service, are open for competition, by selection only, to graduates who have displayed marked ability throughout their University career. Though both the studentships, this year, are primarily available only for Parsee students, application from any other pure native of India, including Native Christian, will also be considered. Applications will be received not later than 15th May 1915, addressed to the Secretary of the Scheme, Navsari Buildings, Fort, Bombay, with *copies only* of certificates as to the applicant's Age, Nationality, Character, Physical Fitness, and Educational Qualifications. No application unaccompanied by satisfactory evidence of age will be considered. Consent of parents or guardians to the candidate's proceeding to Europe for the prosecution of his studies should also be annexed to the application, and a copy of his photograph enclosed. A copy of the terms and conditions of the Scheme will, if required, be forwarded to all duly qualified candidates.

The Educational Review.

Educational questions were in evidence more than usual in the last meeting of the Madras Legislative Council. First of all two honourable members asked the Government to appoint a committee of officials and non-officials to consider the revision of the Grant-in-Aid Code and the Government promised to consider the question when it considered the proposals just received from the Director of Public Instruction for the general revision of the Grant-in-Aid Code. We wish to point out that the word "non-officials" in this question is rather vague. The Grant-in-Aid Code affects different classes of educational institutions in different ways. Missionary schools and colleges require peculiar privileges in any system of grants. Thus certain kinds of Missionary teachers do not receive any pay for their work, and yet special provision ought to be made for assessing their work in money to calculate the grants required for the schools in which they work. Obversely Missionary gentlemen, catechists and others who are paid salaries mainly for Mission work, do some small piece of educational work and rules are necessary to prevent public funds from being paid to aid the work of proselytization under the cloak of teaching. Indian schools work under conditions quite different from the above. In their case there is no suspicion of other than purely educational aims being pursued. This fact alone, not to speak of

their being national institutions, constitutes a special claim on the generosity of Government. Of these Indian educational institutions some are endowed, chiefly by the landed aristocracy of the land. Not leading a hand-to-mouth existence these schools are organized on a higher scale of efficiency than the unendowed schools and therefore require special forms of aid. With regard to the unendowed schools, which form the bulk of the recognized schools, it must be remembered that endowment for education is a form of charity which as yet but appeals to very few Indians and hence the Government must do what our rich men have not yet learned to do. There are again the so-called Teacher-manager schools, some very efficiently managed, others grossly mismanaged, but all regarded by the Educational Department as pests to be mercilessly weeded out. The Grant-in-Aid rules should be so framed that the better class of these schools should be strengthened. There are a number of these schools where the teachers cannot be paid monthly and have look-up to the half-yearly or yearly grants. To treat all these various classes of schools alike, to apply mechanically the same cast iron rules to schools working under these different conditions is anything but proper and has been the cause of much failure in the past. Hence the proposed committee should consist of representatives of these various classes of schools, of men who have first-hand knowledge of the difficulties of their management. The word "non-officials"

is a vague word. High Court Vakils, even those who have been for some time Secretaries of School Committees, Professors of Colleges, etc., may be "non-officials," but such people will be no good if the Grant-in-Aid Code is to be revised so as to meet the real needs and actual difficulties of education in South India.

Question No. 66 put by the Hon. Mr. V.S. Srinivasa Sastri elicited the remarkable fact that "the number of teachers required for fully staffing the Secondary schools for boys recognized by the Department of Education" is 4269 and "the number of those actually possessing professional qualifications is 2119," i.e., less than half. And yet some years ago the Training section of the Rajamundry College was reduced in grade. If we further remember that every one possessing professional qualification need not necessarily be following the profession of teaching—some actually are in the Inspectorate, some have turned Vakils, and so on—we see what an appalling dearth there is of qualified teachers. The lesson to be derived from this is clear—that side by side with the increase in the number of schools there must be a corresponding rise in the number of Training schools and this can be done only by Government. A training section was tried about twenty-five years ago in St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, and proved a failure. All this with reference to Secondary schools. But what about Elementary schools? It is well-known that the average Elementary school

teacher is a very inefficient person. He can just read and compute but is woefully lacking alike in general information and in knowledge of teaching method. True there is an army of Sub-Assistant Inspectors to look after Elementary schools but they cannot do more than compile the annual returns, conduct periodical inspections and assist their superior officers in their work. In the case of most of them there is neither the enthusiasm nor the knowledge necessary for attempting the work of the poor Elementary school master. Nor would several of them regard it as anything but *infra dig.* to spend their time in educating the elementary teacher, so much beneath them in social position. To remedy this, not only should our Normal schools be increased in number but steps ought to be devised to induce every Elementary school master to seek training before taking service as teacher. A few other interpellations were put and answered with reference to educational topics but we do not regard them as of sufficiently far-reaching importance to deserve comment in our columns.

The Honourable Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri moved three resolutions: the first of minor importance referred to the definition of a day of touring, and the second practically requiring the abolition of the little measure of supervision exercised by competent headmasters on the work of Incomplete Secondary Schools. The great defect of present day education is that enough expert guidance is

not available and hence schoolmasters fall into well-worn ruts and their work hence becomes lifeless. It is therefore not wise to strike at what little expert help that teachers in out-of-the-way schools receive from trained headmasters living in neighbouring localities. The third resolution dealt with a really important question—that of the publication of statements “showing how the amount spent every year on buildings from Provincial Funds is actually distributed among the different institutions.” We cannot see why the Secretary for Education raised objections to this. H. E. the Governor, however, kindly promised to “examine the request of the Honourable mover and consider what they could profitably do in the matter.” We hope that though as usual, “the Resolution was by leave withdrawn,” the Government will see their way to take the public into their confidence in the matter of the detailed distribution of grants on buildings as of all other grants.

The remarks on education in the speeches on the financial statement did not prove particularly illuminating; the Rev. Mr. Pittendrigh defended the cause of aided education as he was bound to do and Mr. Srinivasa Sastri made some vague general remarks on the same question which savoured of beating the air. The question of financing elementary education surely deserved much more consideration than was given to it in these paltry and nebulous references to it.

News of handsome stipends paid by sundry provincial administrations for the training of Pandits, and Proceedings of Directors of Public Instruction displaying anxiety for the increase and development of Sanskrit schools, which were in evidence in the daily papers issued this month bring vividly home to us a new departure in educational policy and raise in our minds the query whether this is due to a desire to placate a perverse Swadeshi sentiment or to conserve valuable knowledge which is otherwise likely to die out and leave the world the poorer for such loss. It is well-known that modern Sanskrit scholars, especially the European variety of them, think that the race of Pandits, who are wells of traditional lore, ought not to be allowed to die out till modern scholarship has absorbed all the knowledge that is in them. We doubt very much whether there is much traditional lore locked up safe in the memory of Pandits and not yet tapped and published. So far as genuine Vedic lore is concerned, we are very doubtful if any such exists. With regard to sundry branches of Sanskrit studies, such as the Mimamsa and the Nyaya, there is no doubt that there exists considerable pandit-knowledge which has not yet found its way to print and surely steps ought to be taken to conserve such knowledge. But this does not require an elaborate effort to multiply schools of elementary Sanskrit studies and the expenditure of public money for the diversion of young minds from

Bolstering up of Panditry.

English studies to the acquisition of uncritical traditional learning. The salvation of India will not be by means of the spread of a smattering of Sanskrit lore but by the wide dissemination of modern knowledge. A few highly learned Pandits ought of course be kept up protected if need be by State aid, not by giving them a pittance such as Mahamahopadhyayas who are mostly great scholars now get but handsome grants from public funds, for without this aid the modern critical scholar cannot get on with his research. Any other expenditure of State funds for the advance of Swadeshi learning is in our opinion, but cruel kindness.

Some interesting correspondence has appeared in the columns of the daily press on the re-appearance of questions on formal grammar in the English question papers of the public examination for the Secondary School Leaving Certificate. This question of the function of the teaching of grammar was discussed recently in the annual meeting of the Modern Language Association held on the 8th August. Prof. Sonnenschein of the University of Birmingham, himself the author of books on English grammar, pleaded for the teaching of grammar, not that it was useful in itself, but it helped to bring together the isolated linguistic experiences of the scholar. Mr. W. Rippman, one of the doughty champions of reform in the teaching of modern languages, closed the discussion by saying “that we

ought to follow the example of the London University and have no grammar questions in examinations.” *Verbum sap.*

We learn from a Press note issued by the Bombay Government of the renewal of the contract with Messrs. Macmillan to issue the Vernacular Readers to be used in schools. The Press note says that when the time came for a new contract to be made, it was thrown “open to competition amongst all who might choose to tender Several firms submitted tenders, but none offered terms as favourable as those of Messrs. Macmillan, and Government have accordingly decided to give that firm the new contract on the terms tendered by it.” We feel constrained to remark that competition between the leading London firm—the richest, we believe among publishing houses—and the struggling young Indian firms of Bombay is scarcely fair trade, though it might technically be free trade. The rise of publishing business in India has already been choked by London firms starting branches in the chief cities of India and if all Government patronage be also transferred to them, there will be no chance of India ever learning this essentially modern trade.

We are glad to announce that Messrs. Macmillan and Company are starting a depot in Madras from the 1st of May next. Schoolmasters and the book-loving public will welcome this

Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Madras.

news. The publications of this firm of world-wide reputation and those of the Cambridge University Press for which Messrs. Macmillan are the agents in India, will be available at our very doors from that date. The depot is to be located in large and spacious rooms of the Indian Bank Buildings in the First Line Beach. Mr. K. A. Viraraghavachariar, B.A., the Madras Educational Adviser to the firm, is, we presume, largely responsible for the establishment of the depot.

Mr. Veeraraghavachariar was an enthusiastic and successful teacher of long standing in this Presidency. He was sometime back appointed University Lecturer in Geography by the local University. He is the author of some excellent books in History and Geography published by Messrs. Longmans Green & Co. We congratulate the firm on their possession of such an expert educational adviser as Mr. K. A. Veeraraghavachariar.

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THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCHES.

III.

THE PROGRESS OF ARCHAEOLOGY IN MYSORE.

MR. R. Narasimhaachar, the officer in charge of the Archaeological Researches in Mysore, has placed the student of Indian History under deep indebtedness to him by his intensely interesting report for the year ending with June, 1914. In the first part of the Report which records the notes which Mr. Narasimhaachar made in the course of his exploration and inspection tours, we find detailed descriptions of the architectural, the sculptural and epigraphical details of a number of temples in the districts of Mysore, Kolar, Shimoga and Bangalore. The first temple thus described is the one at Somanā-

thapūr, named after the founder Sōmanātha, a high officer under the Hoysala King Narasimha III who ruled between 1254 and 1291. Situated in a spacious courtyard surrounded by an open verandah containing 64 cells, and on a picturesque terrace supported at angles by figures of elephants, the temple, a three-celled structure dedicated to Kēs'ava (after whom it is named), Lakshmi-Nārāyaṇa and Janārdhana, is deservedly famous for its elegant towers, its sculptural representations of elephants and horsemen, of makaras and swans, of paṇḍic scenes and various deities, its scroll-work, its pierced stone-windows and perforated screens. As many as 194 images are carved on the wall, the images of gods and goddesses of the Hindu pantheon, chiefly of Viṣṇu in his different forms, accompanied by scenes from the Rāmāyaṇa, the Bhāgavata and the Mahābhārata. To the iconographer these will afford an endless theme for study. Indeed the minute descriptions of Kēs'ava, Lakshmi-Nārāyaṇa, and Janārdhana, and other accompanying deities make this part of the Report more interesting to the student of art than history, of the architect and sculptor than the historian, of the iconographer than the recorder of facts.

One very interesting fact which Mr. Narasimhaachar brings to notice is the system of recording the names of the sculptors at the

plate inscription found in a well as Nandi registers a grant in A.D. 806 by the Rāshtrakūṭa Govinda III (794-814). The Aruñāchalēśvara shrine is, in Mr. Narasimhachar's opinion, a later shrine, "judging from the characters of the inscription on the pierced window which appear to belong to the 10th century;" while the Nandi maṭṭapa in front of the shrine has Chōḷa inscriptions of the 11th century.

Amidst the other interesting places visited by Mr. Narasimhachar may be mentioned the *Gullayiki hill* or *Hyder Ali's hill* where a cave is pointed out as the place where the European prisoners were usually confined, as well as a big boulder, crowned by a maṭṭapa and known as *Hyder's Drop*, from which the prisoners were sometimes hurled over the cliff; the Vēṇugōpālaswāmī temple at Devanahalli which is in Dravidian style, which contains, besides the images of the Ālvārs and Rāmānuja, excellent carvings of scenes from the lives of Rāma and Kṛishṇa. A silver cup of the temple bears an inscription stating that it was a present from Hyder Ali, and a gong saying that it was presented by a subordinate of Balaji Baji Rao. Avati, the ancient capital of the Avati Prabhus in Devanahalli Taluk, has a temple dedicated to Chennakēśava, whose image, tradition says, was found in the midst of seven *kappariges* (large metal-boilers) full of treasure unearthed by the Prabhus. It contains relics of ancient cult and creed, several ash-pits with huge bones and ancient pottery, gods in the shape of earthen pots, besides a statue of a prominent princess of the line named Virakempatama. "A sloping rock at the foot of the hill on the west, which has a small hole with some water in it, is called Kaunikalamma's rock and is worshipped on occasions of

drought and other times. It is believed that if the water in the hole overflows and reaches the edge of the rock, which is about two yards from the hole, on any day, there will surely be rain that day." The curious feature of this Kaunikalamma is that, as her name implies, she is goddess of the virgins and virgins alone! Only virgins and boys can worship her,—no adult men and women. The latter might, in case they wanted to have any desire fulfilled, make vows and offering, but the actual worship should be through the younger generation! The Avati hill has also got a number of cromlechs, the gigantic slabs of which must have been carried to their places with a wonderful skill and labour. A curious fact is stated in connection with the Srīnivāsa hill in Gautamagiri. In its three holy tanks, Tulaṣi and Bael leaves, when dropped into them, acquit themselves in different ways, sinking in one and floating in others. The village of Hallimaisur where a *Viragal* of the time of the Gaṅga Mārasimha (961-74) has been discovered, is said by tradition to be the capital of an old kingdom. Several of the villages around it formed its suburbs. "It is said that Gōhalli had the king's cow, Kallahalli his milch cows, Tējur his horses and Kannambādi his elephants." One tradition is that it was the capital of the old Mysore kings before Mysore became their capital.

II.

Passing on to the epigraphical finds of the year and the light they throw on the various dynasties of ancient and mediæval India, the most important of them are in connection with the Gaṅga dynasty which, as students of Indian History know, ruled over the major portion of Mysore from the second century to the eleventh. Three plates

in the name of King Mādhava I have been found. It is well-known that the founder of the Gaṅga dynasty was Koṅṅivarman Mādhava, a probable immigrant from Central India, and the conqueror of the Bāṇa-Maṇḍala. Rice attributed this Mādhava to about 103 A.D. A later king of the dynasty was he who is mentioned second in the dynastic list by Rice (see *Mys. Gazr.* I, p. 311) and who is called Kiriya Mādhava. Previous inscriptions have attributed to this monarch a profound culture and learning, a mastery of political science, a commentary on Dattaka's aphorisms, and a high regard for learning and learned men. It is this king that is referred to in the new inscription; and as far as Mr. Narasimhachar knows, it is the first copper plate inscription regarding him. It is unfortunate that it is not dated; but Mr. Narasimhachar points out that, as Mādhava's successor, Harivarma, is ascribed by Rice to Circa 247—266 A.D., Mādhava's date should be looked for at about A.D. 240. The value of this surmise, however, is to be somewhat discounted, as Dr. Fleet questions the correctness of Harivarma's date as fixed by Rice, and as the new inscription of Mādhava I itself contains a number of orthographical and palæographical irregularities which make one suspect its genuineness.

In regard to another king of the dynasty, Sri-purusha who, according to Rice, ruled from 726 to 777 (*Mys. Gazr.* I, 311), two inscriptions have been copied this year at Nandi. The language of these is Sanskrit, but the characters Halakannaḍa. The first of these records a grant of a house-site and certain lands to a scholar of the Sāma-Vēda at Pērūr, and the second is a mere Virakal, concerning an unknown hero Segunṇa. The inscription is, like almost all the inscriptions

of the early Gangas, singularly erroneous in orthography and grammar and unusual in its phraseology; but from the facts that the characters are those of the 8th century and that the name Prithvi-Koṅkaṇi is given, Mr. Narasimhachar sees sure ground for attributing it to Sri-purusha.

The most important and informing of the plates discovered in the year are those of Chikballapur. They give a genealogy not found in any of the previous records and belong to the reign of one Jayatēja. The first two names therein seem to be identical with Sri-Vikrama and Bhūvikrama Srīvalabha of the earlier records; but after these, the list is entirely new. For purposes of comparison I give the traditional and the new lists side by side:—

Traditional.	According to Chikballapur plates.
S'rīvikrama	S'rī-Vikrama.
Bhūvikrama	S'rī-Vallabha.
Srīvallabha ... 679	Paramakūṭa Mahārāja.
Sivamāra I ... 679—713	Ajavarma.
Prithvipati ... 726	Singadi.
Srī-purusha ... 726—77	Ajavarma.
Sivamāra II ... 780—814	Nipateja.
	S'rī Jayatēja, Dattaya.

The inscription belongs to A. D. 810, when Jayatēja was ruling. It is singular for the fact that, though it is a Ganga grant, it is dated in the 17th regnal year of the Rāshtrakūṭa King Gōvinda III, thereby showing that the Rāshtrakūṭa supremacy was acknowledged. But we know from the earlier records that the contemporary Ganga king was Sivamāra II. It follows therefore that either Jayatēja was the same as Sivamāra II or that he was the descendant of a collateral

branch of the dynasty, which came into existence after Śrīvallabha. Mr. Narasimhachar infers, from the fact that the five kings previous to Jayatēja, were entirely different from those previous to Sivamāra II, that Jayatēja's line must have been a collateral one, which came into existence after Śrī-vallabha.

Besides enlightening us on a new Gaṅga dynasty, the inscription incidentally mentions the relations between the Gaṅgas and the Rāshtrakūṭas, on the one hand, and the Bāpas on the other. Regarding the former it tells us that, as it was issued in the 17th regnal year of Gōvinda III, the Gaṅgas acknowledged the Rāshtrakūṭa supremacy. Regarding the latter it tells us that Bāpa Vidyādhara had a queen, Ratnāvali by name, and a son, Bāparaso Daddanarādhipa. Was this Dadda the same as the *Prabhumēru* of previous inscriptions? Or was he the son of a different queen? We are unable to say. Mr. Narasimhachar surmises from the fact that Ratnāvali's father was called Indapparasa that she was probably the daughter of the Rāshtrakūṭa Indra, the brother of Govinda III and the founder of the Gujarat branch. From the religious standpoint the inscription is important for its mention of the Kalamukhi sect in Mysore in the 8th century. It says that it was when "the chief disciple of the Kālamukha guru Kālas'akti was the head of the Maṭha in the temple on the Nandi hill," Ratnāvali made the grant of lands to the Śiva temple at Nandi.

An inscription of Eṛeyappa Gaṅga refers to a Jain teacher Eṭāchārya. It says that he subsisted on water for the space of a month and then expired by *Samādhi*; and a disciple of his Aṣṭōpavāsa Kalnele Dēvar set up a tombstone over his grave. Belonging evidently to the same date (i.e. about 910 A. D.)

is another epitaph which gives some information about another Jain teacher Nēmichandrārāya. Both this scholar and Eṭāchārya, mentioned above, were disciples of one Śrīdhara-dēva. The epitaph, consists of six Sanskrit verses, two in praise of Śrīdhara and four in praise of Nēmichandra. "The former is described as a member of the Panasōge line in the Dēs'ikagaṇa and Pustaka-gachcha of the Koṇḍakundānvaya, as a gale in dispersing the cloud-anger, as a breaker of the pride of Kandarpa or the god of love, as adorned with the jewels of the 36 qualities and as devoted to the five *āchārās*. His disciple, an ocean of good qualities, well versed in all the Śāstras, honoured by all, expounder of the Jaina faith, equal to Gaṇadharas in eloquence, a clever controversialist, was Nēmichandrārāya. Dispelling the darkness of false creeds and spreading out the moon-light of his eloquence in all directions, the moon Nēmichandra shines in the firmament of the Jaina faith with the rays of his virtues. Having perceived that his end was near, Nēmichandrārāya took the vow of *Sallēkha* and having abstained from food for two months, expired and went to Svarga." The period of this interesting epitaph is about 900.

A noteworthy find of the year was a copper-plate grant of Gōvinda III, the Rāshtrakūṭa, at Nandi, bearing date 806 A. D. It records a grant by him to the local shrine. It informs all the *rāshtrāpatīs*, *vishayapatis*, *grāmapatis*, *gramakūṭās*, *āyuktakas*, *niyuktakas*, *ādihikārikas*, *mahattaras*, etc., that the king gave the grant at the request of the good Kshatriya, Mahābali Bānarāja of the Mahābali kula, to Is'varadāsa, the head of the Sthāna, for the carrying on of worship. The inscription confirms the fact that the temple was built by Ratnavāli, first a Rāshtrakūṭa princess, then

a Bāpa queen. The Mahābali Bānarāja referred to above is evidently Vidyādhara. A number of Tamil inscriptions ranging from 1009 to 1112 A.D. shew that Rājarāja and Kulōt-tuṅga had their power felt beyond Mēlūr taluk. A copper grant seal of a Chedi King Lakshmidhara is interesting for the fact that it confirms the identity of Lakshmidhara with Karpadēva, the rival of the Chandella Kirtivarman (the patron of Kṛishṇamīśra, the author of the *Prabōdhachandrōdayam*). Of the 20 records of the Hoysālas two may be mentioned of singular interest. One of these belonging to the reign of Ballāḷa III, dated 1306, says that the *Sri-Rudra-S'ri-Mahēsvaras* of a number of Nāḍus, the ascetics, the hands of *sthanas*, the *pūjāris*, the Kaikkōlar of the temple, the temple accountants, the *Tenandiri-nāyanmār*, the *Padiyil-ayira-S'ōma-anukkar* and others gave a grant to the Tēkal temple for the welfare of Ballāḷa dēva. The writer of the grant was "the accountant of the 48000 assembly." Another inscription of the same king mentions, curiously enough, a Nambūri as the Archaka, of a temple. An inscription of about 1320, again, at S'ingaperumal temple at Tekal says that the Palabattar, Vallāni-Veṇṇa-S'iyyar and the Kaikkōlar of the temple made a grant. All these inscriptions are, it will be seen, of great social interest.

About 80 records of the Vijayanagar dynasty have been discovered this year; but they give no new information in regard to their history. It may, however, be noted that very many of the early Vijayanagar inscriptions in Mysore are in Tamil. It appears that Kannada was then only gradually gaining the ascendancy. Another point to be noticed is that, according to an epigraph

dated 1565 in the Gōpalaswami temple at Kendatti in Kolar taluk, Tirumal Raya seems to have been cured of a desperate disease in that year. An inscription of Nandi, dated 1544, again, applies imperial titles to Rāma Raya, thereby shewing that, even as early as that year, that great minister was not wanting in ambition or influence.

A glimpse into the character of the Moghul and Mahratta administrations is afforded by a few finds. A Persian sanad of Emperor Mahomed Shah, for example, informs "all responsible clerks, Dēs'mukhs, Dēs'pāndes, legal advisers and executive officials, present and future, of the Hoskōṭa pargana of the Karnatōck division of the conquered territory of Bijapur," that the village which had been enjoyed as *Inam* by a certain Dēs'kulkarṇi Sanjīva was confirmed as such on the ground that he had an ancestral right. A Mahratti inscription on a gong in the Gōpālā-krishna temple at Dēvanhalli records that it was presented by Dhondū Raghunṭha, when the *Mahapradhāna* Balaji Baji Rao's favourite servant, Mukunda Rao, was the Subhedar. Most interesting is the inscription on a silver cup of the same temple which informs us that it was a present from Haider Ali Khan, some time about 1760.

Amidst the minor and miscellaneous inscriptions may be noted those of Mēlūr taluk which shew how largely Tamil masons were employed in Mysore in the middle ages; the curious record of the Varadarāja temple at Tekal saying that in case any one seized and carried away the two dancing girls of the temple on account of their accomplishments in dancing and music, they were bound to be rescued by the authorities of the temple.

III.

The review can be fitly concluded with a brief allusion to the numismatic and literary finds of the year. About a hundred coins, gold, silver and copper, and belonging to Vijayanagar and Mysore, Travancore and Catch, and to the East India Companies of Ceylon, Sumatra and Persia, were examined. The Vijayanagar coins consist of one *varāha* and 19 *half-varāhas* or *konnus*. "The *varāha* is a coin of Dēva Raya II, who ruled from 1419 to 1446. The obverse shews S'iva and Pārvati seated, while the reverse bears the legend *Sri-Pratāpa-Dēva-Rāja* in three horizontal lines in Nāgari characters. The half-*varāhas* which appear to be locally known as *Sivārāi konnūs*, belong to Harihara II (1377—1404). Their obverse is the same as that of the *varāha* noticed above, while the reverse has the legend *S'ri-Pratāpa-Harihara* in three horizontal lines in Nāgari characters." Of the Mysore coins examined during the year, a gold *Haṇa* of Tipu and a *varāha* of Krishna Rāja-Uḍḍayār III, deserve notice. "The former bears on the obverse Hyder's initial, *H*, within a double-lined circle with an intervening ring of dots, and on the reverse the name of the mint-place, Paṭaṇ or Seringapatam, and the date 1219 above it, also within a circle. The date given is of the Maṇḍi era, dating from the birth of Muhammad and corresponding to A.D. 1790-1791. The numerals are written from right to left." The *varāha* of Krishna Rāja Uḍḍayār is exactly after the Vijayanagar pattern, with the figures of S'iva and Pārvati on the obverse and the legend *S'ri-Krishna-Rāja* in three horizontal lines, in Nāgari, on the reverse. Of the silver coins, the *aḍḍa* or half *kaṇṭirāi haṇa* is interesting. Its obverse has the dancing figure of Krishna

within a ring of dots, and its reverse the legend *Mayilhana*, in Kannada character, in three horizontal lines. Among the Travancore coins, the four-kāṣu copper piece, called the *Anantankāsu*, is instructive for the fact that it has, on the obverse, a five-hooded snake, and on the reverse the Teṅgalai caste-mark, dated 1735-6 A.D. The copper coins of the E. I. Co.—the *dub*, half *dub*, etc.—as they were current in Bengal and in South India in the earlier half of the 19th century, are then described. The rest are too modern to be of value to the historian.

IV.

Among the manuscripts that have been collected during the year, Mr. Narasimhachar specially notices three Sanskrit and two Canarese works. "One of them styled *Vratasvarūpa* is a Jaina work, consisting of only 32 stanzas, by Prabhāchandra. It gives the results of the observance or violation of some of the Jaina *vratas*. Another, named *Gāyatri-vyākhyāna*, is a Jaina commentary on the well-known Vēdic verse called the *Gāyatri*, which comes to the conclusion that the God invoked in it is none other than Jina. The third work, called *Nyāyapaddhati*, contains an alphabetical list of 168 *Nyāyas* or popular maxims. None of the above works is dated. Of the Kannada manuscript works, *Sukumāracharita* by S'āntinātha is a good *champu* work, giving an account of a Jaina prince named Sukumāra. The author probably flourished in the 12th century. The name of his guru is given as Vardhamāna-muni. *Rājendra-Vijaya-purāṇa* is also a *champu* work written by a Vīra S'aiva author named Siddhalinga Yōgi. It gives an account of the prince Bhairavēs'vara and may be assigned to the 16th century."

V. RANGACHARI.

COMPOSITION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

THE teaching of English in our High Schools naturally comprises three subjects, viz., Grammar, Composition and Literature. These three parts of one coherent whole, though apparently different from one another, are neither essentially so in their nature nor can they be efficiently and successfully taught without being brought into intimate correlation in the actual process of instruction. The more their inter-relation and close contact in application are realised the better would our efforts bear fruit. Grammar, the great bogey of our students, has been happily dethroned from the high pedestal it used to occupy in our high schools. Both in the aims and methods of teaching literature the last half a dozen years have witnessed radical changes, all tending to an intelligent study and correct appreciation of English authors. More than these, composition demands, and bids fair, to occupy a more dominant place in the English syllabus. And our success in English teaching mainly depends upon the observance of a due balance between these three phases of English so that no one is allowed to overshadow the place or the function of the others. A glance at the English papers of the School Final Examination would convince any English teacher that they are intended to be a test of the student's power to express in simple and correct language his thoughts and knowledge. This capacity for effective expression is essential not only for proficiency in English but indirectly as affecting his mastery of the other subjects also. Because numerous are the instances of students who fail in history or science, their failure being not due to any lack of adequate knowledge of the subject

but to their inability to express their ideas fully and properly. Hence the important role that composition ought, and is destined, to play in our English teaching.

WHAT IS COMPOSITION.

Composition is the art of expressing our thoughts, feelings and experiences in language, spoken or written, clearly and effectively. The literal significance of the word indicates only a combining or putting together of words which are the outward symbols of our thoughts. The moment a child utters two or more words together to indicate a want or a wish, it is performing an act of oral composition. There is no organic difference between a short sentence like: "I went there," spoken by a child and the most elaborate sentences of a literary masterpiece. The one is of a rudimentary character which might gradually develop into the finished product by assiduous cultivation. But this should not mislead us into the supposition that the art of composition is a natural gift and can be mastered without any great effort on our part. There is as much difference between the untutored simplicity of a boy's words and the glowing periods of a master of the craft like Macaulay as between the rustic talk of an illiterate peasant and the cultured speech of an educated person, or between the music of an amateur singer and that of a trained musician. It is true that a literary genius is born not made; but that does not disprove or minimise the importance of conscious effort if one is to acquire marked proficiency in the art of good speech or writing.

THE PRESENT CONDITION.

Any careful observer of the present state of composition teaching in our high schools

would unhesitatingly admit that the system now current has serious defects, that it is capable of vast improvements in several directions, and that until these reforms are effected satisfactory results cannot be obtained. Composition really occupies a very subordinate place in the English syllabus. The time-table allots only an insufficient time for it. No systematic and graded scheme of subjects for composition is drawn up for the year in many schools. Any teacher, whether qualified or not with the necessary knowledge, aptitude and taste, is entrusted with the work. Many teachers, reluctant to bear the tedious burden of correcting the exercises, decline to teach the subject. Under such conditions it is no wonder that the students entertain no pleasant inclination to the subject but regard it as a necessary drudgery. Many teachers seem to labour under the impression that composition is merely the setting of occasional essays or other subjects and indifferently correcting them. Instances of teachers, very often without any previous preparation, who suddenly announce the subject on entering the class, are not at all rare; and the students, handicapped for want of time and clear thought, scribble some hasty indigested matter lacking in arrangement, ideas and neatness of execution. All this evil results because everything is expected to be done in one period or hour. This haphazard method, or rather want of method, this absence of a clearly thought out and logically laid out plan of work for the whole year, cannot be productive of happy results. Fitful and un-organised writing of essays now and then cannot develop the power of lucid expression of our students. Indian schools are not unique in this respect. Modern writers on composition in England and America complain of the same indifferent

work and disappointing results prevailing there. But that does not in any way diminish our responsibility or justify our negligence in the matter. We have to make Herculean efforts to evolve a system and establish it on a sound basis. Success in the art requires careful study and regular practice throughout the school course. Conscious attempt should be made to teach and treat composition in such a way as to enlist the intelligent interest of the students in the work and to generate in them a pleasure and a pride in the creations of their thought and fancy.

ITS AIM AND IMPORTANCE.

Composition has a high educational value. Each of our school subjects, such as science, history, mathematics, etc., is intended to appeal to, and develop, some particular faculty of the mind. But composition stands on a higher footing in so far as its spirit permeates, and is of vital importance to a full comprehension and clear expression of, all the other subjects. It affords a good training for the mind through "the acquisition and expression of ideas." The writing of a good essay presupposes, and calls into play, our power to see, to think and to express. Logical writing involves logical thinking. The clearness or force of our arguments or descriptions is directly governed by the order and arrangement of our thoughts and feelings. Therefore composition, which is the art of self-expression, enables us to organise our knowledge, to widen our knowledge by assimilating fresh ideas from new sources, and to discriminate between the essential and accessory ideas. "It determines the amount of dynamic power possessed by a student;" because it displays to what extent the creative and critical powers of his mind have been developed,

reveals the character and substance of the knowledge he has acquired in various subjects, and the degree to which he is able to exercise control and discipline over it. Secondly, language being the mould of our thoughts and experiences, continuous practice in composition for some years teaches him those important facts and principles of language, which are indispensably necessary to command a correct and idiomatic style.

MATTER AND MANNER.

The two essentials of a good piece of composition are appropriate thoughts couched in proper language. The form of an essay is no less important than the substance which it embodies. But there are teachers who entertain the notion that the subject matter alone is of consequence; and, provided a student has suitable and relevant ideas, they think that he can be credited with the power of gaining the necessary linguistic knowledge without much difficulty. But I fear it is a dangerous doctrine, particularly so in India, where English is to us a foreign language. My experience goes to show that our students are not lacking in ideas but they rather stumble in their grammar and idiom, often using idioms and phrases literally rendered from the vernacular, but quite improper and foreign to the genius of the English language. Unless equal attention is devoted to both of them, so that progress in expression keeps pace with the acquirement of new ideas, uniform and harmonious proficiency in composition cannot be attained.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE ESSAY.

The essay, to whatever species it might belong, naturally falls into three main divisions, as in the case of an architectural edifice. The beginning or Introduction,

tastefully short and relevant in matter, should suggest the general aim and purpose or the attendant circumstances in the case of the narrative. It should be such as to strike the attention of the reader. It might begin with a general statement or anecdote or quotation, each being sanctioned by the usage of great writers. The introduction should, without any break or strain, lead to the middle or Body of the essay. This is the main, central and solid part. It should embody all the essential facts, choice illustrations and necessary reflections. While the chief outstanding topics are treated with sufficient elaborateness proportionate to their importance, the subsidiary details should fall in with the main ones in their due places. The Conclusion, being the goal kept in view, should seem the natural close of the foregoing matter. It may either give a brief summary of the whole or end in a climax or with a striking sentence.

THE ELEMENTS OF COMPOSITION.

The Sentence: The rhetorical elements of a piece of composition are the paragraph, the sentence and the vocabulary. The appropriate structure of an essay depends upon the nature and arrangement of these elements composing it. An essay being the expression of the more or less complex thoughts and feelings in language, the form is akin to, and conditioned by, the substance. As a sentence is the embodiment of an idea or ideas intimately connected, it is the unit of the essay, and not the isolated word. A regular succession of sentences assists the reader to grasp and follow the thread and progression of the ideas. Therefore, skill in the construction and arrangement of sentences is of direct aid in the proper expression of our

thoughts. Though each sentence should observe the principle of unity, there must be great variety in the length and structure of the sentences. This variety is quite essential to render the meaning clear, to distribute the emphasis at the proper places, and to impart melody or at least smoothness to the whole. Short simple sentences give emphasis; but a series of short sentences sound "jerky" and become soon tiresome to read. A compound sentence expresses two or more related ideas, which by their combination produce one of a comprehensive kind. But a succession of many compound sentences, resulting in a string of numerous co-ordinated clauses connected by *and*'s, also produces the feeling of sameness and monotony, and an uneasy sense of disgust. Moreover, they are unable to distinguish the comparative importance of statements and obscure the logical relation of the facts. To overcome these defects complex sentences serve us well; because in them the emphasis naturally rests on the main clause. Hence we see that both periodic and loose sentences have their distinct merits and shortcomings. As our thoughts and emotions vary, the sentences which reproduce them should also correspondingly vary, if we are to express them precisely and completely. Hence the importance of a proper blending of long and short sentences, discretion being our only guide.

The Paragraph: Though we have treated the sentence as the unit of the essay, we should not forget that it is only "the servant, eye, the child, of the paragraph," whose function is only as forming an important part of the larger whole. As the sentence treats of one complete idea, the paragraph, consisting of many sentences, discusses one topic or one distinct phase of a

subject. It is the unit of arrangement of material. The paragraph divisions render it easy, clear, and often pleasant for the reader to follow the events in their natural succession or the explanations in their proper places. Unity in the structure of the paragraph secures a concise and connected account of the subject in the natural order of the thoughts. A simple way to accomplish this result is to make the first sentence indicate the essence or point of the para. Within the paragraph itself the sentences should be so arranged as not to cause any abrupt breaks in thought but to secure an easy and smooth step forward by the use of appropriate conjunctions, pronouns or other connective phrases. The same device should be adopted in the transition from one para. to the next.

Vocabulary: Words being the fundamental units of language, skilful choice and accurate use of them lie at the root of one's success in composition. The general principles regulating the choice of words are that they must be Correct or should conform to the general practice of great writers; Precise or should fit definitely and exactly to the thought; Appropriate or should suit the subject and the occasion; and Expressive or should be interesting and vivid so as to express feeling in addition to thought. Simple and familiar words should always be preferred to affected or pompous ones. The students should be impressed with the uncountness or absurdity of "making little fishes talk like whales," when they show an unhealthy tendency for long and high-sounding words.

THE QUALITIES OF STYLE.

No elaborate or systematic discussion on style would be either practicable or useful in our high schools. Knowledge of a few

simple elements and qualities of style, as illustrated by some well-chosen examples from standard authors, would suffice their practical needs. The only two qualities that require emphasis and elucidation are Clearness and Strength. Clearness requires freedom from ambiguity of meaning and obscurity of arrangement, and can be attained by being brief and simple in the use of words, by directness, by following the natural arrangement of the words, and by precision of meaning. Strength or Impressiveness can be secured by the use of plain and concrete words as far as possible, by terseness and occasional repetition, and by suitable inversions and uncommon construction of sentences. As figurative language is of the very essence and finer spirit of English poetry and largely enters into the structure of English prose, a knowledge of metaphor, simile and a few other common figures of speech not only enriches his power of expression but stimulates his æsthetic taste and power of appreciating and enjoying beauty in good literature.

THE PLACE OF RHETORIC.

Whether rhetoric should be taught in the high school is a debatable question. While admitting that formal or systematic instruction in rhetoric is out of place in our schools, I maintain that complete ignorance of its chief elements would be a fatal error. As the power of correct expression cannot be gained without a firm grounding on the chief rules of grammar, so the capacity for effective expression cannot be acquired without a grasp of the main elements of rhetoric. The teaching of composition aims at formal instruction and practice in the art of expression, whereas rhetoric implies instruction in the theory or science of expression. Who will

completely divorce an art from its science? The present method of teaching science in our schools furnishes an excellent parallel to this. Theoretical instruction, unaccompanied by practical experiments, would be futile; and practical demonstrations, not attended with an explanation of the principles underlying them, would be incomplete and irrational. So, mere practice in writing composition without an adequate knowledge of the elementary rules and principles of rhetoric, by the application of which the expression can be made accurate and effective, cannot contribute to even a part of that accomplishment, which it is our aim to develop. The proper arrangement of words, sentences and paragraphs in an essay; the progressive stages of development of the subject; the means of acquiring a correct, simple, clear and emphatic style; the four-fold divisions into which subjects for composition are classified and the main distinctions between them; the appropriate use of punctuation marks; the rudimentary principles governing these elements of composition might very profitably be taught, especially as applicable to, and illustrated by examples and models. A few leading principles, thoroughly understood and assimilated, will exercise a wonderful effect on the writing of composition.

THE USE OF MODELS.

The theoretical study of the principles embodied in rhetoric should go hand in hand with a careful study of good and appropriate models by a process of analysis, verification and appreciation. Select passages in prose and poetry from the masterpieces of standard authors fulfil the same function as high and noble ideals of character do in our lives. They serve to instruct, to enrich and to inspire. By setting before us general principles

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of the art of expression embodied in and sanctioned by the writings of great authors, by presenting for imitation well-organised examples of what we ought to achieve in the different species of composition, and by impressing on our minds general ideas as to the order of procedure, a sympathetic study of good literary models not only adds to the stock of our knowledge and vocabulary but creates in us a habit of orderly expression and a "sense of literary form." They cultivate also the æsthetic taste of the students. To secure this end lessons studied in the literature class might be largely utilised in addition to a thoroughly good set of graded exercises selected from a standard work on composition.

SUBJECTS IN GENERAL.

A large measure of the success accruing from composition is dependent upon the skilful and judicious choice of subjects. That the subjects should not demand ideas or information beyond the capacity or the province of the student's knowledge might be laid down as a general principle. Secondly, subjects should, as far as possible, appeal to and admit of being treated by the personal experiences of the student. Thirdly, concrete and specific subjects should be preferred to abstract and general ones. But these principles of great practical value are often wantonly or ignorantly disregarded in our schools. Subjects, beyond the grasp or comprehension of the student, or too vague and undefined in character, are set for essays, and no wonder if the results be disappointing. To delimit the subject to a definite theme is absolutely essential. Any subject, whose broad features or salient points an average student finds himself incapable of sketching

in outline even after ransacking his memory, is manifestly unfit to find a place in the composition syllabus. How can we reasonably expect a pupil to express himself on a theme about which his mind is almost a blank? In this respect the lessons both in prose and poetry studied in the class can be freely used for composition. A large number of suitable subjects can be advantageously selected from the detailed and still more from the non-detailed texts, the matter being more or less familiar to the minds of the pupils. This method not only tends to impress many portions of these lessons on their minds but generates in them a consciousness of their power and ability by trying to attain to a definite ideal. At the same time ampler scope should be afforded to the active exercise of their powers of invention and reasoning, fancy and imagination by giving original compositions suited to their standard and capacity.

NARRATIVE AND DESCRIPTION.

The essay is, according to rhetorical principles, classified into the four broad species of narrative, description, exposition and argument. Of these the Narrative, being the most objective of all, is the simplest and the most interesting to the youthful mind. So stories and other subjects treating of known facts and incidents should receive earliest attention and greatest emphasis. They generally involve a plot of a simple kind. So, a good outline showing the principal and subordinate incidents should enable the student to follow the sequence of events in the order of time and secure unity and coherence by allotting proportionate treatment to the several parts, ending the whole in the climax. The introduction of dialogue would add vigour to the discourse,

Numerous subjects of a simple kind can be picked out from the texts as well as from external sources for this purpose. Known stories from history or biographies of eminent men, narrating the same story from different points of view as related by different actors, imaginary conversations with great men of the past or the present, rewriting of story-poems in plain prose with the necessary additions or alterations, finishing incomplete stories, or exercises in amplifying or enlarging stories in outline—these varied sources might be conveniently employed for numerous essays.

Description: To describe a person, place or object vividly and accurately is a difficult task. The aim of a good description is to produce a perfect picture on the mind of the reader by a series of clear-cut and pleasant impressions. The result and procedure should be analogous to those of painting. For this the salient features should be selected and grouped in some harmonious order to economise the reader's attention. One chief defect of our students is that their descriptive essays sound more like an inventory of disconnected facts or ideas than the natural parts of a coherent whole. The only remedy for this monotonous effect lies in the adoption of greater variety in the length, construction and structure of the sentences. If the description is to represent real life it should also include touches of colour, movement, associated circumstances and even personal feelings of the writer. Books dealing with "the scenic romance of travel and exploration," descriptive poems and sketches of character as found in Chaucer and Addison's Essays, may be read in the class with great advantage. Other subjects of a varied nature, such as journeys by train,

cart or boat, walking excursions or picnic parties, character of persons studied in the text, can also be treated upon. One general principle of great value is not to select subjects of a wide, vague nature but those emphasising on some one object, or aspect or single impression of that object.

EXPOSITION AND ARGUMENT.

Subjects devoted to exposition and argument should be less frequently employed as they demand higher powers of thinking, analysis and arrangement. Exposition or Explanation is a very common thing of everyday life and it is also the highest aim of science. The object of exposition being to make a subject, simple or difficult, clear to the mind, facts and ideas explaining it should be sorted and arranged, groups of topics standing for the natural divisions of the subject in the mind. The subjects deal not with individuals and particular things, but with general and common things. The language should be simple and clear. The abstract nature of the subject matter can be relieved by the appropriate use of concrete examples, apt illustrations to throw light on dark corners, and by occasional repetition of statements in other words for the sake of emphasis. Dullness or dryness can be avoided by drawing instances from familiar objects or by allusions. A short introduction, setting forth a concise and definite statement of what we are going to explain and a brief conclusion, indicating the sum and substance of the subject, are essential features of an expository essay.

Argument: An Argument differs from an explanation in the purpose to be achieved. Whereas exposition aims to impart knowledge or to make a thing understood, the aim of argu-

ment is to establish or disprove something, to change the opinions of others or to persuade them to a certain course of action. The appeal is to common sense and reason. The student has to play the part of a partisan, a champion, an advocate. To attain success in this work he has to make an exact and clear statement of his aim, advance his arguments and grounds for holding them, to refute the arguments of the opponent, and to enforce his own view. Only a few well-chosen subjects befitting their capacity and knowledge can be attempted. Problems in history or biography of a contentious nature, which allow of such discussion, can be made use of. The debating societies in our high schools, if properly worked in the right spirit under the sympathetic supervision and guidance of the teachers, would form a valuable adjunct to the composition work and afford a good training ground for cultivating the art of argument and persuasion. Such examples as the contrast between the "cold reasoning of Brutus and the passionate eloquence of Antony" in Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar* would be of immense practical value in attaining this end.

LETTER-WRITING.

While the formal essays receive adequate treatment at our hands, letters, which occupy a distinct and unavoidable function in daily life, should not be overlooked. They are the indispensable accompaniment of modern civilised life and social requirements. To write a correct, and at the same time an interesting and readable letter, is not so easy as it seems at the outset. Moreover, they naturally reveal, as no other form is able to do, the personal feelings, experiences and inner workings of the soul. The inclusion of

customary parts of the letter, such as the heading, salutation, body of the letter, formal closing, signature, superscription, etc., not only acts as an index of the writer's breeding and etiquette but makes the whole matter easily intelligible. The students should be well practised in the art of writing letters of invitation and acknowledgment, congratulation and sympathy, official and business letters, applications for appointment, domestic and friendly letters, etc. It is needless to emphasise the importance of this practical knowledge and the woeful ignorance of the ordinary principles of letter-writing often displayed by our students.

PRELIMINARY WORK.

We next consider some points in the actual process of instruction. Between the announcing of a subject in the class by the teacher and the act of writing about it by the pupils, a work of considerable importance has to be gone through. The ideas and feelings of the student, often existing in a nebulous condition, his information, frequently scrappy and ill-organised, have to be stimulated, arranged and eked out by the teacher. The subject should be fully discussed in its important bearings by the pupil under the watchful guidance of the teacher. The available materials, both good, bad and indifferent, have then to be carefully sifted and selected in the class. Irrelevant matter should be scrupulously eschewed by him. The students have to be carefully told what to say, and more necessary than that, what not to say, upon a subject; because their ill-equipped minds tempt them to unnecessary digressions from the essay proper. Thus their imperfect knowledge, after undergoing the filtering process of correction at the hands of the teacher, should be supplemented

and amplified. The teacher can "strike the keynote" of the whole essay, suggest to them some sources of information in their own experiences or the experiences of other great men from which they might imbibe some fresh spirit or glean new light, handle the subject so as to enable them to regard it in two or more new or unexpected aspects for treatment, or in a word to "put the proper atmosphere about it." Unless this preparatory work is carefully performed by the teacher, encouraging or substantial progress on the part of the students is impossible.

ORAL COMPOSITION.

So much of our attention is devoted to written work in composition that we are apt to forget, or at least undervalue, the necessity for, and the important place of, oral composition. It is true that the written form is a more tangible and measurable thing; but it is none the less artificial. We must remember that the oral form is "the human and natural, the living and vital" form, the written work being only the visual or symbolic representation of the spoken one. The dictum of Bacon that "Conference maketh a ready man and writing an exact man" shows clearly the relative importance of oral and written work in composition. The power of expressing our thoughts in words clearly and correctly, being of practical importance in everyday work, business and affairs, is a valuable asset in life. Therefore more time should be devoted to oral work, proficiency gained in this being directly reflected in the written exercise of the students. The step-motherly treatment, now meted out to it, should be abandoned, and every effort should be made to break down the barrier that separates these two portions of the same field. Moreover, the work of the school debating

societies, if more consciously organised with an eye to secure greater co-ordination between the usual composition work and the subjects discussed at their meetings, could be rendered a blessing to the students as a ground for training their voice in conversation, reading and public discourse, instead of being merely an idle intellectual sporting field as at present.

THE NEED FOR AN OUTLINE.

The preliminary work done in the class should enable the student to prepare an outline of the subject for himself. This work, efficiently done, would be of incalculable value. The outline should indicate the chief headings and sub-headings, showing the broad divisions and groups of allied topics, and should separate the fundamental and essential facts from the merely subsidiary details, thus assigning to their several parts their proportionate importance. The outline places before him a constructive plan of the work to be performed, and imposes on him the necessity for coherent treatment of the subject. Further, by fettering him to a definite plan of thought and procedure, it secures unity by putting a check on the tendency to ramble and digress, quite natural to the youthful mind, and constrains him to "think and write, not in scraps but in masses." It is most necessary that the teacher should attach considerable importance to this part of the work, insist on the students regularly doing it, and discuss these outlines occasionally in the class.

CORRECTION WORK.

Another important task, especially devolving on the teacher, is the correction of exercises. I admit it is no pleasant work, often seriously taxing the teacher's patience. But it is inevitable and at the same time, if

efficiently done, productive of great good. This consciousness should induce the teacher to undertake it ungrudgingly and go through it patiently and cheerfully. The object of correction is to rectify or increase the pupils' knowledge of the subject and to raise his standard of judgment. Corrections or entries made in the note-book should help in the attainment of this end. After correcting one or two exercises the teacher should select and make a list of the ordinary errors and difficulties common to many students and have them discussed and corrected in the class as a whole so that these blunders might be avoided in future. To have the student by the side of the teacher, whenever possible, is very useful. Under no circumstances should slovenly work be tolerated; such indolence should be severely discountenanced. The students should be made to rewrite the corrections marked by the teacher on the left-hand page, whether they be mistakes in spelling, grammar or idiom. And in the case of thoughtless and slipshod work the student should be asked to rewrite the whole essay carefully. Now and then should the teacher read some essays of different standards and criticise them in the class, praising the good and rebuking the defective. But criticism, as it is intended to be constructive and to remedy defects, should not take the form of ridicule or verge towards ill-humour. Exceptionally good essays should be warmly commended in the class and held up as worthy of appreciation and imitation by other students.

HIGHER IDEALS.

To the teacher who is inspired by high ideals in his professional life and work, and who looks ahead to the future of the students, one or two problems of a rather contested

nature present themselves. English at present is, and for a long time likely to be the *lingua franca* of educated India; and journalism is becoming a powerful factor in the public life of the country. Hence in the case of those students, who display distinguished ability in their composition work and who evince a special aptitude and taste in that line, the teacher should, by sympathetic guidance and encouragement, exert them to higher ambitious flights of intelligence and imagination. Here the school work might be made, by a natural gradation, the stepping stone to journalistic work. Another diversion from the regular essay-writing that might be tried is occasional attempts at versification in the highest class. The elements of English prosody being mastered in connection with the study of poems, some familiar subjects might be treated in the form of verse instead of prose. This training might not make them poets, nor is it anticipated; but it will generate in them a love and taste for poetry, give them a knowledge of correct pronunciation and accentuation, a sense of rhythm and harmony of language. These indirect results are not to be despised.

CONCLUSION.

Let composition be elevated from the place of a cinderella among the school subjects. Let the charge that our students are incapable of expressing their conceptions appropriately be no more levelled at us. To be able to speak or to read agreeably with the necessary pauses, modulations of the voice and emphasis, is an attainment of inestimable value. To be able to write correctly and effectively is the index of a sound education and a powerful weapon in modern life. A liberal secondary education should

try to foster in the student this masterly ability to wield the tongue and the pen. The art of composition not only gives us a mastery over language but also a command over our thoughts and emotions. All the teachers in a school should, by the help of precept, example and practice, make a conscious and co-ordinated attempt to raise the standard of English speech and writing. Every effort made in this direction would prove highly fruitful and productive.

APPENDIX.

[N. B.—The following list is mainly intended to be suggestive, but may also be found to be fairly sufficient for a three years' course. Subjects for narrative essays, to be easily obtained from the text-books or other common sources, are not included.]

I. Narrative :

1. Imaginary conversation about man between a domestic and a wild animal.
2. Imaginary visit to and conversation with some character in a book.

II. Story poems to be written in plain prose :

1. Kingsley : The three fishers.
2. Mary Lamb : The child and the snake.
3. Peacock : The priest and the mulberry tree.
4. Emerson : The mountain and the squirrel.
5. Cowper : The dog and the water-lily.
6. Do. : John Gilpin.
7. Trench : Harmosan.
8. Leigh Hunt : Jaffar.
9. Do. : Mahmoud.
10. Gay : The hare with many friends.
11. Wordsworth : Lucy Grey.
12. Lowell : Dara.
13. Do. : Yussuf.

14. Campbell : Lord Ullin's daughter.
15. Do. : Napoleon and the British sailor.
16. Tennyson : The Victim.
17. Southey : Bishop Hatto.
18. Do. : Inchcape Rock.
19. Browning : Incident of the French camp.
20. Scott : Lochinvar.

III. Description :

1. The native village or town.
2. An Indian bazaar.
3. Some Indian festival.
4. A walk by the sea-shore.
5. A moonlight night.
6. Indian mountain, forest or river scenery.
7. The Indian gypsies or byragies.
8. A favourite game.
9. A pen-portrait of a carpenter, a priest or a postman.
10. The Rainbow.

IV. Exposition :

1. The uses of biographies.
2. The effects of the Crusade.
3. Libraries and their uses.
4. How climate influences character.
5. Advantages of a good memory.
6. The influence of the invention of printing or the art of writing.
7. Athletics : Their physical, mental and moral uses.
8. The choice of a profession.
9. Travel as a part of education.
10. Commerce as a means of civilization.
11. The force of habit.
12. What is a gentleman ?
13. Literature reflects the spirit of the age.
14. Famines and how to prevent them.
15. Great events from little causes spring.
16. Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war.

V. Expansion of metaphors :

1. Afghanistan is the Switzerland of Asia.

2. He was the apple of his father's eye.
3. Fall many a flower is born to blush unseen.
4. The wish is father to the thought.
5. Athens the eye of Greece
Mother of arts and eloquence.
6. O gentle sleep! nature's soft nurse.
7. But yonder comes the powerful king
of day,
Rejoicing in the east.

VI. Amplification of proverbs, etc.:

1. Where there is a will, there is a way.
2. A stitch in time saves nine.
3. Necessity is the mother of invention.
4. Slow and steady wins the race.
5. Union is strength.
6. Prevention is better than cure.
7. It is never too late to mend.
8. Every man is the architect of his own fortune.
9. Knowledge is power.
10. The child is father of the man.

VII. Famous literary characters, etc.:

Robinson Crusoe, Don Quixote, Gulliver, Tom Brown, Sir Roger, Hereward the Wake, Robin Hood, Shylock, Hamlet, Falstaff, Rosalind, Cordelia, Little Nell, Portia, etc.

VIII. Argument:

1. Town and country life compared.
2. Akbar and Aurangzeb compared.
3. Travelling old and new.
4. Literary and Scientific education discussed.
5. Wealth and poverty as incentives to greatness.

IX. Miscellaneous subjects:

1. Means of transporting goods.
2. The five senses.
3. Spending a holiday.
4. Adventures of Alice in Wonderland.

5. The rivers of India and their uses.
6. The greatness of Asoka.
7. The importance of the newspaper.
8. The monsoon and its uses.
9. Choice of friends.
10. Choice of books.
11. The Arabian Nights.
12. The influence of example.
13. Favourite hero in history or in fiction.
14. Hobbies.
15. Commonsense.
16. National characteristics.
17. The power of music.
18. A taste for reading.
19. The historical novel.
20. The charm of poetry.

X. Letters:

1. Letter of invitation to a meeting or marriage.
2. Letter of acknowledgment to above.
3. To a friend congratulating him on his success.
4. To a friend expressing sympathy in sorrow.
5. An application for some appointment.
6. A complaint to the postmaster or the municipality.
7. To a firm applying for books or other things.
8. To a father or guardian about school-work or asking for money.
9. To a friend describing a journey or place visited.
10. A letter from a survivor in a fire-accident.
11. A telegram about some urgent matter.

P. K. ANANTANARAYANA IYER.

EUGENICS AND EDUCATION.

A FACETIOUS critic has characterised our educational system as a process of cram-and-emetic and considering the extremely mechanical form in which it is moulded, we have to regard that the comparison is by no means inappropriate. It is almost an admitted fact that education so far has failed to fulfil the high purpose at which it aims, *viz.*, the all round efficiency of the race; and the failure is not to be attributed to any one cause in particular. An ideal scheme of education would regard with equal importance the qualifications of the teacher, the principles of methods, the suitability of subjects, and above all the character of the "stuff" on which these operate. We had pinned too much faith in the past to the transmuting or the creative powers of these agencies, ignoring the fact that education is at best only a process of developing what heredity has implanted in the mind, but is utterly incapable of drawing out what is not already there, even in spite of honest endeavours. The old conception of Locke and others of his school of thought of the child mind that it is a blank sheet of paper is no more true than the Jesuit conception of its inherent wickedness. Though the study of heredity has not said the last word on the principles of the mechanism of transmission of characters, yet the latest researches on the inheritance of human faculty disclose the fact that the potentialities of the child mind have a direct reference to the ancestral factors, immediate or remote. The child mind is not therefore a *tabula rasa*, but is a piece of tapestry the ornamental designs of which belong to a remote antiquity. In the light of such circumstances the function of

education is to re-adjust, where necessary, the different elements of this tapestry; or to modify them practically, if need be, by bringing into play on them the influences of a new environment; or guide, restraining from unduly interfering with the spontaneous expression of the naturally good predispositions. The antecedents of the child mind, therefore naturally occupy the forefront of the modern educational thought and every other consideration assumes a subordinate position. Hence the value of education is individual and not racial, *i.e.* the benefits of education are confined to the individual and cannot be reproduced or even maintained in the offspring, so much so that in each generation education has to make a fresh start, and it is to be remembered that the character of the mind it has to deal with, will be practically the same in the successive generations.

Eugenics is the science of race culture and advocates the practical application of the laws of heredity to the improvement of mankind, tending to the realisation of greatest comfort. The social artifices like Sanitation, Education and other institutions endeavour to help the individual to develop the best in him by creating a suitable atmosphere. On the other hand, the eugenicist concerns himself with the problem of producing a better breed of men by selecting for parenthood only such men as come nearest to the eugenic ideal. The principles of method that is proposed to be followed in the practice of eugenics, are not opposed to what goes on in nature, without at the same time producing undue shock to the humanitarian instincts of mankind. Persons that are economically unsound are given the scope of developing their individuality by being looked after in the public institutions on the condition of their sacrificing the

privileges of parenthood, a process, if selflessly followed, has the promise and potency of shutting out lunacy, infirmity, criminality, drunkenness, infectious and other sorts of diseases from society, which might otherwise act as a drag to the progress of it. If such suggestions should ever come within the range of practical politics, great strides will have been made towards the attainment of the ideal advocated by Plato in his Republic. The eugenicist differs from other workers who have equally the good of mankind at heart, in that they attach great importance to the inborn tendencies and the methods on which they rely, aim at continually influencing them on the principles of selection. Heredity therefore is the basis of eugenic practice, whose efforts are supplemented by agencies like education. In order that an individual may attain his maximum development of usefulness, two things would appear to be absolutely essential; one is the provision of an inherently sound nature which is the province of eugenics, and the second is the creation of a suitable environment for its expression, which is the domain of education; and the interaction of the two forces on rational lines must inevitably uplift manhood to a higher plane of being. Subject to considerations of space limit, we shall develop this idea in the following paragraphs:—

We have seen that in the bringing up of a child, two factors count, *viz.*, the mental heritage and the circumstances of environment; and in appraising their relative importance, we incline in favour of the former. No matter how high the potential of any one of these factors, the result is nothing if the other factor is also nothing. The deeper we recognise the correctness of this view, the nearer we

come to the solution of the problem, *viz.*, the interpretation of the educational ideas in the language of heredity. Sir Francis Galton's *Inheritance of Human Faculty* is a book in point, and the reader will find that "potentialities constitute limitations which the best endeavours of education cannot transcend." We may illustrate the case further. "Not infrequently do we hear of this or that public institution having produced some eminent man; the question naturally arises why the same institution did not succeed in making others also equally eminent." "Is not education instead of being a levelling agent as is popularly supposed, a process of making the original differences wider?" "A great part of the human suffering has its root in the nature of man and not in that of his institutions." The success of education is therefore determined by the *kind* of boy or girl that is sent to be educated. The teacher has to combat another popular fallacy which is prone to believe that the mental equipment of a child coming of a gifted family is vastly superior to or in advance of the other of a more plebeian character. The gifted child, it is wrongly supposed, begins his education at the last point at which the parent left off and this view is no more correct than that the new-born babe of Sandow can be expected to start life with the father's physical perfections. The Lamarckian view of the transmission of acquired characters has a strong fascination for popular imagination and it is by no means easy to dispossess it. It is hoped that popularisation of the results of the investigations conducted in Eugenic Laboratory will help to overthrow such a conception: the unassisted methods of education alone are powerless as an instrument for improving the breed of mankind.

In the light of eugenics the function of education would be to establish high standards of civic virtues, a high level of public taste and an uncompromising sense of social purity so that the finer specimens of humanity alone who come up to these standards are allowed to hand the next generation the possibilities of carrying them to a higher pitch, and the weaker specimens (in the broadest and truest sense) are not authorised to exercise the same privilege by the censorship of public opinion. The first step that education has to take is to rally public opinion on its side in striking out on these lines which palpably appear to be revolutionary in spirit, but they really constitute the natural outcome of the crush and strain of the conditions of the modern civilised life. The public stand in considerable need of being educated in Darwin's principles of selection and the conditions under which they in a modified form, are applicable to human society, whose present greatness is to be attributed to the silent working of such a selective process. If the principles of selection have to come into operation in the world of education which, as we have already stated, constitutes the environment of eugenics, we have to look to the investigations of experimental psychologists to enable us to form a definite opinion in regard to the intellectual worth of the raw material produced by the different classes of the community; still the data available encourage the adoption of a cautious policy of eugenic education.

We have been so far dealing with the environmental aspect of the subject, and the other aspect relates to fitting the youth for the duties of parenthood. "While it appears expedient that the most elaborate preparations are necessary to train a young man to the duties of citizenship, to earn a livelihood, it is

not even thought of that any preparation is necessary to fit a young man or a young girl to the most solemn offices of life, the management of a family." In India the exercise of this function is a religious ordainment and the contingency of a family is neither remote nor uncertain in any community. The forms of social life of the Western nations, their customs and practices, no less than their advanced views on all social questions, would be looked upon with pious horror by the orthodox Hindû who expects confidently to be released from the sufferings of "Puth" through the birth of a son. In India as elsewhere, the whole subject of "sex" is hedged round with false prudery, and the facts of the biological teachings alone and a return to the more natural ways of thinking will enable one to face it in a matter-of-fact spirit.

Like every other subject of a more or less controversial nature, the opinion is sharply divided on the question of giving instructions relative to "sex." The conservative educationists who see every thing good in the old systems, would have no patience with the moderns who vote for radical reforms. The prosaic facts of Physiology are invested with a degree of blushful delicacy, for which medieval scholasticism is as mainly responsible as the opinion of the modern church. It may sound somewhat out of date to talk about education in the discharge of the duties of parenthood, side by side with the religious teaching, for according to the popular impression the two appear to be opposed. On the other hand if the question should be treated in its scientific bearings, it ought to be capable of a treatment like any other subject included in the curriculum of studies. The apprehension of the advocates

of such studies is not that the youthful mind would be perverted, so much as their being abused if allowed to be handled by incompetent masters. Knowledge of eugenic matters is bound to come to every school boy, and the two anxious questions to be decided by the parent and the teacher alike will be, (1) what is the source whence it arrives? (2) in what form is it presented? The national well-being and purity of social life must depend upon the answers given to them. But the most outstanding question to deal with at the outset, would be whether it is practicable to teach the subject of sex in the Indian schools and whether it is one of our immediate educational requirements. The whole thing depends upon the view we take of education as an instrument in increasing the efficiency of the nation. The cultural aspect of it has failed to achieve the ideal, if the contemporary criticism is to be credited; the eugenic aspect of it promises to take the race nearer the goal, if faith is developed in the claims of the biological teachings or in the application of their results to the breeding of mankind. It is very easy to dismiss the subject as one of the latest educational fads, but then we would be forgetting the teachings of nature, and should be neglecting the common sense in our every day practices.

The ground for the eugenic teaching should be cleared by eliminating certain factors from school life, the most depressing tendency among school children is a proneness to brown study, the provocative cause of which is either want of sufficient and nutritious food, sickness, the reading of objectionable books, or ill-treatment. The remedy lies partly in the hands of the parent, and partly in the hands of the teacher, which consists in improving the health of the child by inducing

him to take part in all forms of manly games and enabling him to form pleasant associations by sympathy and supervision of his general reading. Once the young man develops a capacity to indulge in morbid reveries, the right use of imagination becomes a hopeless task to him, his mind being corrupted besides. The parent should rise to the proper level of responsibility in making his child the centre of eugenic idea, by seconding the efforts of the teacher to protect him from the street influences. Where the children attend Day Schools, the responsibility on the part of the parent in looking after the child becomes all the greater, a position the seriousness of which is hardly recognised. It is the lack of willingness to perform the respective duties devolving on them that accounts in a large measure for the failure of our educational methods.

In order "to further eugenic teaching at home, in the schools and elsewhere," organisations like Eugenic Education Societies have been formed, amongst the members of which are found men and women of vast educational experience. They regard that the difficulties of teaching the subject are exaggerated and can be avoided by going to it straight, and is not all talk of impracticability of such suggestions more illusory than real? Prof. Forel is of opinion that eugenic education ought to come at the very beginning and gives a detailed description of the lines and methods on which this instruction should be carried on at the different stages of a boy's course, and the respective parts played by the parent and the teacher. He suggests that at the time when youth passes into adolescence lessons on the supreme sanctity of parenthood must be

taught by utilising the natural instincts; on the theory of population; on the causes that affect their multiplication or decrease; on the conditions of survival; on the value of the study of heredity; on the nature and spread of infectious diseases; on social hygiene; and on the importance to society of weeding out lunatics and criminals. In the final stages, lessons in Physiology come in very appropriately. The following paragraphs traverse only the main outer fringes of the wide field covered by this multitude of subjects.

The master who handles the subject must be keenly alive to the enormous seriousness of the topics he is dealing with, if he is to contribute to its successful teaching, or if he allows himself to be flippant, it is capable of doing mischief. The subject itself could be rendered innocuous by being graduated so as to adapt the different parts of it to the several stages in the course of education, with the result that no knowledge is prematurely presented to the boy's intellect. For instance in the preliminary course, the main facts and principles of heredity which are of the simplest character, should be taught through the chief vegetable forms and domesticated animals. The attention of the children can be focussed on the methods of selection of parents both in the vegetable and animal world, adopted by the horticulturist and the breeder who are responsible for the bewildering variety of improved forms produced from some wild stock. Without undue personal allusions, it ought to be possible to the teacher to make references to the improvement of mankind through the same selective process, the underlying principle of which is the cultivated eugenic sense of the individuals themselves. At this stage

also it may not be irrelevant to mention in broad outlines the disastrous consequences to society arising out of the perpetuation of certain defects appearing in the children of parents who are eugenically unsound.

As childhood passes into youth, the "eugenic sense which, let us suppose has been created, must form the cardinal point of the moral sense itself." Here there is a vast field for the moral instruction "of the highest and the most valuable kind," in all social matters. The vegetable world is at our service again, the parts of the common flower and their respective functions ought to form very appropriate subjects of study. It ought to be made clear to the student that the flowering of the plant is the culmination of a series of physiological processes, the object of which is to enable the plant to reproduce another of its kind *fit* to take its place in the world. The theory of natural selection, the facts of environment, the conditions of the survival value of the offsprings, the struggle for existence and other facts of evolution should be taught with reference both to the vegetable and animal forms of life; and it should be strongly impressed on the youthful mind that Nature selects for parenthood from among a host of offspring only such as have the capacity to fit to the environment. The mind of the observant youth will naturally make the transition from vegetables and animals to the conditions of the human society, whose environmental circumstances, at least in future, will make "fittest" and "best" almost synonymous. By the term condition or circumstance, we mean the bringing into existence of a strong public opinion popularising eugenic thought and its extensive practice, always tending to the production of

men who are eminently fitted (best) for citizenship.

In the third stage, the racial instinct of the youth manifests itself and it is highly important that without any show of indecency or sense of shame, the true facts and purposes of this instinct should be taught mainly in the form of lessons in animal physiology. Interest can be easily developed in a comparative study of the principles of multiplication and checking influences in the organic world and the same in human society: the differences in human methods and those of nature; and the consequent effects on the efficiency of man: the discussion leading to a comprehensive study of the facts elaborated by Malthus in his Essay on the Principles of Population. A beginning may be made in the investigation of the problems of contemporary social science. In the latter stages of this third course, the young man ought to be given a complete training in the principles of human physiology, the relations of the sexes, their purpose and function in nature—the facts being studied in their biological setting and in their psychological values.

The final course includes the statistical and experimental methods of study in heredity; the investigation of the Spencerian principle of Individuation *versus* Genesis and its action on man; the slum problem involving drunkenness, infectious and contagious diseases, lunacy and so forth; mathematical tabulation of vital statistics and so forth. Institutions like Sanatoria, Asylums, etc., do not pretend to abolish the present social evils, though as a distant ideal they may be expected to disappear through eugenic practice, as otherwise they will gradually tend to sap the vigour of society. It is needless to point out

that woman is the most practical eugenicist and she must have the last word on the question of offspring. Her education in eugenics is far more easy than that of man and the future of mankind clearly depends on the extent to which she recognises the supreme sanctity and the divine character of motherhood.

It is a question indeed if the Indian schools in their present state of development are adapted to teach subjects, such as have been outlined in the foregoing paragraphs. That there is an imperious demand for knowledge in such subjects few will doubt; but all may not agree that they can be immediately taken in hand. The whole subject of "sex" is, as has been stated, surrounded by an amount of false prudery, and as a preliminary step towards its complete overthrow, we have to introduce sciences like Botany and Physiology in all our elementary schools, whose object ought to be to repudiate the low or animal nature of the racial instinct and to place it on the highest plane in the moral world. "Our business is rather to treat the great fact in a spirit worthy of the purpose for which it exists, and therefore as a part of that process of education by which we desire to make the reasonable, moral, and fully human beings; to teach explicitly without unworthy shame that this thing exists for the highest of purposes that nothing which the future holds for boy or girl can conceivably be higher or happier than worthy parenthood, however common place it may appear to common eyes, and that accordingly this instinct is to be guarded, treated, used, honoured as for parenthood, a fact which immediately raises it from the egotistic to the altruistic plane."

If these principles should be practised in the production of human beings, we should certainly have better human stuff to educate which is at best but a polishing process.

C. R. NARAYAN RAO.

"THE INDIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT—HOW HE IS HANDICAPPED."*

The Indian student of to-day is both physically and morally dwindling into a poor specimen of humanity.

Physically—We teachers daily see growing beneath our eyes not a vigorous bud of a blooming tree of robust promise, but a diseased and pale-looking flower withering in the stem. The universal spectacles on the nose, the hollows on the cheeks, the bottle of cordials in the coat-pocket, and the worn-out book in the hand—this is deplorably the order of the day. This is especially the case with students who happen to be the sons of English-educated officials.

Morally—the plight of the student is even more appalling. By day and by night, week in, week out, the boy grinds himself away:—for what? for getting a high percentage of marks—rather a higher percentage of marks than his mates. The baleful importance attached to marks ends by making a mark-hunter of the unfortunate boy. He works himself up into the belief that happiness is bound up with a high percentage of marks. His outlook on life is no broader—no higher than a mark-fringed horizon. The poor boy cannot help himself and his environments. He sees daily how largely the teacher's time and care are taken up with the routine of marking. He knows what part marks

* A paper read by Mr. T. S. Subramania Aiyar A.M., B.A., F.N.I., L.T. (of Native High School, Kumbakonam) at a meeting of the Tanjore District Teachers' Association, held recently at Mayavaram.

play in admissions into the college or into the Taluka office. Seeing all these daily, his outlook on life becomes narrowed. There is nothing in his environment to suggest to him that life has nothing to do with marks. He is not made to realise that, to be happy in himself and to be a useful member of society, he must cultivate qualities of mental as well as physical endurance which would enable him to stem the tide of calamities and ride on the crest of surging and boiling waves of troubles. There is nothing to teach him all this, and of course no opportunity to cultivate these qualities. It is no wonder then that the boy is stunted morally as much as physically. What is at fault? What is responsible for this state of affairs? It is the flesh-wearying and spirit-killing method of education in the S. S. L. C. Scheme.

We shall now proceed to examine the organization of school work under the auspices of the S. S. L. C. Scheme.

The scheme has been on its trial for the past five years and from this experience it may be safely said that, if the authorities had in view the single purpose of stunting the physical growth and dwarfing the mental and the moral development of students, while at the same time introducing the thumb screw and the iron boot to torture the poor teacher with, their design could not have been better executed. The evils that have been evolved out of the S. S. L. C. system may be briefly summarised as follows:—

- (1) Too early specialisation and the incidental professorial system.
- (2) The entire school education being dominated by the system of almost daily award of marks.
- (3) The thrusting to the back-ground those subjects of study which correspond to the "modern" or "practical" side of school instruction, while however bringing them more and more under the control of the School Inspector.

- (4) Absence of opportunities for the development of those qualities of moral and physical toughness and endurance which really do matter in life.

To consider these in detail :—

- (1) Too early specialization and the incidental professorial system :

It is obvious, gentlemen, that the only fit place for specialization is the Technological and Professional Institutes, and this principle is kept in view with regard to some of the professions. For example, the would-be teacher is not compelled to specialise in teaching when he is going through the Arts Colleges, and, *a fortiori*, through his High School. The would-be lawyer is not compelled to go through courses of Lectures in Law or Forensic practice while he is working his way up through his Arts College or High School. Similar is the case with Medicine. If the principle underlying this practice be admitted to be sound in the case of elderly boys, why discard it and violate it in the case of boys in their early teens ?

You may ask, gentlemen, is the degree of specialization that is expected by the S. S. L. C. Scheme so sharp as all this ? I only ask you, in return, to look into a few of the Elementary Mathematics question papers set for the public examination. As was so felicitously described by Mr. N. P. Krishnaswami Aiyer in this same place last year, the S.S.L.C. student is mistaken for a student of a Technical Institute. For example, the question on the crane presumed a thorough knowledge of Marine Engineering. That on the bottle with the broken neck involved difficult principles of Solid Geometry and similar triangles. Such instances might be multiplied. The usual excuse for this top-heavy system is that considerable choice is allowed. What is the good of this choice ? If the choice were offered among a number of questions within reach of the capacity of the ordinary youngster of sixteen of general attainments—not a specialist

in any branch of Engineering Mathematics—if choice were offered among a set of questions of general Mathematics—to coin a new expression—there is some meaning in the plea. If, on the other hand, not a few of the questions should be the top questions of the various branches of mathematics, what is the course open to the poor student and the more pitiable teacher, in the face of this seeming choice which is no choice—a Hobson's choice, as it were ?

The teacher must himself specialize in each branch. Well, since he is there, and paid to do it, he must do it—else let him go. Well Sir, your servant ! But what about the scholars under him ? Why, they must also specialize. But since it is an A group subject and, as such, each school boy—whether a would-be Engineer or a would-be Lawyer or a would-be Ticket-collector or a would-be Typist and Short-hand reporter—has to go through the course, how is this business of specialization to be gone through with such materials of varying capacities and ambitions ? But suppose it has to be, what would be the amount of time and labour spent over the business ? Look at the new and technical terminology that would have to be laboured through. For example, look at the amount of preliminary preparation that will have to be gone through if a fifteen year old scholar of average capacity has to be enabled just to *understand*, the mere wording of the crane question ! Let us next turn our attention to one other branch of Elementary Mathematics which, together with the geometrical portion, as is borne out by an analysis of the public examination papers of the last five years, has been allowed to take up not less than one-third of the total number of questions including the privilege of choice. I mean—the Graphs. I ask—Why are graphs necessary at all for a S. S. L. C. student ? The High School students may be roughly divided into two types of scholars—first, and the more numerous one, the Ticket-

collector and the Taluka Gamasta type ; second, the less numerous one, the Master Engineer and the Executive Council Member type. For the benefit of which of these two types is this graph burden on the school curriculum meant ? For neither. For the would-be Short-hand typist or Ticket-collector, it is obviously useless, and for the scholars of the second type, this early burden is unnecessary, for if they ever should want the use of the graph, they can command it by a few hours' study and attention. Thus for the sake of a branch which is either useless or unnecessary, one-half of the Mathematics master's time and energy, and more than this proportion of the scholar's, are sought to be taken up. To the possible argument that the Graph and the Practical Geometry may have as much use as the other branches of Elementary Mathematics, I have only to say this—that that argument involves a mistaken notion of the aim of High School instruction. The High School is not a technological institute. Its business is not to turn out Engineers and Statesmen, but to rake up and stimulate the tender intelligence of boys. Now, the Graph and the Practical Geometry are not the best means of training the intelligence of boys. I have seen with my own eyes a peon on Rs. 7 a month using the graphical methods—*e.g.*, in setting down the results of a self-recording weather instrument—with marvellous accuracy. With regard to Practical Geometry, students who were poor at Mathematics and in general intelligence pass the Practical Geometry Examinations of the Government. All that is wanted is a little practice—and a somewhat blind practice at that. But if you would include these for the sake of their *practical* value, you may as well include courses on Cookery, for one can not imagine an accomplishment of a greater practical value than cookery.

While the student is thus faring under the distracted Elementary Mathematics teacher, another A group subject teacher, the English

teacher, generally the more powerful of the two steps in to claim his portion—which by the way constitutes the lion's share—of the victim. A sort of organized cruelty is practised by this English teacher. A class of 40 boys is divided into five jurisdictions, and the first five advanced English boys are told off as monitors—one for each group. The duty of this group monitor is to collect everyday the round of summaries from the boys of his group, and pile them upon the table for the teacher's subsequent manipulation ; and woe betide the unfortunate boy who may have failed to bring up that day's quota of summary. Lo ! the boy trembles for his marks. Neither the boy nor the teacher is to be blamed for this system of summary writing—it is the second paper in English that is.

We thus see that between the Elementary Mathematics teacher on the one side and the summary exacting English teacher on the other, the unfortunate boy is as it were torn to shreds—both body and soul. But does his tale of misery end here ? No ! the O group subject teacher must have his own share of the victim. Out of a possible six periods of daily school work, two are taken up by the English teacher, and one by the Elementary Mathematics teacher. The teacher of O group subjects—the pre-eminent subjects of specialization—will not be content with less than two periods out of the remaining three. But though numerically he may have two periods in which to operate upon the boy, he is not satisfied, because, when the victim is allowed to creep out of the hands of the English and the Elementary Mathematics teachers, he is much too exhausted to be successfully plied by either the Physics or the Special Mathematics teacher in the one case, and the English History teacher in the other. About the O group subjects syllabuses, gentlemen, things are said which make one's flesh creep. About all the syllabuses jointly and severally, the almost unanimous opinion, confirmed by the

trend of questions in the public examinations, is that these have been framed upon the assumption that boys for whom they are meant are of mature intellect, and have only to do with a single subject of study for the whole year. This faulty appreciation of the situation and this lack of a due sense of proportion, are inevitable in the present nature of the composition of the bodies of syllabus-drafters and chief examiners—composed mainly as they are of men who have no direct experience of teaching at all, at all events of Secondary School teaching.

So much with regard to too early specialisation and the incidental professorial system.

(2) We next come to the evils of the marking system.

Gentlemen, you may ask, if the evils of specialisation are really so markedly rampant, why should the teacher not avoid them or at least mitigate them? In other words, why should the teacher not cease the grinding process in his individual subject? The answer is—This is not to be expected from the present school-work organisation where the whole system of school instruction is dominated by the marking system. To what degree the teacher is a slave to the marking system, will be evident from the following. Just towards the closing week of May in each year, when the school average, the Presidency average, etc., are about to be published, the teacher's mind will be in a tremulous state of expectancy. The day of doom breaks upon the feverish teacher-world, ushering in triumph and glory to the happy teacher whose particular subject has secured for his school an average higher than the Presidency average. If, in addition to this, his school average in his subject happens to exceed that of the sister schools in or about his locality, the happy teacher's cup of joy and glowing triumph overflows. This is a day worth living for—nay, worth dying for—and, but is more, worth all the murders that are guilty of, for, in 99 cases out of a 100,

this triumph would have been purchased at the cost of the boys' physical growth, and mental and moral development, by the unconscionable setting in motion of all those terrible engines of refined cruelty and oppression which are so ready at hand to the teacher. The current year's success for this particular teacher is ample justification for not slackening the speed of his engines and his mills. What about the unsuccessful teacher with a low school average in his subject? Goaded to desperation by the inevitable comparison and contrast between the averages of both kinds—the inter-school averages in the neighbourhood and the Presidency on the one hand, and the inter-subject averages in his own school on the other—thus goaded to desperation, the unhappy teacher sets about his new year's work with a grim determination to capture the flag of glory from the other schools of the Presidency or the neighbourhood and from the other teachers of his own school, in the coming year. Thus between the happy teacher who would not be so unwise as to slacken his efforts, and the unhappy teacher who has just now learned wisdom from experience, the poor school-boy is ruthlessly ground down to a shapeless pulp. The questionable virtue that the marking system may possess of affording an efficient stimulus for work both to the teacher and the taught, is drowned in the bottomless misery and wretchedness to which the poor victim student is condemned.

(3) We next turn to the third of the main evils—viz., the neglect of the "practical" or "modern" side of school instruction.

Judged solely from the standpoint of efficiency, the A group and the C group subjects, which alone are made to appear in the arena of public contest, are about the best taught subjects in schools. In your humble servant's humble opinion, it is the B group subjects that are more important than the other subjects. Clear your mind of all cant, free it from the oppressive

sense of the wants and demands of the immediate present; coolly consider the ultimate destiny of the student—both as an individual and as a unit of society; you will then concede that it is the B group subjects that would ultimately matter to him in life. They may be roughly divided into two groups:

(a) Drawing and Indian History.

(b) Geography and Elementary Science.

The cultivation of the first group of subjects, viz., Drawing and Indian History, is inseparably connected with the development of the moral side of the student's life. If ever a student is to be called upon in future to obey the call of duty, or of truth, or of country, it is the assimilation of the modes of life lived and sacrifices made by a Rama, a Dharmaputra, a Harischandra or a Gokhale—it is the unconscious assimilation of the lives lived by these deathless heroes of the past and the present, that will bear aloft the would-be man on wings of fire to the giddy heights of self-sacrifice. So much for Indian History. What about Drawing in relation to the would-be man? Enough if I say in this connection "A thing of Beauty is a joy for ever."

The second group is composed of Geography and Elementary Science. To convince you that the cultivation of these two subjects will have a large influence on the practical life of the would-be man, I need say no more than that this is Germany's view, and in things of practical efficiency in life, Germany is yet to be surpassed.

Now, important as are the B group subjects, the School Final System has pushed them to the background, and the cue has been taken up by the framers of the School Time Table. 10 out of the 30 periods in the school work, are taken up by English; 4 by Elementary Mathematics and 1 by Vernacular Translation and Composition, which by the way, is generally accorded only a step-motherly treatment in schools. Thus A group subjects take up no less than one-half of the

school-time, and, on account of the summary writing in English and the Graph and the Practical Geometry in Elementary Mathematics, more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the available time at home. Of the remaining 15 periods of school time, 8 are allowed for the two C group subjects and thus only 7 periods—less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the school time—is allowed for the four B group subjects; and if you remember that even these 7 periods are permitted only in the far-end of the day, you can conceive how these subjects are treated in schools. As for off-time at home, the B group subjects, are not so much as even thought of, because, as shown a little while ago, more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of the home time being absorbed by the A group subjects, and the remaining quarter being justly claimed by the C group subjects, no time, and less than no inclination, are all that is left for the B group subjects.

(4) Lastly we come to the remaining topic—which is fourth in my list, but really foremost in importance, viz., absence of opportunities for the development of those qualities of physical and moral toughness and endurance which really do matter in life.

For a lesson in this connection, we have to turn our eyes—not to Germany, the land of efficiency but forced growth and artificial hot-house nurture, not to America, the land of dollars, but to that tiny speck of land nestling in the ocean-rocked cradle of the North Sea, in its majestic isolation—the land of Liberty and freedom and voluntary growth—the land that has produced a Hardinge and a Joseph Andrews, a Hume and a Wedderburn. England is the land of sports and is, therefore, the land of justice-loving and fair fighting sportsmen. The Generals that fight the wars, and the Statesmen that rule the outskirts of the British Empire—they are not in all cases men of University distinctions. Captains of Industry and Managers of big concerns and Governors of the outlandish provinces with their perplexing colour and economic

problems—these are not the prize-winners in the University examinations. It does not mean that they had nothing to do with schools or university colleges. They had a great deal to do with them—a great deal to do, not with the intellectual and literary side of schools and colleges, but with their athletic and generally non-literary side. While at school or college, their lives had been mostly taken up with sports and games, cricket and foot-ball and boat rowing. The free and open air life enjoyed in these athletic pursuits makes wiry and disease-resisting men of the students, in itself a great asset, and the foundation of all future happiness in life. The hurly-burly of the foot-ball play, the rushing and the charging and the tumbling and the shaking that are inevitable in the field, are admirable correctives to tender skins, and a necessary equipment for those who would push themselves to the forefront in the ranks in future life. Again, a reverse sustained in a foot-ball or cricket match, or a boating competition, will only stimulate the defeated party to fresh efforts in a chastened spirit, and will inculcate in them that calm courage and fortitude in the hour of trial, which alone would make of them enterprising captains and leaders of men on the fields of battle in times of war, and in the fields of commercial exploitation in the piping times of peace. Over and above all these, the inter-school sports and boating competitions rouse in the competitors an *esprit de corps*—a sense of communal feeling—for the sake of which they are prepared to risk any amount of danger to life and limb. Thus, for the sake of a common cause, they are taught to sacrifice a great deal, to the limit of their very lives; and this lesson in self-sacrifice, voluntarily learned through the stimulating and interesting medium of sports, prepares them against the hour of sterner calls to duty.

It is in the light of these broad and liberal principles, that general work in schools and

colleges has been organised in England. It is recognised by the Educational Authorities in England that it is the business of schools and colleges more to develop the physical and moral virtues, than pump instruction and information into the minds of boys; for, as is borne out by actual facts in experience, those that form the cream of the nation are not those who were famous for their bookish knowledge in their school and college days, but those who have since discovered conspicuous traits of courage and enduring enterprise and such other extra-school qualities of leadership. And it is sports and open-air games that are pre-eminently suited as nurseries and seed-beds for the cultivation of these qualities of body and mind. It is only the other day that Dr. Shipley of the Cambridge University addressed a letter to the *Times*, describing how the entire crew of an English vessel told off for the most hazardous undertaking in the Navy now in the English Channel, is composed of the boating team of a particular college in Cambridge. This is of special significance in this connection, when we are considering the importance of school sports both as a national asset and an individual equipment.

Now, gentlemen, let us turn our eyes to Madras and see what position has been accorded by the S. S. L. C. system to this all important branch of school life. Gentlemen, we are now about to open the famous chapter on "Snakes in Iceland," because the S. S. L. C. system has bestowed no serious thought upon this aspect of school life. There is perhaps a grim logic in this serious omission, because the courses of study prescribed and the syllabuses published are expected to leave no time for anything other than bookishness. You may ask why should not a boy spend the off-time in sports, after the class is dismissed on a school day, and on non-working days? The answer is, on working days the boy emerges from beneath the dissecting knife and the grinding mill of the teacher much too spent

and prostrated even for games and sports; and, summaries, graphs and practical geometry fairly engage his holidays.

Having, up till now, been engaged in pointing out the main defects of the system, I may legitimately be expected to suggest the lines of reform. Let me begin by saying that the main aim to be kept in view is to diminish the number of school hours and relieve the pressure of the subjects, and enable the boy now bending beneath the burden of these two evils, to look up again with a smile on his lips.

The crying evil, barring the tyranny of the marking system which is detrimental to the efficiency of the teacher as much as to the moral development of boys—barring the marking system, the crying evil of the hour is the predominance assigned to English in the prescribed course of studies, and consequently in the school time table. The undue importance attached to English is due, like the top-heavy syllabuses in other subjects, to the want of a due sense of proportion and a misapprehension of the part that English is to play in the future life of about 90% of boys. English, like the other branches of study, may be considered in two different aspects: (i) cultivable as an end in itself, and (ii) as a means to some other useful ends. In regard to the first aspect, it is worth remembering that, in the first place only a very small and negligible fraction of school boys will be interested in English for the sake of English, and, in the second place, the proper province of the High school is only to give a sort of general education, and prepare the ground, as it were, for subsequently being operated upon by the specialist; and to anticipate the specialist's work by quite a number of years, is a highly questionable practice, as it will hamper and endanger the free development of the immature understanding of boys in their early teens along lines of least resistance and greatest individual aptitude. Any

way, it will be conceded that it is unwise to attempt producing a too early literary bias in a young boy whose psychical powers are just beginning to unfold, and thereby make a thorough failure of him in practical life. So much with regard to the first aspect of English—as an end in itself.

Going next to the second, viz., English as a means to an end, it is really this aspect in which the Indian boy is interested. English is to him pre-eminently the means of acquiring knowledge. If any other equally effective means, but which would entail nothing like the same amount of strain, could be discovered, then the S. S. L. C. curriculum could, by this alone, be relieved of half its pressure and robbed of half its evil. An effective solution in this direction would be the rapid multiplication of text-books in the vernaculars, which would be an accomplished thing if some encouragement be shown to such productions. Thus, the means of accomplishing our object lies almost at our door. But this proposal is in the nature of a revolution, and is sure to provoke a great deal of opposition both from well meaning and interested quarters, including writers of English books, both here and in England. An influential deputation might even wait upon the Secretary of State for India, urging upon his attention the essentially seditious aspect of the Vernacular movement! There may be opposition nearer home—even from parents who may raise a hue and cry against this attempted blow at the prestige of High school instruction, which dares to substitute a vernacular in the place of English. Perhaps, the stage of transition may even be painful to the teacher who, accustomed to handling English text-books for a number of years both as student and as teacher, suddenly wakes upon an array of vernacular text-books on a particular morning. Over and above all these, the hand of educational progress may even be set back by a few years

All this means real sacrifice, but a great cause has never prospered without proportionately great sacrifices. All that we have to ask ourselves is whether the advantages to be secured will outweigh the sacrifices to be made. I leave the answer to your judgment. So much for instruction through vernaculars. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that it is deemed expedient to retain English as the means of communication of knowledge. Even then it will be amply sufficient to bestow only half of the attention that is now lavished on it. If we resolutely keep in view the fact that the High school is not the place for specialization in advanced science or mathematics, or advanced political or economic history, or advanced English literature, we can readily understand how we can manage to do with not more than half of the English work that is now wastefully indulged in. And this view will also be justified by the requirements of boys in their future life. About 70 per cent. of the High school boys are destined for occupations in the lower ranks of services—are doomed to serve their time as Taluka gumastas or Vakil gumastas or Railway employees or Shorthand typists. These require no high degree of cultivation in English. What is known as "Railway English" is all that they require. Of the remaining 30%, about 5%, are destined for the lower ranks of such technical occupations as those of the overseer, the sub-overseer, the draftsman, the turner or the fitter or the oil-engine driver. In the case of these, a serviceable hand-and-eye would be infinitely more useful than an English-crammed brain. Of the remaining 25%, about 10%, would be men of the fortune-favoured variety—men of learned leisure,—men who need have in view no particular occupation in life while at school or college. We need not prescribe for the special benefit of this special class of men. 85% having been disposed of, 15% still remain on our hands. But fortunately for us, these are

people who do not look for much positive help and guidance from us. These constitute the intellectual aristocrats, who will, in their time, rise, like the cream in milk, to the top of society. These are people who can easily acquire and master whatever they have a turn for, and they can do this without, and in spite of, the nursing and the doctoring devised by the S. S. L. O. System. In the case of these, all we have to do is to adopt a passive, a negative attitude. They have to be protected from baneful and contaminating influences and temptations which, being youngsters, they may not themselves appreciate, or, appreciating, may not command sufficient strength of mind to resist. But otherwise, they have to be left to themselves. Then you may depend upon their developing along lines most congenial to their natural endowment. The moment that you presume to prescribe positively for them, you do them an injury, and you do society a greater injury. In the case of such men, who can very easily acquire what they have an aptitude for, the S. S. L. O. System may double its English programme or halve it or quarter it, and these men will appreciably be none the better or none the worse for it. Thus if, with 85% of the school boys, the present laborious course in English is unnecessary, and with the remaining 15%, it is unavailing, why not reduce the burden in view of its disproportionately great evils? This proposal, if carried out would liberate about 5 periods from the school time-table.

Next turn to Elementary Mathematics. The time allowed for it is four periods, and this is not much. But considerable relief can be given to the boy and to the teacher by taking a more rational view of the subject. This is pre-eminently the subject intended to cultivate the reasoning powers of the student. If, incidentally, it has to presume upon a certain amount of practical knowledge, this latter is not to be

regarded as an end in itself, but merely as raw-material for the reasoning powers to work upon. Remember that the aim of High School Mathematics is not to turn out workshop hands or mechanical or marine engineers or land-surveyors, who may require practical geometry and mechanical mensuration of the technical kind, or statisticians and meteorologists and Life-insurance Actuaries who may require graphs. But your aim as High school teacher is to prepare the intellects of boys fit to receive, if need be, these or similar courses of instructions in corresponding technical institutes specially provided for the purpose. In a word, your aim is not to turn out finished products, but to prepare the ground for receiving any special finish that may be required, later on, in the particular occupation that the student may elect. Your High school is not a technical institute, but a sort of preparatory school of the higher type. If you take this view of it, you will easily find your way to considerably easing Elementary Mathematics of the latest accretions in the shape of the crane and the frustum of the cone, and the graph.

Going next to the C group subjects, with regard to Algebra and Geometry, the syllabus is indeed ambitious, but the questions set at the public examinations appear to be innocuous, though guilty of errors of omission and commission; and it may be left as it is, though the nature of the syllabus allows of the subjects being unwisely handled in the examinations; especially when the chief examiners happen to be men having no experience of High School Mathematics.

With regard to Physics, as I have already said, there is enough to make the Physics teacher turn crazy. No better is the English History syllabus. In regard to these subjects the curriculum may be made to revert to the *status quo ante*—to what it was in the good old days of the University, and then a reduction in the number of the periods will be possible, and the result would be a sense of

great relief to the High school teacher and an act of great mercy to the deserving student population. These proposals, if carried out, would release a great deal of time and energy, and would thereby both indirectly and directly lead to a greater amount of attention being given to the B group subjects on the one hand and the cultivation of vernaculars on the other. And what is more, the student will then come to have some stomach for field sports, and thus the High school student will receive a sort of all-round development. Over and above all these, the mischievous marking system—mischievous in more ways than one to both the teacher and the taught, as a source of moral degradation and mental enervation,—this doubly mischievous marking system must be swept away. The system breeds hypocrisy in the teacher and the learner. It was only the other day that a promising teacher of three years' experience, who was an old student of mine, resigned his post in sheer disgust of the marking system (and all the degradation and the enervation that it entails. If for nothing else, at least to retain promising teachers in their posts, this wretched system had best be wiped off, as education, which is none too crammed with men of promise, cannot afford to be deprived of the few that are.

To sum up, gentlemen, the present evils of the S. S. L. C system which handicap the student in every direction of development—intellectual, physical and moral—these evils may be traced to two sources:

(1) The officialization of the system which has resulted in swamping at the helm of affairs, inexperienced officials, and generally men out of touch and therefore out of sympathy (in the largest sense of the term), with the requirements of the students—men who are half-learned faddists and specialists in their particular lines, and therefore cannot grasp the entire requirements of the student world from a *comprehensive stand-*

point—men who, being a sort of monomaniacs in their several lines, have come to look upon the High school students as being wholly meant to be ground in their particular mills for particular professions and callings in life.

(2) The marking system, which has been devised as an efficient weapon—which in all conscience it is—wherewith the teacher is to enforce the ill-conceived mandates of the S.S.L.C. authorities, thereby grinding the students under him into half-developed creatures, mentally and morally dwarfed and physically stunted. And it is no consolation to the on-lookers that the teacher handling this weapon as much wears himself, *immediately* into disgust with his work, and *mediately* into a premature grave.

Associate large-minded and broad-minded men of capacity and High school experience, with the working of the S. S. L. C. system, the mischiefs of specialization will first vanish, the conception of High school work will return to the normal, the refinedly cruel system of marking will be swept away, and the student will develop all round and be really fitted for whatever may await him beyond the school, and the teacher himself will come to have a real liking for his work, and will be proud in the consciousness that he is playing an important part in an intelligent scheme of education.

A PLEA FOR MAKING VERNACULARS THE MEDIA OF INSTRUCTION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *

Mr. President and Gentlemen,

The wording of the subject is *a plea for making vernaculars the media of instruction in Secondary Schools*. Things have come to such a pass, we have become so much accustomed to a peculiar system quite unnatural and unknown and perhaps felt ridiculous in other parts of the world and many among ourselves are so much afraid of the supposed consequences of any change for good or bad, that instead of asserting *our right* to learn and to converse in our mother-tongue, I have to bring in a *plea for it*—a justification, as it were, of what, I am sorry to note, is supposed to be an impossible or dangerous step, in some quarters.

On the other hand a plea for *talking in English* on this subject would be more 'appropriate'. I ought to bring in an excuse for doing so. The fault is not entirely mine. It mainly rests on the system of education given to me by my elders. It is, however, my sincere wish, gentlemen, that I should soon be able to express myself more clearly to a greater body of my countrymen in the vernacular, in the language of our countrymen, in the language of our social world, in the language of our parents, brothers and sisters.

Coming to the subject itself its importance cannot be over-estimated. It is a question affecting the future of India in all her various activities towards her goal as an enlightened nation of the world.

The real worth of a nation depends upon the nature of instruction imparted to its young children in Secondary schools. A glance at the curricula of studies there is enough to reveal to

* A paper read before the Trichinopoly District Teachers' Association recently, by Mr. T. G. Ananthachariar, M.A., L. T.

us the true aims and aspirations of the people, the national, economic, commercial and social possibilities and probabilities of the future. It is this secondary education which should direct the genius and special aptitude of the majority of the individuals towards the right direction and through the spread of mass education enable the country to satisfy all her practical needs. That is why the secondary education ought to be and has actually been seriously engaging the attention of all citizens and governments of all countries.

The aim of this secondary education, gentlemen, is really two-fold—*firstly*, to give the country its leaders in industry and commerce, to create the enterprising middle class which forms the equalising and harmonious element in the population; *secondly*, to prepare the favoured few for the higher University education, to create national ideals, to perpetuate the national greatness and tradition and to give the right mould to the general culture and civilisation best suited to the genius of the race and the particular needs of the hour.

Neither of these objects is properly attained under the present system of secondary education. It is neither adequate to the industrial, commercial, and economical needs of the country nor productive of young scholars ready to promote national ideals, national interests and national aspirations—after their University course.

The famous Educational Despatch of 1854 puts the real object in so many high sounding words. It stated "the present movement has for its object the carrying out of one of our most sacred duties to be the means, as far as in us lies, of conferring on the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the diffusion of useful knowledge." But, gentlemen, it is a matter of regret to note how scantily the noble purpose set forth has been achieved and how inadequate the present system of edu-

cation is in the matter of diffusion of useful knowledge and the conferring of moral and material blessings upon the Indian nation at large.

What Mr. Arthur Griffith thundered with so much eloquence on the question of national education for Ireland, appropriately applies, *mutatis mutandis*, to the condition of secondary education in India. He said, 'such an educational system has been modelled and forced upon the people of Ireland as is designed to make them oblivious of their rights as men and their duties as citizens of their State. The language of Ireland, the history of Ireland, the rights of Ireland, the economics of Ireland, therefore, have found no place in the curricula of studies. The pupil is not taught, unlike elsewhere, to look upon the world from his own country and thro' his own eyes. The prevalent system has taught him that he has no country of his own and therefore no national standard of comparison and value. He is forced to accept, instead, the standard of England.' To these words of his we may further add that the University education as now being imparted to our young friends coming out of Secondary schools is usually regarded as a means of washing away the original sin of Indian birth. It cuts off the Indian student from his tradition, from his national ideals, from his language and from his society. The result is the same on the economic and commercial aspect of the question. The showy curriculum of the much longed for technical education reserved to the less fortunate and less intelligent class of School Final students very rarely reaches its mark. Instead of flooding the country with industrial and commercial leaders of the masses, instead of creating an active enterprising wealthy middle class, this system draws away from industrial and agricultural pursuits those who are best fitted for them and sends them out 'to swell the ranks of struggling clerkdom.'

Where lies the fault? Surely in the denationalising system of education in the country. A system that was originally introduced to manufacture men to serve the State has decidedly proved to be insufficient to prepare the whole nation or a major portion of it for the battle of life. It has, no doubt, gentlemen, produced individual geniuses like a Madhava Row, a Mathaswami Iyer, Seshadri Iyer and other luminaries of the first magnitude, but has signally failed to have its beneficial effects upon the nation at large—upon the masses of the people.

Where is then the remedy? Of course in the wise substitution of a national system holding out to the masses, great facilities for commercial, industrial, and agricultural education suited to the country's requirements and popularising knowledge by carrying it home to our workmen, women and children, *thru' the medium of vernacular.*

As a leading journalist pertinently remarked the other day, India is unique in this—that she and she alone among the nations of the earth has been made to teach her children in a foreign tongue.

Her children in their mother's laps should be taught to lisp in the language of Shakespeare, Milton and Pope. In the primary classes, just at a time when they have learnt how to pronounce the words of the mother-tongue well, they are put to the drilling of English words and pronunciation. In the higher classes, there is the whip of the teacher ready for use if a student carelessly falls into the error of talking to his fellow students in the language of his country. That is the direct method of teaching English; but it is at the same time, gentlemen, killing the vernacular in its infancy.

Well has Mr. C. V. Swaminatha Iyer of the *Viveka Chintamani* fame remarked, 'the English educated man is required even to think in English. Poor soul, he could not do his thinking

in his vernacular, thanks to the system of school education that begins to drill his mind and mould his thought in a foreign language before he has learnt to think in his own vernacular.'

The study of sociology, of late as a definite science has opened up men's minds to the real nature and organic growth of the social root ideas and social institutions. Any attempt to root out the vernacular of the country and to import the exotic tongue of the West will merely end in wild goose-chase. It will amount to ignoring facts of history—losing sight of the lessons of historical and social sciences. The history of the linguistic growth has proved its futility beyond all doubt.

What can be a more monumental example than the Norman Conquest of England. A higher civilisation was there forced upon an inferior one. The rushing tide of Norman language, literature and institutions swept the whole of England. The Anglo-Saxon of the time had not a solid tradition yet, his language was in its infancy, his literature was in its embryo. He was kept down in the lowest rung of social ladder and his tongue was despised as the vulgar speech. Despite such favourable situations, the Norman tongue failed to keep its hold, was gradually ousted from the land, and the language of the majority slowly asserted itself with redoubled vigour. A slow process of modification, a slow process of adaptability and assimilation, a final consolidation and nationalisation of the Anglo-Saxon race and language was the only result. The foreign influences have remained only as irrigating rills serving to fertilise the native soil—no more than that. The root matter is Anglo-Saxon.

In the case of India, the predication is easier and surer. India has had a hoary past. She has long tradition, she has social solidarity. She has highly developed literary tongues sufficient enough to express all shades of thought and all modes of feeling. She remains and will always

continue to remain only as a place of short sojourn for the Europeans. Now how can we, Sirs, ever imagine a time of complete social and linguistic conquest of India with a mighty population of 300 and odd millions? How can the whole people be made to think in English? How can they be made to leave out of their everyday vocabulary all the terms connected with the surrounding fauna and flora, with their religion, science and philosophy and rewrite their literature in English, inventing new names even for their கட்டாமணக்கு and புடவக்காய்—new names such as snake gourd, lady's finger, etc. (which by the way, are really very happy and suggestive expressions to think of when eating the things they denote)?

As social sciences point out, English life, English society, English ways of thinking cannot be imported wholesale into India. All social reforms, all social improvements, all institutional changes must grow out of the old ones. We can but prune the growth. As Professor M. Rengacharya observes, the dream that any European nation would become the universal rulers is a passing one and the dream that any European language would become the universal language is already long past before the dawn of social science. It is only vernacular that can diffuse knowledge into every part of the country among all classes of people; it is only vernacular that can readily convey to the meanest and the most conservative an exact and adequate expression of the needs of the society; it is only the vernacular which can reconcile the educated few and the uneducated majority, which can bridge over the wide gulf that at present separates the English educated Indians and their ignorant brethren at large.

That there is such a gulf wide and deep nobody can deny. It is due to the inability of the educated men to go down to the level of the masses and make themselves known to them and also to the inability of the greater number of our

brethren to understand the views and aspirations of the learned few. Ours has become unproductive work; it is no national capital. The repeated promises of our young friends at each Convocation to better the social, moral and material prosperity have always been honoured with our consistent breach of them. We have become the mutes of our mother-tongue and are arrogantly insolent in our behaviour in the eyes of our countrymen.

To try to educate our workmen, women and children over 300 millions in a foreign tongue is a fool-hardy unprecedented, unsociological and unpsychological madness. In spite of a century of Western education in India, we have been able to manufacture only a million English-knowing Indians. Great and far-seeing men like Charles Wood (1854) and Monier Williams and a host of others regretfully thought that a real mistake had been committed with regard to the vernaculars in the established scheme of English education.

Now there may arise the question in our minds: English is the progressive and up-to-date literary language. The best of science, history and all other branches of knowledge lie imbedded in it. But our vernaculars are not up-to-date and up to the mark: literature is scanty; there lies the further difficulty of creating scientific and technical vocabulary in the language. Where is the go? True, gentlemen, there is no demand for vernacular literature because there is no up-to-date literature which can convey all knowledge contained in foreign languages. It is also equally true that there is no up-to-date modern vernacular literature because there is no demand for it. The case, at first sight, seems to be akin to that of a mad man who could recover his senses immediately after his marriage but could be married only immediately after recovering his senses. But the solution of the present difficulty is simpler. Necessity is the mother of invention. As the renowned parent of

the Hindu University Scheme, Madan Mohan Malaviya, also is of opinion, make the vernaculars the media of instruction and in twelve months you will have an ocean of vernacular literature flooding the country every nook and corner, wafting all the treasures of the whole world. There are already a considerable number of standard books. This is the sanguine opinion of most modern educationists and statesmen like the Hon. Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer, Sir S. Subramania Iyer, Justice T. V. Seshagiri Iyer and Mrs. Besant, etc.

It is not my intention, gentlemen, to talk disparagingly of the English language. With due deference to the manifold advantages it has conferred upon us Indians, I have to point out that the present scheme of Secondary education requires modification. It does not tend to the spread of knowledge among the masses. Vernaculars should be made the media of instruction, should be made primary languages, while English should be kept as secondary but compulsory language.

Now then the immediate work of the educated few in the higher intellectual grade will be to gather honey from the different, out of the way, thorny shrubs and store it up in easily accessible honeycomb of vernacular literature quite palatable to the majority of the people.

A short time ago, the Hon. Mr. Rama Rayingar introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council a Bill for the adoption of vernaculars as media of instruction in Secondary schools keeping English as a compulsory but secondary language. A few of the members including Dadabhai and Bannerji opposed the Bill on the ground that the adoption of it would cut higher English education at its root. Their line of argument seems to have been this:—English is now taught as the principle subject; history and science and arithmetic are taught in English, and yet English remains a bother in higher education. Such being the

case, if English is confined to the oblivious corner of the B. Group subjects and given only one period a day, higher education is bound to fail. The source of all modern thought and civilisation would be a sealed book to the Indians. But is there no remedy, gentlemen, no hope of salvation? We have only to stretch our imagination a little further and see what an amount of time and labour can be saved by the study of history, arithmetic, geography and science in the mother-tongue and how easily and profitably too we may be enabled to devote the time and energy thus saved towards the acquisition of a workable knowledge of English.

Again, can we not make vernacular medium of instruction of all branches of knowledge found in foreign language? Have not the Japanese succeeded with their own in their schools and colleges? Have not the Polish succeeded? Have not the Hungarians succeeded? Has not every other nation worthy of its name succeeded? Why not we then, gentlemen, succeed? The best means of getting out of this difficulty seems to be to approach the Government in season and out of season with our earnest prayers to grant us Vernacular Universities—a Tamil University, an Andhra University, a Malayalam University, a Bengali University and so on, where all departments of knowledge can be imparted to students in their respective vernaculars and English is kept up as a compulsory language.

If we desire to create common interests between the cultured and the masses, if we want to bridge the gulf now dividing the learned few and the ignorant majority, if we want to make education cheap, useful, practical, widespread and national, and finally if we desire to stand on a par, on a footing of economical and political equality with the other parts of the British Empire, this ideal of the Vernacular University should be ever present before our mind. The vision should be floating before our imagination

and we should exert our utmost to give it a material shape in the near future under the guiding patronage of the benign British Government. And the right start towards that goal is from the vernacularisation of our Secondary education.

One more word, Sirs, and I have had my say. Many of the audience here are probably confronted in their minds with this question. These are days of nationality and national unification is the political ideal of the Indians. Why then do you want to divide the country into so many vernacular jurisdictions and thus draw clear demarcation of interests and aspirations? True; but there is virtue in division of labour, in the efficiency of parts and in the economy of undertaking. If each part or linguistic unit takes care of the intellectual, commercial and technical education of its members and is self-sufficient and perfect in itself we may easily conceive of the possibility and the probability—nay, the inevitable necessity of making a perfect whole. Then at such a stage, such questions as that of a common indigenous *lingua franca* as the Hindi, for instance, which was the special hobby of great men like the late Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer are not difficult of solution and adoption.

But it will surely take a long time to educate the people in the respective vernaculars and then to instil in them the idea of nationality; but I may tell you that it will take inconceivably longer time and will almost prove an impossible task to educate the masses thro' the medium of the English which can for various reasons pointed out, never become even the *lingua franca* of India. It can never become Indian vernacular. So let us pitch upon the less of two evils. I may once more assure you, gentlemen, that the vernacularisation of education, the nationalisation of Indians and the continuation of British sovereignty are not at all antagonistic and irreconcilable as is feared in some quarters but that each is the necessary and the only requisite complement of

the other to secure a harmonious and healthy development. Time will surely bring the desired, and as it has done in all other countries.

In conclusion, gentlemen, with your kind permission, I have great pleasure in moving the resolution:—That this Conference is of opinion, that 'the use of English as the medium of imparting instruction in Indian schools is a great disadvantage in the matter of acquisition of real and useful knowledge and also retards the diffusion of the same among the people at large and that, therefore, the vernaculars should gradually be made the media of instruction in non-language subjects in Secondary schools, English continuing to be taught as a compulsory subject.'

THE SCHOOL FINAL SYSTEM.

EVER since the creation of the School Final System, it has been the subject of fierce controversy. We have had panegyrists who tried to prove that it was a divinely appointed system, a miraculous invention that would be a boon to humanity, a sovereign panacea for all forms of educational disease. Its advocates, some of them headmasters of eighteen years' experience, have entered the lists in favour of a system so virulently attacked by men who have no actual knowledge of its working and who are therefore not qualified to pronounce any decision on the subject in question. These bold champions have been behind the scenes; they have pulled the strings that set the engine in motion; they are the happy few who have been duly initiated into these educational mysteries and therefore should know. They sweep aside with contempt the opinions of those ignorant laymen who so violently clamour for the blood of the innocent creature they so eloquently defend. They challenge one and all to enter the lists and break, a

lance, if they dare to question the merits of the fair object of their chivalrous devotion. They admit that there are a few defects in the system; but the glories of the School Final goddess are so dazzling that every person should prostrate himself in the dust before her. "Bow down, ye slaves, bow down!" The old Matriculation is a monster whose hands are red with the blood of innocents; the School Final System is the angel of mercy under whose shining wings we are invited to take refuge. And if this system should perish, these doughty champions declare that they will lift up their manly voices and weep, like worthy Dominie Sampson in Scott's *Guy Mannering*. I may assure these unhappy few that if they do weep, they will weep in vain, undisturbed. Their voices will be a cry in the wilderness and about as little effective as poor Enone's when her musical accents awakened the echoes of Mount Ida as she wailed aloud in her agony because, forsooth, worthless Paris had deserted her! For my part, I may say I am not prepared to weep with them or for them. But if the School Final System were to perish, I shall be most happy to take an active part in the funeral games in honour thereof; and if the grief of any one of its champions will permit him to break a lance with me, I shall only be too happy to accept the challenge. I too am a teacher, an assistant master, it is true, but still one of the initiated, fully acquainted with all the fussiness of these educational high priests. For the last five years, I have watched the School Final System at work and I am confident that the views I express below are shared by the vast majority of my brother teachers.

The School Final System is said to be elastic and to give students a wide range of

subjects to choose from. A pupil with a special aptitude for a special subject, can select that as his optional and devote all his time to that alone, instead of frittering away his energies on all. But this same specialisation is one of the worst defects of the system. In effect it is positively mischievous. A boy of twelve, when he enters the High School department has to choose his optional subjects. How can the poor boy do it? What does he know of his special aptitude at the age of twelve? If young men of twenty-five find it so hard to decide what profession they should choose, how much more difficult must it be for a child of twelve to choose an optional subject for himself! What does the poor child know of the merits and defects of the various subjects? And how hard it is that when once he has taken his leap in the dark, when he has definitely committed himself to any particular subject, he cannot give it up and choose another, either in the Intermediate or the B. A. classes! Nor can his teachers help him in the matter. According to the professorial system now in vogue from the lowest classes upward, every subject is taught by a specialist, and such a specialist knows little of the boy or of his special aptitudes; nor is he in a position to say what subjects the boy will excel in, except by comparing his marks in the various subjects, which is a most unsatisfactory test. Again, it is almost impossible to say anything definite about the special aptitude of a pupil of twelve. His character is unformed. His powers are latent. His likes and dislikes depend very much on the personality and popularity of the teacher. But apart from all this, is early specialisation desirable, even if it were possible? Should it not rather be the object of the School Final Course to im-

part a sort of general training, to prepare the way for specialisation in the college classes? The champions of the School Final System try to evade this difficulty by saying that in reality specialisation begins only in the Fifth Form, not in the Fourth Form, at the ripe age of thirteen, not at the tender age of twelve! O common-sense, where art thou?

Lastly, this early specialisation is responsible for the utter neglect by pupils of Indian History and the languages of the country. While they dutifully burden their memories with the unpronounceable names of many Anglo-Saxon worthies who cumber the pages of British History, they are hopelessly ignorant of the story of the motherland and of the poets and heroes who are its glory and its pride! Our students know much of Edward the Elder and Ethelred the Unready but not one in ten knows anything of Harsha or Chandragupta Maurya. They know much of Shakespeare and Milton but have not heard anything of Bhartrihari or Kalidasa. They will give you a beautiful account of Titus Oates or Babington but they know nothing of heroic Padmini or gallant Prithvi Raj! Poor Indian History is relegated to the B group, that quantity negligible, that lumber room of the School Final System where four unhappy subjects rot in peace. Why not make Indian History one of the compulsory subjects? How contemptible is that educational ideal that leaves the history of the motherland to the tender mercies of group B! English History is studied thoroughly in the Intermediate classes and again in the B. A. classes. Why should it be taught in the High school classes also?

If the fate of Indian History is bad, that of the mother-tongue is worse. According to the present system, it is possible for a student

to give up the study of his mother-tongue at the age of twelve! Just imagine a system of education in England which has no place for English language and literature! And yet, this is what prevails in our country! This early specialisation alone is responsible for this miserable state of things. The advocates of the system say that Vernacular translation and Composition are compulsory. Most true! but how is it possible for a student to write a readable essay in the mother-tongue unless he studies the masterpieces of some at least of the great writers? The condition of the unhappy school boy who has to score a fair percentage of marks in Vernacular translation and Composition without any acquaintance with the masterpieces of the literature of his motherland is as miserable as that of the ancient Israelites in the valley of the Nile, condemned to make bricks without straw! If we remember that national progress can be achieved only by an intelligent and sympathetic study of the history of our country and by a wider and sounder development of vernacular literature, we shall understand how mischievous has been the result of this premature specialisation!

We now come to the unfortunate B group, the unhappy Cinderella, whom no gallant prince comes to rescue. In every school, the subjects included in this group are starved. Teachers neglect them. Pupils do not study them; and however badly they fare in them, they are sent up for the public examination. They do not count. They are cobras whose poison-teeth have been wrenched away. Neither Principals of colleges nor heads of Government offices pay the slightest attention to them. It may be said that this is not the fault of the system, but of those who work it. I say it is the fault of the system. It is no-

in human nature to care for that which can neither help nor hinder us in our great struggle for life. Principals of colleges do not deign to look at the marks of the boy in any of the B group subjects. He may get 5 % in them; but if he gets a fair percentage in the A and C groups, he is sure of a seat in the charmed circle of the Intermediate class. If he seeks Government service, there too only his marks in the A and C groups are considered. Ninety per cent. of our students come to our schools only for the purpose of qualifying themselves for admission to the College course or Government service, and if the B group cannot help them in either, who can blame the pupils and the teachers who refuse to worship these impotent deities who can neither bless nor curse? How can we expect the lad of fifteen to be so disinterested in his patriotism and so catholic in his tastes as to study laboriously the subjects that the School Final System has stretched on the Procrustes' bed of group B? As for the unfortunate teacher who teaches these subjects, his prospects of promotion depend on the school averages in the A and C groups. If these are high, his work is appreciated; if these are low, woe to him! When we find that the teacher's work is judged by the averages in certain subjects alone and that the B group subjects are a positive hindrance to both teacher and taught, is it to be wondered at that the B group is so hopelessly neglected?

It has sometimes been said that after the School Final System came into existence, more value has been attached to school work. Nothing can be more inaccurate. Absolutely no value has been attached by any one till now to school work. The school marks that are entered side by side with the public examina-

tion marks are perfectly useless. Does any Principal of any college admit any student on the strength of his school marks? Does any Government officer who is pestered by applicants innumerable ever allow himself to be influenced by these wonderful marks? The public examination marks alone have any value. Why then should hundreds of unhappy pedagogues work so unceasingly at these worthless percentages and averages? Why should they continue to manufacture these most useless, most unreliable, columns of figures till the eye grows dim and the fingers ache? Away with these profitless calculations compared with which the treadmill is a luxury!

Another grand discovery made by the champions of the system is that the School Final Scheme has done much to improve the prospects and status of teachers. Could anything be more inaccurate or illogical? Prices have been rising and wages too. Hence the rise in our salary. Inspectors of schools now insist on the appointment of trained teachers, and the demand is greater than the supply. These are the true reasons why the school-master now gets a higher salary. To say that this is due to the introduction of the School Final System is about as logical as the inference of Sir Walter Raleigh's sapient valet who, when he saw his master smoking, jumped at once to the conclusion that he was on fire and promptly emptied a tub of ditch-water on him!

According to this system, there is no passing and no failing. This sort of vagueness, this deliberate mysticism, rouses the admiration of some of its advocates. But nothing can well be more unfortunate in its results. Unless a minimum is fixed, who can say when a pupil completes his certificate? Is he to

wander from college to college and beg every Principal to "open the door, some pity to show" like the ancient beggar in the nursery rhyme? And is this disappointed mendicant to return to the School Final class when he is refused admission everywhere? In mercy, let us tell the poor boy whether he is damned or saved! This suspense is torture! Are we to think that a student completes his certificate if he gets the presidency average in all subjects? And if presidency averages change as fast as fashions in Paris, what then are we to do? To-day it is thirty; to-morrow it is forty; the day after it may be 59. Would the champions of the School Final System insist on every boy getting 59%, as it was in optional mathematics last year and would they be satisfied with 14%, as it was in chemistry in 1911? A truce to this grotesque theory! Let us have a minimum, a fair minimum that is not tied to the apron-strings of Dame Accident, that does not elude our grasp like the Chameleon in the story! Let every boy who gets 30% in every subject separately and 35% in the total be given a regular Matriculation diploma! Let his School Final certificate, that portly folio, that dreary record of his sufferings and disappointments and humiliations be torn to pieces! Let him not be a scape-goat bearing his sins on his shoulders, a convict forced to exhibit his ticket of leave to every passer-by! Let him not be compelled to display his finger-prints to every Jack in office! Let him not be forced to unfold the painful history of his school boy escapades, how many times he was flogged, how many times he was fined, how many times sent out of his class for some act of boyish impertinence! This sort of thing is mean enough in the case of a grown-up man in responsible service; but this sort of pillory,

Sir, in the case of a lad of fifteen is outrageous!

One feature of the School Final System I heartily appreciate. A pupil who fails in any particular subject is not forced to re-appear in all subjects indiscriminately, as in former times, but only in the subject in which he has failed. This is a real blessing to the unhappy boy, who under the old regime was compelled to chew the cud over and over again. This soul-sickening drudgery has been averted. But something more should be done. Any boy who wants it should be allowed to appear as a private candidate for the examination. If he can secure a pass without the help of our schools and colleges, why should we stand in his way? But now students who fail in the examination are forced to attend school, until they complete their certificates. This is terribly hard on poor boys. Why should this dog-in-the-manger policy be persisted in? What is gained by barring one poor devil's road to salvation? In the name of charity, let the poor boy who is unable to take advantage of our expensive schools and colleges be allowed to appear as a private candidate, and if he passes, who shall dare to say that he is in any way inferior to the fatted calf that our schools send forth to be slaughtered?

The power given to Principals of colleges to admit whom they please to the college classes is lauded to the skies by these champions of the School Final System. I wonder how they pitch upon the very points round which controversy has raged so fiercely! That this discretion has been abused by heads of colleges, that it has been used to smuggle undeserving students into the college classes that it has proved a veritable Aladdin's lamp in the hands of poverty-stricken institutions, is an acknowledged but unpleasant fact. To

give such discretionary power to heads of colleges and then to find fault with them for abusing it is certainly most unfair. Flesh and blood cannot withstand the pressure external and internal that is brought to bear upon them. The best thing is to take away such dangerous discretionary powers from Principals of colleges. How many stupid suggestions have been put forward to solve this problem! One sapient Fellow of the Madras University proposed as a punitive measure that the recognition of those colleges whose Principals had sinned should be cancelled. If thine enemy smite thee, smite thou his grand-mother! Another proposed that half-a-dozen Principals of colleges should form a committee to decide who was eligible for admission to the college classes. Every one of the thousands who had appeared for the examination and who thought that he had a chance of being admitted to the college classes was to send his certificate to this puissant committee, with a peace-offering of a rupee, perhaps, and the dreary work of inspection was to be gone over again! This is an insult to those Principals who are not on the committee and it senselessly multiplies difficulties. But it was reserved for a headmaster of eighteen years' experience to put forward the most grotesquely absurd suggestion of all! That in every high school the headmaster and his assistants should form a committee to decide which of their students were eligible for a college course is the very quintessence of absurdity. Suppose there are two hundred and fifty high schools in our Presidency, then two hundred and fifty committees with two hundred and fifty different standards, in various parts of the Madras Presidency would go to work with a vengeance! And then every Principal of every

college would begin the work of scrutinising these certificates once again, for certainly these gentlemen would not accept the judgment of these provincial committees. In the name of common sense what does all this mean? Fix the minimum, Sir, and the work is done!

I too have a few suggestions to make. Let English, one of the vernaculars or Sanskrit, Elementary Mathematics, Indian History (instead of English History), Elementary Science, and Geography, be all compulsory; let every student who gets 35% in every subject be declared to have passed, and eligible alike for a college course or for Government service; let every student who fails in certain subjects be allowed to re-appear in those subjects alone; above all let poor boys who cannot afford to study in our schools and colleges be allowed to appear as private candidates for examination. Let this be done and it will be accepted thankfully as a great boon! Ye Gods of the Educational Olympus, that sit upon your thrones, sipping champagne, careless of the woes of the student population, grant us this favour, and the gratitude of tens of thousands of youthful hearts is yours!

MANJERI SUNDARAM.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Things that are not taught in Indian Schools, by Mr. John Wallace, C. E.

Mr. John Wallace, C.E., Editor of the "Indian Textile Journal," contributes to the April number of the "Mysore Economic Journal," the following article:—

Few people can live past middle age without some backward thought on their own education, and especially on what it might have been if carried out in the light of present experience. This of course is a practical impossibility as so much that is new has developed since the boy left school. There must, nevertheless, be room for improvement, for I rarely meet people engaged in the work of education without hearing some complaint regarding the present system. We are all aware of the value of a wholesome discontent in stimulating progress, and if, while throwing our stone at the present edifice, we can offer a little new building material, our faith in the structure need suffer no diminution. One so frequently meets adult men and women, who cannot perform some simple operation, currently supposed to come naturally to most people, that a doubt arises regarding the methods of education pursued in many schools with the sanction of custom and of many generations. Schooling was originally intended to produce superior persons who, for the rest of their lives would do no manual labour. Now-a-days it is said to fit us for the various duties and responsibilities of civilized life but so many cases of failure are to be observed that one may reasonably enquire whether the ordinary course of teaching is best fitted for the ordinary person. How often may we see people who cannot sharpen a lead pencil. They may write a good hand, play various games with credit, or handle a needle with skill, but the pencil, after their best efforts have been expended on it, looks as if their teeth had been used to remove the wood. The sharpening of a pen-knife is far too rare an accomplishment, although in an age of cutting instruments, no education can be regarded as complete without some knowledge of how cutting edges are produced and spoiled. The subject if properly presented with illustrations, is one of great interest for young people. Even the mystery of sharpening scissors has very little mystery left after a simple explanation which ignores the knife grinder's wheel altogether. To tie up a parcel so that it will not come loose by any chance is by no means a common accomplishment, and yet knotting and splicing seem only to be

taught in naval schools. There is no better test for neatness of hand work than a good splice which may be easily learned on a piece of soft cotton cord with the aid of a pointed stick.

We all in early youth read the story of Aladdin and his wonderful lamp, but of the real lamp which we may have seen and handled from early youth what do we know? How many of us can put a lamp in order and trim the wick properly or correct the stupidities of the *mussal* after he has mixed wicks and chimneys. How many of us know that when the flame of a lamp mounts to the top of the chimney, it is the sign of a down draught; and that, if the flame becomes small and bright, it is due to an increased upward draught. A good kerosene lamp is just as wonderful as that of Aladdin, but in another fashion and we miss the wonder of it for lack of a little early instruction, for singularly enough the literature of lamps is very scarce. So indifferent are we on this subject that hundreds of lamps are condemned and sold annually because the air passages have become obstructed with dirt or because no one could discover that a wrong chimney has been used. Even the annoyance of bad light does not arouse the average man or woman to an interest in one of the most beautiful of natural phenomena. The danger of crossing busy streets on foot might be a good deal minimised by a lesson on the rule of the road, and the direction in which one should look, to avoid risks. This is specially needed in India, where it seems to be a fashion to look at times ostentatiously behind when walking in the middle of a road, or of looking downwards instead of being on the alert.

Where is the school in which children are told of the dangers due to various kinds of flies, and especially to the commonest of them all, the house fly, which is able to convey as many diseases as all the rest together? There is also the subject of the superior purity of the air out-of-doors at night of which so many adults are so profoundly ignorant that they arrest the ventilation of their bedrooms during their hours of sleep and thus lose much of the refreshment that they ought to gain. If we may judge by the extreme precautions taken by Indians to protect themselves against defilement, a real awakening regarding the contamination of flies in our markets, among the sweet-sellers in the streets, and in every dwelling would surely result in some hygienic and sanitary reform. At the same time scientific training in primary schools must be undertaken with extreme precautions. A few mysterious terms injudiciously introduced may spoil the effect of the most carefully prepared lessons.

In this country, where water borne diseases carry off such multitudes annually, the fouling of the sources of water-supply is a national custom, not only among the people of the poorer classes but also among those who profess to be educated. From the time a new well is finished until it begins to breed disease and has to be cleaned out, preventable impurities are accumulated in it and no precautions are observed for its protection. A silly tradition prevails that the water should "see the sun" instead of being carefully covered up, as it is in the ground, before flowing pure into the well. There are many charity schools in India where destitute orphans are kept for several years and finally sent forth to earn a living without any knowledge of cooking, washing clothes, plain needlework, cleaning boots, furniture, windows or dishes or building. Of the sources of supply of the common articles of consumption they have only the vaguest notion. In a well-managed charity school as much of the domestic work as possible should be done by the pupils and all of them should share in the work of a garden which should be illustrated by explanations of the simple truths of plant growth and nourishment. Some of the time wasted on games could be far more profitably spent in this way.

One of the great misfortunes of India is the popular belief in the degrading character of manual labour. Some years ago a Parsee Orphanage was established near Parel, Bombay, and a number of destitute children were collected after due provision had been made to feed, clothe and educate them. Shortly after the opening of the school a strike occurred, and on inquiry being made into the cause, the Superintendent learned that the orphans considered it an insult to be asked to clean their own shoes. If the Governor of the period could have seen these children, he might have told them that while at Eton, Harrow or some other public school, he had, under compulsion, to clean the shoes of other boys, and, as a man, he doubtless thought with satisfaction on the soundness of his knowledge of boot cleaning. The prejudice against manual labour and even the carrying of parcels of any kind is carefully nursed by Indian domestic servants, and far too often encouraged by their employers.

How much valuable and interesting knowledge may be conveyed to children on the subject of heat, without the use of any profoundly scientific terms or apparatus, the heat of the sun, of the air, of our bodies, of cooked food and of the fire. Any kerosene lamp, a stand, a small

vessel to boil oil or water and thermometer, are all the apparatus needed. The relation of the heat phenomena to us, personally, forms the subject, for every one must have some personal experience of these phenomena to engage his interest in the lesson.

Much is said now-a-days regarding the necessity of education, especially of the poorer classes, in India, but very little apparently is said or even thought of what ought to be taught. If education consists of training in useful habits and ways of thinking, how does this description apply to the primary education which many friends of progress would like to make compulsory? Has primary education had a markedly good effect upon that portion of the artisan class that has been to school, setting aside the small number whose natural gifts would have raised them, school or no school, above their fellows? Apathy and a lack of wholesome curiosity have been the bane of the Indian people of the lower class, upon whom the material progress of the country most depends. It is, therefore, time to inquire how far the present system of education meets the chief needs of the people whose school period is very short, who buy neither books nor newspaper, and whose need for reading and writing is not sufficient to prevent them from forgetting them, as they mostly do.

Teachers are liable to estimate the intellectual needs of their pupils on the basis of their own and to credit the children with logical faculties that they do not possess and never seem to acquire. It is not time to overhaul the training of teachers in order to bring them more in line with the needs of our daily life, especially in the earlier stages of education? This is a work that is not to be carried out in the committee room, but rather by intimate communion with adults who are already engaged in the business of life. For example with regard to the artisan class what kind of knowledge is most useful to boys who will follow any craft, and how much of the present school course is found to remain with the boys and to become useful. Again, in the class that lives by clerical work, what are the defects most complained of by employers, and how far is the present training from correcting them? A boy entering an office should surely know something about the properties of copying ink, and should be able to copy letters without making a mess of the letter book. His written application for employment generally betrays a total ignorance of the com-

position of letters. He cannot write out a simple bill, and of postal operations his knowledge is of the most elementary kind. He places a stamp by preference on the flap of the envelope. The same enquiry would disclose a terrible difference between the subjects of school training and the domestic duties of the girls of the same class.

It appears that radical changes are needed, not only in the instruction of children but also in the training of teachers. Traditional custom has far too large a place in the common ideas of education. The primary school-master has neither the training nor the pay that the responsibilities of his position demand, and until the salary of the teacher is levelled up at least to that of the clerk artisan, the difficulties surrounding primary education will continue to increase.

Some of the greatest difficulties in the path of industrial progress are due to the ignorance of the working class whose school period is very short and whose intelligence is most receptive at a very early age. The Indian workman is deficient in observation, in wholesome curiosity and in reasoning power, faculties that are all susceptible of cultivation at his school age, until they become a habit that would be invaluable in later life. In Sind I hear that there is a dearth of school-masters because, on account of the smallness of their pay, they are seeking clerical work. Gentlemen, who wish to become patrons of learning by founding schools, ought to know that there is on the whole, more chance of their doing harm than good, as the result of their "benevolence" if nothing more than a repetition of the old forms of instruction is given. They should also be made to understand that there is neither virtue nor merit in giving large sums of money for the promotion of education if their scheme does not ensure adequate remuneration to the teacher. Without this the bequest can only be regarded as an attempt at personal advertisement.

The S. S. L. C. Examination, Madras.

The following appears in the *Hindu* :—

The recent circular of the Registrar of our University prescribing Rules for the admission of S. S. L. C. students into the Junior Intermediate Class has created consternation among the High Schools, and rightly so. The alarm has already been sounded and it is time that the public and heads of institutions should realise the full import of these Rules and take them to the consideration of the Syndicate with a view to the

remodelling of the Rules before the re-opening date of the First and Second Grade Colleges.

The circular distinctly lays down that a student to be eligible for admission must secure marks, after moderation, equal to 5 per cent. over the Presidency average in each of the subjects of the A and C Groups of the S. L. C. course. Five per cent. over the Presidency average may not appear too high; but that it constitutes a real hardship becomes clear when this standard is compared with what is demanded of candidates for the University Matriculation. The minima for the latter are 40 per cent. in English and 35 per cent. in each of the other subjects, viz., Second Language, Mathematics, Science and Histories.

Comparing subject by subject, in the present S. L. C. Examinations, the averages in English and Science respectively come to 40 and 35 per cent. nearly, and to expect 5 per cent. over it is to demand a little more than for a brother candidate at the Matriculation. In the Second Language, Mathematics, Histories, many students at the S. L. C. Examination secure much higher than 35 per cent. which is the minimum for Matriculation, and therefore the Presidency average in these subjects must rise much higher; and a student must secure 5 per cent. over this average. For the average student it is a real hardship, inasmuch as he has to secure as much as 50 to 60 per cent. according to the new Rules, while his compeer at the Matriculation can secure a pass with 35 per cent. After all, so far as admission to the College is concerned, it is all one whether he passes the Matriculation Examination or secures marks according to the new Rules. The injustice of the Rule is very glaring.

It might be asked why then should not a student appear for the Matriculation, if it is easier. But that is a different question which requires separate treatment foreign to our present purpose. This disparity of treatment must be removed, if the authorities have a fair sense of justice. It may also be added that while there is a definiteness about the minima demanded of Matriculation candidates, the average for each subject in the S. L. C. Examination fluctuates from year to year, and brings with it its own peculiar disadvantages to candidates.

The hardship may however be mitigated by introducing another Rule to the effect that a student may be admitted to the College classes, if, in each of the subjects in which he undergoes the Examination, he secures 'either' the minima as prescribed by the new Rules or the minima as required for the pass in the Matriculation Examination.

nation, whichever may be the *lower* of the two. Such a Rule, while maintaining the destructive character of the S. L. C. Scheme does away with an invidious and mischievous difference in standard between a S. L. C. and a Matriculation candidate.

It is earnestly hoped that the question may be fully discussed from this point of view and a rule framed by the authorities concerned so as to remove the hardship in the case of students for admission in July next.

"Poetic Justice in Shakespearean Tragedy," by Mr. S. Satyamurthi.

Mr. S. Satyamurthi delivered a lecture on "Poetic Justice in Shakespearean Tragedy" with Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar in the chair. The lecturer said that there was Poetic Justice in Shakespearean Tragedy, because evil never once triumphed in his tragedies, and the good suffered not for the good in them but for the evil which was inevitably and humanly mixed with the good in them and in the suffering the good became better and purer. He instanced this thesis by reference to Shakespeare's four great tragedies: Macbeth, Othello, Lear, and Hamlet. He said that in Macbeth, the Murder of King Duncan was an evil mishap but his point was not that there were not such mishaps in life but that the doers of them suffered inevitably for them. And Macbeth suffered almost from the moment of the murder and the incessant struggle between his conscience and his surrounding, and himself to which he never completely yields showed that there were elements of good in him which did not come out because he had not the comparatively rare strength of mind to resist temptation. Lady Macbeth, too, suffers for her evil deeds, but it is not true to say that she was altogether without heart. The lecturer then referred to Othello and pointed out how Desdemona, though she did not deserve her fate, contributed not a little to the catastrophe which enveloped her and her husband because she was certainly wanting in a proper feeling towards her kind father, and because there was not in her love for Othello the mutual confidence and trust owing to their disparity in age, race, and temperament. And Desdemona achieved by her death a place in her husband's heart and in the hearts of all of us which she could not have achieved had she lived. Othello, too, dies triumphant, and not vanquished. In Lear, again, we find that Cordelia showed in the first scene a lack of true sympathy with her father's weaknesses which she, later on, developed through suffering, and her death, coming as it does, after

her reconciliation with her father, and almost in his arms, need not trouble us. And Lear, too, suffers for his imperious and exacting nature and develops in the suffering a rare and beautiful sympathy with the poor and his death is the happiest deliverance to him. The forces of evil in the drama are shown to be mutually destructive.

In "Hamlet" too, Hamlet dies after achieving his purpose. His deeds in the drama belie the gross calumny that he was an irresolute man. He achieved his purpose of avenging his father's murder and dies in the happy and proud consciousness that he does not leave behind him a wounded name. Ophelia, too, though, when she appears on the scene, excites our sympathy, contributes not a little to the tragedy by her heartless and almost cruel treatment of Hamlet at the bidding of her brother and father. And our regret for her is largely coloured by our hope that had she been stronger she might have saved Hamlet. The lecturer concluded by saying that it would thus be seen that the world of Shakespeare's tragedy was not a chaos but a moral order and that there was ample reason for the readers of Shakespearean tragedy to say with Lord Tennyson, "We can trust but that somehow good will be the goal of ill."

The Chairman complimented the lecturer on his able and brilliant paper and said that, while evil never triumphed in Shakespearean tragedy, good did not always triumph. Mr. V. V. Srinivasan proposed a hearty vote of thanks to the lecturer and the Chairman. The acting of a few scenes from Shakespeare's Henry IV brought the pleasant function to a close.

Mr. Taft on Education for Character.

Mr. Taft, Professor in the Law School of Yale University and ex-President of the United States, said some notable things at an Educational Convention in Cincinnati.

"Education that does not help to form character misses the chief object of it for citizenship, and I have a theory that you need a broad foundation of thorough primary education for everyone, whether he is going to be a farmer, a lawyer, a mechanic, or a minister.

"Among the youths in the common schools, in the private schools, in the secondary schools, and in the colleges—as every one of you knows—you find lack of self-discipline—a lack of courtesy, a lack of respect for authority and politeness. What does a lack of courtesy and politeness mean? Why, it means that the boy or girl has not been

taught the democratic principles of respecting the rights of others.

"When a pupil is abrupt and rough and does not give to the teacher the respect the teacher ought to have, he simply has failed to learn the proper principles of democratic citizenship. A man who is always dwelling on what somebody ought to render him and not on what he owes somebody else, is started wrong. Discipline is what we need in this generation. It is in that we are lacking.

"In these luxurious days the parents delegate to somebody else the discipline of the family and do not have the strength of character to see that the boys and girls have the proper respect—first, for their parents; second, for the opportunities they have in going to school and for the necessity for improving them; and, third, they do not have the self-restraint that they should show in their bearing to the entire world.

"I have a brother who is in your craft. He is the headmaster of a school and he meets with headmasters. At one of the headmasters' meetings one of them got up to illustrate the difficulties he was labouring under and read a letter that he had from a mother:—

"Dear Sir: Here is our Willie. Willie is a noble boy. He has been a little lax in his studies. He is impetuous and sometimes breaks rules, but he is a noble boy. Do not be severe with him. Do not punish him. We have never been severe with him or punished him at home, except in self-defence."

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

A. (Honours) Degree Examination 1915.

BRANCH I. (MATHEMATICS).

The following are declared to have passed in the above examination:—

FIRST CLASS:—A. Narasinga Rao, V. Raghavachari and R. Sivaramakrishnan.

SECOND CLASS:—V. Narayanan and S. Mahadevan.

THIRD CLASS:—M. Doraiswami, P. Gopalakrishnan, D. Krishnamurthi, G. V. Mahalingam, G. Radhakrishna Iyer, G. V. Sessa Aiyar, T. D. Srinivasachari, M. K. Viraraghavan, C. V. Visvanatha Aiyar and L. S. Satharishi.

The following are recommended for the B. A. Degree under Regulation 206:—

S. R. Ranganathan and R. Vaidyanthaswami.

Under Transitory Regulation 419.

SECOND CLASS:—N. Durairajan.

THIRD CLASS:—V. Gopalaswami, A. A. Krishnaswamy Iyengar, M. Mahadevan, S. Panchapagesan, T. S. Ramachandran, M. R. Ramakaimal, K. Srimulu, M. Vaidyanathan, H. V. Venkatarama Iyengar, and P. R. Venkatakrishna Aiyar.

BRANCH V (HISTORY AND ECONOMICS).

Madras Christian College.

CLASS II.—Subrahmanyam, Pudukotah V., 61; Vaidyanathan, Ramaswami, 62; Venkatasubba Rau, Pallaj, 63.

CLASS III.—Karunakaran Nayar, Kannarat M., 50; Kuttanpa, Biddandra, 51; Madhavan Pillai, C. N., 52; Rama Aiyangar, Hiremagalur K., 54; Ramaiya, Balakavi, 55; Ramaiya, B. S., 56; Ramaswami, Yedatore, 58; Sitaraman, N., 64; *Narayanan Aiyangar, M. Annadurai, 53; Ramakrishna Reddi, Tambalapalli, N., 57; Rangaswami Aiyangar, Anants, 59; Sebastian, Paul, V., 60.

Presidency College, Madras.

CLASS I.—Franco, Joseph, 65.

CLASS II.—Krishnaswami, C. Marudachalam, 66; Lakshminarasimhan, M. S., 67; Srinivasan, N. S., 71; Yahya Ali, 73.

CLASS III.—Mahalingam, Ramaswami, 68; Ramabrahmam, Prabhala, 69; Rama Rau, A. N., 70; Subrahmanyam, Chittur H., 72.

St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly.

CLASS I.—Joseph, Pettah G., 76.

CLASS II.—Joseph, Kattukaran A., 75; Kuppuswami, Dasaratharama, 77; Pyle, Lentaparambil M., 79.

CLASS III.—Ganesan, T. S., 74; Lonan, P. K., 78; Sundaresan, A., 80.

(Under Transitory Regulation 419.)

CLASS III.—Padmagirisan, E., 48; Ramaswami, M. S., 51; Sambasiva Sastri, Yellapeddi, 52; Satyanarayanamurti, Gandikota, 53; Vataranyam, S., 55; Ramachandran, Budhiraju, 58; Rama Rau, Kotaru, 59; Subrahmanyam, K. S., 61; Viraraghavan, T. S., 63; Mathew, P. K., 64; Rangaswami, N., 65; John, M., 72; Satyamurti, R., 74; Sundaram, N. R., 76.

* Recommended for the B. A. Degree under Regulation 206.

The following are the names of the successful candidates in the recent B. A. Honours Degree Examination in the various branches indicated:—

BRANCH II A. (PHYSICAL SCIENCE.)

SECOND CLASS:—V. Narahari Rao, K. R. Ragbupathy, S. Srinivasa Rao, T. Chakravarthy, S. Raman, and R. Srinivasachari.

THIRD CLASS:—S. Chinnadurai and K. Soundararaja Rao.

The following are recommended for the B. A. Degree under Regulation 206:—

M. Rajah Rao, and S. Srinivasan.

BRANCH II B. PHYSICAL SCIENCE.—Nil.

BRANCH III. NATURAL SCIENCE.

SECOND CLASS:—P. M. Somasundaram, T. V. Ramanathan, G. Surya Rao and L. A. Narayana Iyer.

THIRD CLASS:—S. G. Manavala Ramanujam, M. S. Natesan, D. Ramamurthi, G. Selva Pillai, P. Kodanda Rao, M. K. Raman, and A. Narayanan Najr.

BRANCH IV (MENTAL AND MORAL SCIENCE.)

FIRST CLASS:—M. Seshadri.

SECOND CLASS:—K. Suryanarayana, D. Gurumurthi, and N. Swaminatha Iyer.

BRANCH VII (ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.)

FIRST CLASS:—N. Raghunathan and J. P. Sears.

SECOND CLASS:—M. A. Krishnan, N. Sivaramakrishnan, M. Athmaram, B. A. D'Quental, N. R. Kedari Rao, R. Krishnaswamy, D. Parimala-Thathachari, T. K. Sankara Menon, and P. Sankara Nambiar.

THIRD CLASS:—T. K. Balakrishnan, K. Krishna Somlaji, H. S. Nanjundiah, S. I. Peter, K. R. Rajagopalan, R. Sadasiva Iyer, P. S. Venkataraman, V. Krishnamurthi, Leonora Phillips, M. S. Rajagopal, M. P. Sivadasa Menon, R. Srinivasan, S. Venkata Raman and M. V. Venkatesvaran.

The following are recommended for the B. A. Degree under Regulation 206:—

M. Balagopalan, E. Nainan, G. Veeraraghavachari, G. Kamesam, Nagamma, Kathleen White.

BRANCH VIII (SANSKRIT LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.)

SECOND CLASS:—V. R. Krishna Menon, M. S. Manikka Iyer, P. V. Narasinga Rao, P. M. Sankara Nambiar, and P. Venkobachari.

THIRD CLASS:—M. Chakravarthi, B. Prakasam and K. Ramapisharodi.

B. A. Honours Degree Examination.

(UNDER TRANSITORY REGULATION 419.)

BRANCH IIA. PHYSICAL SCIENCE.—Nil.

BRANCH III (NATURAL SCIENCE).

THIRD CLASS:—M. Ekambaranathan and O. Lakshminarayanan.

BRANCH IV (MENTAL AND MORAL SCIENCE).

THIRD CLASS:—C. R. Aiyunni, and T. R. Krishnaswamy Iyer.

BRANCH VII (ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE).

B. Mallikarjuna Rao, V. Venugopalan.

BRANCH VIII (SANSKRIT LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE).

M. Srinivasacharyar.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

Election of a representative of the Bombay University in the Bombay Legislative Council in the place of Mr. Setalwad took place with the result that Mr. N. M. Samarth was returned by 64 votes. The other candidates Mr. H. J. Bhabha received 55 votes and Mr. K. Natarajan 50 votes. Mr. Samarth is a pleader of the Bombay High Court and well-known in Indian political circles.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Maharaja of Darbhanga Scholarships for 1915.

Applications for the Maharaja of Darbhanga Scholarships are invited from all Graduates and Licentiates of the Calcutta University. The Scholarship (value Rs. 50 per mensem) is tenable for one year from July 1915 to June 1916.

Every candidate is required to state in his application the special subject or branch of medical science in which he proposes to carry on investigation or research work and also to state in what respects his investigations appear to him to tend to the advancement of medical studies. He is also required to state in his application the place where he intends to carry on his research work, if in a recognised laboratory or hospital, a recommendation from the head of such laboratory or hospital as to the fitness of the candidate to conduct such work, and the probable value of such work must accompany the application. If the candidate intends to carry on investigations privately, his application must be supported by a certificate to the above effect from a member of the Faculty of Medicine.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

Representative in Council.

Dr. Satish Chandra Banerji has been elected as the Allahabad University's representative in the United Provinces Legislative Council by 56 votes; the other candidate, Mr. Syed Karamat Husain, obtaining 21 votes. Dr. Banerji is an eminent scholar, and a leading publicist.

Reviews and Notices.

PRACTICAL COURSE IN SECONDARY ENGLISH, BY GEORGE OGILVIE AND EDWARD ALBERT. (GEORGE G. HARRAP & Co.) 4s. 6d.

A Practical Course in Secondary English is about the best book in English Composition we have known in recent years and we hope to see it used extensively in our schools and colleges. The systematic study of English composition receives but scant attention at the present day in our schools and colleges, and at least one good excuse for it has all along been the absence of a good manual on the subject. Now that Messrs. Harrap & Co. have come forward with this excellent volume, it can no longer be repeated. The authors have adopted the very wise method of presenting an analysis of style, words, sentences, paragraphs and figures of speech, after the manner of Prof. Minto's *Manual of English Prose Literature*, but with greater vividness and highly practical illustrations from the great masters of English Prose. The practice of composition tends to be somewhat nebulous and unsteady, without a knowledge of the principles of style, and it is desirable every student at every stage must be drilled through them.

The Second Part of the book is even more valuable, containing as it does an exposition of English Literary Forms. Students of Rhetoric in our Universities have felt some difficulty in finding the much-needed guidance of a text-book, especially with regard to the above branch of the subject. After some experience of the teaching of the subject and a pretty thorough examination of the available books, we have no hesitation in recommending this volume. It is a pity the book is somewhat advanced for the Sixth Form and is suitable only for the College classes, but the English teaching of Secondary school teachers in this Presidency is bound to show appreciable improvement, if it be based upon an intimate knowledge of this book.

The scholar will be appointed by the Syndicate on the recommendation of the Faculty of Medicine.

During the tenure of his scholarship the scholar will be required to devote at least four hours a day, Sundays and holidays excepted, to research work in the special branch of medical science selected by him and approved by the Board of Studies in Medicine, and his work will be open to inspection by a member of the Faculty of Medicine to be specially deputed by the Faculty in that behalf.

During the tenure of his scholarship, every research scholar will be required to submit short quarterly reports of his work to the Member of the Faculty of Medicine who may be deputed to inspect his work and upon whose favourable report the continuance of his scholarship will depend.

Each scholar will also be required to submit, at the end of his tenure of scholarship, a complete statement which must be type-written and otherwise ready for publication and which will be laid before the Faculty of Medicine, who, if publication be deemed advisable, will decide all questions in connection therewith.

Coates' Memorial Prize.

Applications are invited from candidates who intended to compete for the Coates' Memorial Prize for 1915.

The prize will be awarded to the best writer of a thesis on any indigenous drug or drugs to be selected by the competitor himself subject to the approval of the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine. The writer of the thesis must be a graduate in Medicine of the Calcutta University, who has been engaged in the practice of the profession for at least five years.

The names of the drugs so selected must be submitted to the Registrar for the approval of the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine within three months from the date of this notice. The names of the drugs approved by the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine will, as soon as possible, be communicated to the candidates who submitted their applications within the specified time.

No prize will be awarded for a thesis on any drug which has not been approved by the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine.

The thesis must be written in English, and it must be submitted to the Registrar not later than the 30th November 1915 in a sealed cover with the words "Thesis for Coates' Memorial Prize" and the name of the writer distinctly stated on it.

AS YOU LIKE IT, EDITED BY A. D. KEITH.
(OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). Re. 1.

We confess we do not see any special reason for adding this edition of *As You Like It* to those that exist already, though it is fairly good. The Introduction must be longer and as the Notes are confined to a mere exposition of the meaning of the lines, they are not particularly useful to students preparing for Indian University Examinations in all of which something more is demanded by the syllabuses.

We do not at all agree with the Editor in the opinion that it is meaningless to mention derivations in a book intended for students who know neither Anglo-Saxon, nor Greek, nor Latin. If only the Editor knew how to make the study of philology vivid and picturesque, he could utilise derivations for making Shakespearean study very interesting. Much of our appreciation of the text of Shakespeare would be incomplete without an understanding of the history and setting of some of the Elizabethan words.

The size of the book is small and handy, but it has necessitated the use of small print and an absence of margin to the printing which has a most inartistic effect.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION FOR INDIAN HIGH SCHOOLS,
BY H. BANBURY, B.A., A.C.P. (OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS.) Re. 1.

Mr. Banbury is a teacher of considerable Indian experience and has naturally been able to write a very useful manual of composition. The last few chapters are particularly good, dealing as they do with composition in the most practical form. But we are afraid the treatment adopted in the earlier part of the book is not of the type that generally serves to awaken interest in the subject. Transformations of Direct and Indirect Speech, Analysis and Parsing, and exercises of that description have had their trial in the work of teaching composition and have been wisely given up. It is probably no use trying to revive them again.

STORY POEMS, BY PERCIVAL WREN. (K. & J.
COOPER, BOMBAY.) 10 As.

Messrs. K. & J. Cooper of Bombay deserve to be congratulated on their publication of the book under review. The reproduction of stories in the student's own language is a very valuable exercise and encourages a variety of educational aims, but in spite of its figuring largely in

examination papers, there is no handy collection available for teacher or pupil. Mr. Wren's collection is good, and some of them are of special interest to Indian students. The get-up of the book is creditable to the publishers and the price is quite cheap, considering its size and matter.

THE ATLAS GEOGRAPHIES:—THE BRITISH EMPIRE
BEYOND THE SEAS, BY THOMAS FRANKLIN, E. D.
GRIFFITHS, E. R. SHERMORE. (W. & A. K.
JOHNSTONS). 7d. net.

We had occasion to review the Atlas Geographies, Part I and II in a previous number of this journal. In common with the other numbers of this book, this volume of the British Empire has several attractive features. It has five coloured maps and 20 maps in black and white. We notice that one or two maps need to be brought up-to-date. The Introductory chapter deals with the extent, population, uses and the form of government prevailing in the component parts of the Empire. We are pleased that the attention of the pupils should, at the very start, be drawn to the uses of the Empire to the mother-country (a) as fields of emigration; (b) to provide food supply and raw materials (among these, India is included); (c) as markets for British goods; (d) as trade centres for British goods; (e) as coaling stations; (f) as fortified places. In this chapter, there are also diagrams showing relative areas and relative population of the three largest nations, viz., the British Empire, Russia and the United States. There are chapters describing the sea route to India and the Far East, to Africa and also to Australia. We do not know why the authors gave up in the present volume the printing of the route map on a transparent paper. This map adds considerably to the utility of the book. The Practical exercises at the end of each chapter are continued in this book also and these are of great value as they are so designed as to enable the student to reason from cause to effect and to realise each fact in its relation to the geographical whole.

BLACK'S TRAVEL PICTURES, BY ROBERT F. J.
FINCH, F.R.G.S. (IN SPECIAL DETACHABLE FILE
PORTFOLIOS, SIZE 11×9 INCHES.) 10d. per set.

Messrs. Adam and Charles Black are well-known as publishers of pictures and coloured illustrations. They have added considerably to their reputation by publishing these Travel pictures. Ten sets are now ready. We have, in

these pictures of great cities and famous buildings, typical scenery and vegetation, illustrations of products and industries, vivid representation of human and animal life in:—

1. Europe; 2. Asia; 3. The Mediterranean Region; 4. The British Isles; 5. The countries of the war; 6. The British Empire; 7. North America; 8. Africa; 9. South America; 10. Australia.

It is an acknowledged fact that good pictures serve to stimulate child's thought and imagination about the world in which he lives and that they impart to good teaching, a reality and vividness. To secure this end, we note that the pictures are very carefully selected and arranged in definite sequence. There are explanatory notes underneath each picture drawing attention to the chief features of the picture. What is far important than these is the stimulus they give to useful questions and exercises. By these exercises, the teacher will be enabled to put to test the vividness of impression which the pupils obtained. Each set contains about 50 pictures and half of these are in colours. Those in colours are superb. We recommend these pictures to all geography teachers.

GEOGRAPHY FOR JUNIOR CLASSES: E. MARSDEN.
(MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.) Price Re. 1-4-0.

The First Lessons in Geography and this book are on concentric lines. They cover the same ground. The treatment of the subject is regional, i.e., from the point of view of Physiography. The Lessons in Physiography are continued here. A good many of the easy technical terms are introduced in this book and there are a number of lessons on latitude and longitude, solar system, gravity, on the measurement of heat, the weighing of air, the thermometer and barometer, etc. The book is evidently intended to be for two years' course and hence, these Physiography lessons are distributed in two places. The author describes India first. Each natural region is described in detail. It is really a pity that in dealing with the tablelands of India, that triangular strip of the country known as Malwa Plateau or the Central India Plateau is not mentioned at all. There is an interesting chapter on "How towns and cities grow" with special reference to India.

After India, the British Empire including the mother country is described, also on regional lines. Then comes the description of the rest of the world. There are a few slips here and there

evidently the result of hasty proof-reading. We are surprised that Melbourne should be put down as the capital of the Australian Commonwealth! These slips ought to be corrected in the next edition. All good geography books contain a few suggestive questions and exercises at the end of each section. This is wanting in this book. The book has also no index.

One good feature of the book is the number of excellent maps and the wealth of illustrations, about 200, it contains. The maps are very clear and contain only those names occurring in the text. We are at a loss to understand why the physical and political maps of Australia should be printed in the description of British North America. This book with sense as an excellent text-book in the III and IV Form of Indian schools.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Government Orders.—The Government accept with thanks the offer of M. R. Ry. Yellur Subba Rao Avargal, Mangalore, to endow a prize tenable in the Government College, Mangalore. The Accountant-General will be authorized to receive the sum offered and to purchase Government securities for the amount. He should furnish the Director of Public Instruction with particulars of the securities purchased and the balance in cash, if any. The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to obtain and submit the necessary applications and the draft notifications for vesting the fund under the Usaritable Endowments Act.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 5,875, towards the cost of extending the building occupied by the O. S. M. Girls' Secondary School, Kilpauk, Madras, subject to the following conditions:—That, in carrying out the work, the suggestions of the Chief Engineer are adopted, and the Superintending Engineer satisfies himself as to the suitability of the foundations; and that all the 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 Government Girls' School, Guntur.—The school although managed by Government has the Indian community at its back and when Indians can show they want such and such a line of education to be followed for their women and all stand by it, then the Government willingly recognizes their efforts and grants them their desires—all the higher castes are represented in this school owing

to the co-operation of their parents and guardians. The children who took part in a variety of occupations as drill, "kolattam, kumi" were of the higher castes.

The proceedings opened with a prayer and the garlanding of the President and Miss Lazarus, B.A. L.T., the present Manager of the School.

The Headmaster then read his report, in the course of which he said that the school had been managed by the leading citizens of Guntur that Mrs. Rhenius took it up on behalf of Government and that it was making vast strides in female education. There were nearly 300 girls on the rolls.

The speech of the evening was delivered by Mr. Venkatappayya, District Court Vakil, who suggested that the Medical and Educational Departments should co-operate and arrange practical lessons on medical science as First aid and other allied subjects in all the schools and colleges. He wanted his countrymen to wake up and bestir themselves in the cause of female education.

The Chairman, Mr. Jayanthi Ramayya Pantulu, B.A., B.L., in the course of his short and witty speech emphasised all that Mr. Venkatappayya had said and remarked that Indian women were the rulers of the home and men could do nothing without their co-operation. So to make this rule of their women grow on lines of advancement and progress their education was urgently needed and on lines in which the best that is in the Hindu girl will be brought out.

High School, Gopalsamudram.—The annual distribution of prizes of the above school took place on Sunday the 2nd instant in the School premises with M.R.Ry. K.R. Guruswamy Aiyar A.V.L., B.A., B.L., F. M. U., in the chair. There was a fairly representative gathering of the people of Gopalsamudram, Tinnevely, Palamcottah, Pattamadai and the adjoining places. Among those present were M. R. Ry. Unavadi Subramania Pillai of Tinnevely, P. S. Subramania Aiyar, M.A., L.T., Lecturer in Physics, Medical College, Madras, Venkatasubbier A.V.L., L. F. Assistant Engineer of Sermadevi, T. S. Pichu Aiyangar, B.A., L.T. of Travancore Educational Service, and S. V. Krishnasamy Aiyar A.V.L., Retired Assistant Engineer of Travancore.

The Chairman in a few opening remarks referred to the very useful work the school has been doing and of the really bright and prosperous future it has before it. He then asked the Headmaster to read his report. In the course of his report the Headmaster pointed out that the school brought into existence by the philanthropic late Pannai Venkataramier A.V.L., some eight years ago, has grown in size, strength and equipment, and has been counted by the inspecting officers among the best High Schools of the Presidency. He also pointed out how the present managing correspondent, M.R.Ry. Pannai V. Gopala Aiyar, a worthy son of a worthy father, has made a gift of the properties,

endowed by his father to the school, to the Committee to be registered very shortly. He exhorted the Gopalsamudram public and other sympathisers and former pupils of the school, to enable him to realise the ambition of his life activities by helping to make the school efficient and stable, he thanked the public of the village who have resolved to perpetuate the memory of the late lamented patriot the Honourable Gopalakrishna Gokhale by erecting a hall in his name in the new building to be added to the school. The boys of the school then entertained the audience with recitations and dialogues in English and Tamil. The Chairman then distributed the prizes as many as 70 including special prizes for Literary subjects and sports.

The Chairman then rose amid deafening cheers and said that the Headmaster with his ripe experience of no less than a quarter of a century combined with his zeal and wisdom has shown remarkable interest in the choice of his library, in the methods of instruction in all branches of the school work, the hearty co-operation with the staff which has wedded them to the school and in the general tone of the school. He congratulated the people of Gopalsamudram for having their true wealth in the school of their village and exhorted them to materially assist the institution which was "grappling with the demon of ignorance." He further remarked that the infant prodigy (the school) brought into existence by the late Panniar and nurtured by the tender nurse of the Headmaster was in need of and deserved the sympathy and support of the kind-hearted public till she attained her majority in her stability.

He also expressed all his wish that the Headmaster with his fertile brains and immense resources, would be doing a very good and useful service to the place by extending his activities and sphere of work to the young girls of the village. In his usually scholarly and inimitable way he advised the students as to how discipline was, above everything else, the one powerful force required in students' life and impressed on the scholars in very forcible language the elevating influence of patriotism and urged them all to cultivate that virtue.

The function of the evening came to a close with usual vote of thanks and the singing of National Anthem. About 9 P.M., there was a sumptuous dinner provided for the guests of the evening who were about 350 in all.

The Sri Rajah's High School Day, Tuni.—The old boys of the Sri Rajah's High School, Tuni, celebrated the 1st High School Day, with great enthusiasm, on the 1st and 2nd instant, with Mr. D. V. Krishnam Raju, B.A., B.L. High Court Vakil, Vizagapatam, in the chair. The President, in his introductory speech, among other things made the most welcome and important announcement that the Rani Saheba, Sri Rajah Vatchavaya Venkata Subhadrayamma Jagapathi Bahadur Garu, had resolved to endow the institution with landed

property which would yield Rs. 5,000 per year, that she had been urging him to attend to the execution of the Trust Deed and that it would become an accomplished fact, possibly during the summer vacation.

The Headmaster of the High School read his report dealing with the origin, the vicissitudes through which it had passed during the early years, and the present period of steady progress in the different directions. Started by the late lamented Sri Rajah Vatchavaya Venkata Simbadri Jagapathi Raj Bahadur Garu, of happy memory, in the year 1904, with the best philanthropic motives, the institution had patiently borne itself through the ills and troubles of infancy and under the fostering care of a kind mother, has not only regained its full vigour but has been showing the bloom of youth. He made special mention of three gentlemen, Messrs. G. Jagannadhaswami, M.A., L.T., of Cocanada, the late K. Kanakaraju, B.A. and N. E. Vijayaraghavachariar, M.A., L.T., of Kumbakonam, who worked strenuously for the improvement of the school, the first two in the early years of its starting and the last in the year 1911. There were toasts for the "King Emperor," the "Mother India," "the Illustrious Founder and the Vatchavaya family," the "institution," the "old teachers and present teachers," the "old boys and the present boys," duly proposed and responded to. A common dinner was arranged for all the old teachers and the present teachers and the old boys and the present boys. About 100 old boys and some old teachers attended the celebration. The Telugu Drama, "Gayopakhyanam," of Chilikamarthi Lakshminarasimham Garu of Rajahmundry and Shakespeare's "Tempest" were enacted, the former of which elicited the full appreciation of the audience.

Municipal High School, Walajapet.—The school sports were held and conducted in a public manner and with great *ecolat*, on the 5th instant. All the pupils of the school, and all the teachers and several of the leading gentlemen of the place including the Chairman of the Municipal Council were present on the occasion to witness the sports. The Manager of the Municipal Office and the Sub-Inspector of Police with an ex-Councillor were chosen to be judges in the sports. The sports commenced precisely at 8 A.M. and continued till 10 when many of the interesting items of the programme were gone through such as, Potato race, Running race, throwing the cricket ball, kicking the football, long jump &c. Owing to extreme heat of the sun, the remaining items of the programme were postponed to the evening when again all assembled on the play-ground and items like long and high jump, Mathematics race and Pot race were gone through. In some of these especially long and high jumps the competition was very keen and Ratnam and Sivasankaran of the V Form and Sarangan and Venkatraman of the III Form distinguished themselves very creditably and scored off several of the prizes.

XXI

The Anniversary of the Municipal High School Juvenile Association came off with great *ecolat* on the evening of Friday the 7th instant, under the presidency of A. Upendra Pai, Esq., B.A.

The proceedings of the evening commenced exactly at 5 P.M. with welcome songs by three children of the school. This over, some very interesting items of the programme were gone through such as scenes from Shakespeare's "As You Like It," sermon on "Mother Hubbard," a Tamil Farce, a Court scene—"Daniel versus Dish-clout," and a Court scene in Telugu—"Kamalakanthudu." The pupils who acted their several parts in scenes from "As You Like It" and from Telugu "Kamalakanthudu" exhibited their histrionic powers most admirably well and excited laughter from the audience present.

After this was over, the Annual Report of the Association was read by the Secretary, which showed improvement in all directions. After the reading of the Report, the President distributed the prizes which consisted of very interesting and fancy articles.

The President amidst loud cheers made a very interesting and impressive speech. He was then garlanded and bouquets and flower balls were distributed to the several gentlemen present. The meeting was brought to a close by the singing of the National Anthem and the proposal of three cheers to their Gracious Majesties—the Emperor and the Empress of India.

Board Secondary School, Arni (N. Arcot).—The annual prize-distribution of the Board Secondary School, Arni, was celebrated recently with great *ecolat* in the school premises with M.R.Ry. O. S. Deva Raja Iyer A.V.L., B.A., B.L., District Munsif, in the chair. A very large gathering of local vakils and gentlemen was present.

Of the many interesting items in the programme such as singing, recitation, wit and humour, dialogues, etc., the enactment of the Trial Scene from the Merchant of Venice in a newly formed theatrical hall by the pupils of 1st, 2nd and 3rd Forms is a distinguishing feature of the times and first of the kind in the annals of the school. The neatness of arrangement, the splendour of decoration, the sweetness of music, the boldness and cleverness of the actors, the clearness of articulation, and the liveliness of the theatre among others left a very touching impression in the minds of the audience.

Many useful books were presented to the actors and to pupils of distinction. The financial condition of the school is satisfactory. The building is neat and commodious. The co-operation of the staff is highly creditable. The proceedings terminated with the singing of the National Anthem and praying for the success of the British arms.

Madanapalle High School.—At a meeting of the Teachers' Association of the Madanapalle High School held recently, it was unanimously resolved that a large sized photo of the late Hon'ble Mr. Gopalakrishna Gokhale, C.I.E., be subscribed for from the funds of the Association and presented to the institution and that the management be requested to place the photo in a prominent place in the School or College buildings. The Association voted a sum of twenty-five rupees for this purpose.

The Muthialpet High School Literary Association.—The 7th Anniversary of the Muthialpet High School Literary Association was celebrated in the School Hall recently in the presence of a large gathering of gentlemen with Rao Bahadur T. Vijayaraghava Charya, Revenue Officer, in the chair. The proceedings began with a prayer in Sanskrit followed by recitations in English containing humour, pathos and eloquence which were much appreciated by the audience.

The Secretary Mr. C. S. Venkataraman, B.A., L.T., then read the annual report which was a good record of useful work turned out by the Society in the year 1914-15.

Then Mr. V. Sitapati Naidu, B.A., L.T., delivered an eloquent and inspiring address on 'War as an agent of Civilisation' in the course of which he succeeded in showing the war to have been a powerful agent in the spread of a superior civilisation by making references to the great wars in the Epic India, and to the stories of the triumph of Greek civilisation in the East and of Roman civilisation in Europe. Passing on to the modern period from the mediæval he emphasised the destructive ideas of the French Revolution which were then rightly abhorred by the civilised nations of Europe, though within a century after the Revolution the same ideas helped to bring about desirable changes in the life and constitution of every European nation. And referring to the present war he said that is a war mainly for solid principles like justice, truthfulness, nationality, and democracy, and the German militarism will undoubtedly be destroyed by the Allies.

The Chairman in concluding the proceedings of the day congratulated the Association upon the excellent work it had done which, he said, would have roused the envy of any college association in the days of his scholastic life; and said that he was glad to learn that High School boys are learning to think clearly and speak without notes, that there were not these facilities in the schools while he was a boy, and that was the reason why manuscript eloquence is so rare in the land and a Madras Parliament is believed to be a necessity for men like him, which would disappear when the present day pupils enter public life. He concurred with the lecturer on all points and remarked that though no one would doubt the moral results of the war, the material results would be depressing for the time

being; but with the Allies' victory which would be ere long, matters would settle down and a slight agreeable change might arise in the citizenship of the world.

After the garlanding of the Chairman and the lecturer, and the usual vote of thanks to both of them proposed by the Secretary, the meeting terminated.

The Government Training School, Trichinopoly.—The premises and the lower hall presented a very gay appearance having been artistically decorated.

The anniversary of the Teachers' Association attached to the school was held recently, M. R. Ry. M. Ramaswami Iyengar Avl., B.A.L.T., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Trichinopoly, presided. Among the audience, in addition to the gentry and representatives of the local institutions most of the Elementary School Masters of the town were present. After music recitations, etc., by the members, the annual report was read by the Secretary. This was followed by a lecture by M. R. Ry. T. V. Swaminatha Iyer Avl., B.A., L.T., First Grade Pleader, Trichinopoly, on the "Purpose of Education and the Functions of the Educator" which was full of very practical and useful advice to teachers. The Chairman's remarks were impressive and very instructive.

M. R. Ry. K. V. Ramakrishna Iyer of the local Bar also addressed the audience giving very useful suggestions to Village School Masters. The successful function was brought to a close with the distribution of flowers, *pan supari*, etc., the usual votes of thanks, the singing of the National Anthem, and three lusty cheers for their Imperial Majesties.

CALCUTTA.

Bowbazar High School.—The annual prize-distribution of the school was held recently in the hall of the school premises under the presidency of the Hon'ble Mr. Justice B. K. Mallik, I.C.S. There was a fair attendance including some European Professors of the St. Xavier's College. Babu Rajendra Nath Ghosh, B.A., Head Master, read the annual report which showed good progress made by the institution. Next followed the recitations which were highly appreciated by the audience. The President then awarded the Chandra and Bural medals to Sankar Nath Datta, who stood first in the aggregate and in English and the Prem Chandra Auddy medal to Karrik Chandra Mukherjee, who stood first in Sanskrit, among the successful students of this school at the Matriculation Examination of 1913. He then distributed several prizes consisting of useful books among the meritorious students of the school and gave some wholesome advice to the boys and congratulated the managing committee and the teaching staff on the success of the school. He proposed to

award next year a medal to the student who would do his best in Indian History.

An Indian Public School.—Although it is anticipated that the Hastings House School, Calcutta, to which the Hon. Mr. Hornell, Member for Education in the Government of Bengal, recently referred as something in the nature of an experiment, will be opened in July next, the scheme in its entirety is still under the consideration of the Secretary of State. The school will, it is understood, open its doors on a more or less temporary basis, though it is not believed that any objection to the main features of the scheme will be raised by the authorities above.

The school, as has been previously stated, is intended to cater for the educational needs of the sons of Indian gentlemen and the curriculum will follow as nearly as possible that in operation in public schools in England. The headmaster has already been appointed in the person of Mr. W. F. Papworth, who is the senior Assistant Master of the Bishop Cotton's College at Simla. He will have as staff, a European Assistant Master and a number of Indian graduates.

The school is to be a residential one and day scholars will also be received. The present arrangements cater for about fifty boarders, for whose accommodation dormitories and dining-rooms have been provided in the Hastings House, the educational work being carried on the ground floor in what were the Political Officers' quarters. The health of the boarders will receive strict attention and a hospital ward will be erected in the grounds, the nurses finding their quarters on the premises.

A prospectus of the school is to be issued shortly. On the opening of the school, boys between the ages of 10 and 18 years will be accepted, but after three years' working, the maximum age limit will be reduced to 13 years. As to fees, the boarders are to pay Rs. 100 per month and the day scholars Rs. 25. The establishment of what was referred to at the last meeting of the Legislative Council, as a particular type of school for a particular type of man, appears to have been justified, if the number of people who have applied for particulars of the scheme, may be taken as a criterion and the issue of the prospectus will probably have the effect of attracting to the school its full complement of scholars.

PUNJAB.

Punjab Agricultural College.—A new course has commenced in the Punjab Agricultural College at Lyallpur in place of the three years' diploma course, and has now been in operation for the past nine months.

This course is divided into two parts, each of two years' duration; the first part is complete in itself, and will qualify the students who successfully pass through it for employment in the Agricultural

Department as Agricultural Assistants on a starting pay of not less than Rs. 60 per mensem. The entrance qualification for this course is the Entrance Examination of the Punjab University. This course will consist for the most part of tuition in agriculture, but lectures in English, arithmetic, agricultural chemistry, agricultural botany, and entomology are also being given. The course includes practical workshop instruction in the college workshop as well as instruction in veterinary science and land surveying. The fee for the first two years' course will be Rs. 6 per mensem for all Punjabi students and Rs. 9 per mensem for all students from Native States and foreign provinces. The hostel fee will remain as hitherto, namely, Rs. 32 per annum. The subscription for games, societies, etc., is Rs. 7 for the year. A Leaving Certificate will be granted on the results of an examination to be held at the end of the course. Ten Government scholarships of a value of Rs. 6 per mensem will be given each year to students who are members of agricultural tribes on the result of an examination which will be conducted by the college staff at the Agricultural College on 8th instant. The examination may be either written or oral or both. A number of other scholarships and medals are given in this and the second part of the course: for full details concerning them reference may be made to the new prospectus and syllabus, copies of which will shortly be available from the Principal of the College.

In addition to the course detailed above, there will be given a further two years' course for the diploma of Licentiate in Agriculture. The entrance qualification to this second course will be a first class Leaving Certificate for the first part. In the second course tuition will be given in more advanced agriculture and systematic instruction in the science of chemistry, botany, entomology and engineering as applied to agriculture, as well as in land revenue and veterinary science. The scientific tuition in the second part will be approximately of the same standard as that given in the old three years' diploma course.

At the end of the course there will be an examination conducted jointly by the college staff and external examiners, for the diploma of Licentiate in Agriculture. The diploma of L. Ag. will qualify the holders for promotion into the higher grades of the agricultural service and Agricultural Assistants desiring to rise above Rs. 80 per mensem will ordinarily be required to obtain this qualification.

The Principal of the College keeps a register for the employment of old students both for employers and for students requiring employment. He will be glad to assist landlords to obtain suitable assistants or old boys of the college to obtain employment.

The fees for the second course will be Rs. 12 per mensem for Punjabi students and Rs. 15 per mensem for students from Native States and foreign provinces.

Five Government scholarships of a value of Rs. 12 per mensem tenable for two years will be given on the result of the Leaving Certificate Examination at the end of the first part to students who are sons of cultivators or owners of land in the province.

The new session will commence on July 20th, 1915, and students who wish to join should send in their application to the Principal at once; those eligible for scholarships through their Deputy Commissioner.

Education among Sikhs.—The foundation-stone of the Malwa Khalsa High School, Ludhiana, was laid by Sant Atar Singh of Mastuana on the Baisakhi day, before a very large and crowded gathering. His Highness the Maharaja Sahib of Nabha through his Private Secretary sent a donation of Rs. 45,000 towards the building fund. The work is started in right earnest and will, it is hoped, be finished before long. The situation of the school is all that can be desired, being situated on the Water Works Road in the Civil Lines.

TRAVANCORE.

S. S. L. C.—The Travancore Government have expressed their views about the School Final Certificate.—His Highness' Government have fully considered the subject, and they concur with the Director of Public Instruction in his view that it is undesirable to revive the system of endorsing School Leaving Certificates for the public service. As the certificate given to each candidate contains the necessary information about his progress in the school, Heads of Departments cannot feel any difficulty in disposing of applications for employment. The Government are also of opinion that to accept the opinion of the member and issue certificates only to those who secure a certain "fixed percentage of marks" would be to act against the essential feature of the School Leaving Certificate Scheme.

COCHIN.

Vernacular Schools.—The Cochin Durbar have ordered a reduction of the course in Vernacular schools from 5 to 4 years, as a necessary and salutary change. The Director of Education had clearly set forth all the grounds in its favour and there is no argument against it. The proposal has been approved and all Infant classes in the Vernacular school of the State will be abolished from the date of the re-opening of these schools after the midsummer holidays in 1920. They have also directed the raising of the minimum pay of teachers in the Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular schools with the modification that the minimum pay of Teachers in Anglo-Vernacular schools might be fixed as Rs. 12 for (class infant) as suggested by the Director of Education, since a decidedly better class of men are required for Anglo-Vernacular schools.

With the abolition of the Infant classes in Vernacular schools the minimum pay of teachers in Vernacular schools will be fixed at Rs. 10—12 and in Anglo-Vernacular schools at Rs. 12 (for class infant). The Director of Education has been requested to give effect to the above proposals from the date of the re-opening of the schools after the midsummer holidays in 1920. The school masters have now a slight improvement in their pay on giving which the Durbar are to be congratulated. We have no doubt that the reform now undertaken in education in the State will show a decided improvement.

MYSORE.

Indian Institute of Science.—The fifth annual report of the Council of Indian Institute of Science submitted to the Viceroy as Patron recites among other things that in August 1912 the Auditor brought to the notice of the Council, that in connection with the erection of the institute building estimates had been greatly exceeded and that the Council stood committed to expenditure which was much beyond its visible resources. A detailed enquiry followed and at the meeting held on 26th and 27th August the Council resolved to request the Director to furnish explanations regarding certain matters at the same time to acquaint the Patron with the situation which had arisen. The Director who was then on leave immediately returned to India and having appealed to the Patron declined to discuss the matters with the Council in December. Difficulties arose in the institute with the students of the Applied Chemistry Department who were dissatisfied with arrangements made for their work. The Council requested that this question as well as other difficulties might be referred to the committee of the enquiry which the Patron had decided to appoint. The report of the Committee of Enquiry has not been published. In accordance with the suggestions made by the Patron, arrangements have been come to with Dr. Travers and Prof. Rudolf under which they have both retired. A note on finances of the institute was prepared and submitted to the Committee of Enquiry with the request that they would ask the Government of India to make the grant of 5 lakhs to the institute to enable the programme of the building work to be carried out as originally contemplated. The Government of India have made a grant of 4 lakhs to the institute.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Education in India.—Four Provincial Reports.—There is much that is of interest in the various provincial reports on educational progress for the year 1913-1914.

Taking the Punjab first, we find that 553 new elementary schools were opened and the number of pupils rose by 27,647, bringing the total number of

children receiving instruction in primary schools to well over a quarter of a million. Efforts have been made in the direction of introducing a more practical curriculum and of shortening school hours, but the Lieutenant-Governor complains of the apathetic attitude of municipal councils towards elementary education, and says that grants for educational purposes are utilised for other objects. The problem of rural education has been taken in hand by the Director of Public Instruction, and arrangements made whereby students, while getting the benefits of education, are enabled to help their parents in their work. The aggregate amount spent on education during the year was 93 lakhs or nine lakhs in excess of the previous year, and 50 lakhs of this sum was contributed by the Government.

The most striking feature of the year in Assam was the abolition of fees in the middle vernacular and upper primary classes. Vernacular education is now entirely free. The result has been an increase of middle vernacular schools for boys from 36 to 47, and of the pupils reading in them from 2,796 to 5,244. The pay of lower primary school teachers was considerably increased, and liberal grants were given to local bodies to enable them to develop primary education and to improve the school buildings and equipment. Primary schools for boys increased from 3,534, with an enrolment of 148,278, to 3,760, with an enrolment of 161,730. Mention is made of an insistent demand for instruction in English in villages, and as to this Mr. Cunningham, the Director of Public Instruction, wisely says that the more general diffusion of English education would work for the advancement of the province. He alludes to the fear commonly felt that learning to read and write in English may spoil the villager for village life and the avocations of his forefathers, and points out that similar fears were entertained in England a century and-a-half ago, and completely answered by no less a personage than Dr. Samuel Johnson.

The Burma report for the same period records an increase in the attendance at boys' primary schools from 162,637 to 189,038, or an advance of 26,401 over that of the previous year. The total number of pupils in the primary stage in all classes of schools was 205,529 or 22.2 per cent. of the male population of school-going age. Aided schools rose

from 4,721 to 5,036. These schools are nearly all under indigenous management. During the year the experiment was tried of putting six selected deputy inspectors of schools on special duty to visit certain districts to find out whether the unregistered monastic schools were willing to be registered. The results exceeded expectations and 1,000 new schools, chiefly monastic, expressed their willingness to be registered on the understanding that moral education should form a part of the curriculum. Certified teachers are steadily increasing in number. There are now 3,354 trained teachers compared with 2,891 last year. Facilities are provided for helping village schoolmasters to qualify in school management and a scheme has been sanctioned under which qualified village schoolmasters of more than average attainments are allowed, with the approval of deputy inspectors of schools, to hold classes for instructing teachers in school management.

In the United Provinces the total expenditure on education from all sources rose from Rs. 1,21,19,651 to Rs. 1,28,80,090. The expenditure from provincial revenues, excluding grants, rose by about two lakhs, while that from municipal and district funds rose by about Rs. 75,000 and Rs. 24 lakhs respectively. The number of scholars in primary schools rose by about 21,000 from 347,354, and the average attendance by nearly 18,000. This increase, it is stated, was confined entirely to board schools. The attendance in aided schools was practically stationary. The number of training classes was raised during the year from 112 to 184, funds were set aside for an addition of 92 classes, plans for three new normal schools were under preparation, and the courses at both normal schools and training classes came under revision. Grants for improvement of school buildings aggregating just under 15 lakhs were made towards the close of the year. Anglo-Vernacular schools increased from 196 to 201, high schools numbered 123, and English middle schools 78. The scholars attending both classes of schools increased by about 2,000 from 44,556. There was an increase of about 5,000 in the number of girls under instruction in public schools, the lower primary classes accounting for almost the whole of the increase. As regards the education of Mahomedans, the resolution says that "it now rests with the community to take advantage of the facilities which will be placed at its disposal."—*India*,

The Educational Review.

Another well-known South Indian educationist has just retired from service. Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatartihara Iyer, B.A., I.S.O., has according to the rules of Public Service had to retire, though he is yet much stronger and much more capable of arduous public work than many gentlemen in the service. It is a pity that red tape requires a man, however efficient, to retire at a certain age and yet permits another who may be sans teeth, sans powers of vigorous locomotion to stick on because he has not reached a certain age. We, however, hope that Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer's restless energy will drive him on to undertake, off his bat as it were, schemes of educational improvement in South India.

Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer was a student of the Kumbakonam College in the seventies of the last century when that College was under the guidance of Mr. Porter and Mr. Gopal Row, far and away the leading institution in the Presidency and the alma mater which nourished the brains of men who have become the leading lights of all departments of work in the Madras Presidency and beyond. Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer passed the third in the first class in the University Matriculation of 1873 and took a high place in the first class in the F. A. of 1875. He passed B.A. in 1878 high enough, but in the second class. Though he was one of the best mathe-

maticians of his set and a favourite pupil of Mr. Porter's (the writer of this sketch was also a student of the Kumbakonam College in those days and could speak to some extent with authority on these facts) the accident of illness prevented him from taking a degree as his talents merited. Soon after he took his B. A. degree, young Pranatartiharan was made Headmaster of the Taylor High School, Narsapur, at a time when the Inspector of Schools had just certified that the school was "the embodiment of every possible defect." Two years later the Inspector of Schools remarked, "it bids fair to be one of the most successful schools in the Division." Being an enthusiastic devotee of physical culture he also established a Gymnasium and Cricket Club. In 1883 when Mr. Munro left the Division, he wrote of him: "This officer has done very valuable work in making a first rate out of a poor school." His work at Narsapur was characterized by enthusiasm inspired by love of work so that his name is enshrined in the loving remembrance of its people to-day. When in 1885 it was proposed to send him to Bellary, the Taylor High School Committee wrote to the Government, "The withdrawal of Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer from the school which has, after many years of decline, risen again to prosperity from his tact, ability and commendable management, will be a serious blow to education in this part of the Godavari District," a prophecy which



M.R.Ry. Rao Bahadur A. C. PRANATARTIHARA IYER AVL., B.A., I.S.O.

became only too true. Another monument of his activity he left behind him at Narsapur was an Agri-Horticultural Society. Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer's work at Bellary was equally brilliant and Mr. H. B. Grigg, Director of Public Instruction, gave him in 1890 a place in the Provincial Service and made him an Assistant Inspector of Schools. For ten years he was Assistant Inspector of Schools in various divisions and did much in raising the tone of inspection work. His reports indeed furnished from time to time numerous suggestions to the Department of a valuable nature for incorporation in its own administration reports. His efficiency as an Assistant Inspector was finally acknowledged in 1904 by his being given charge of the Presidency Division. Soon in accordance with the established policy of the Education Department, *i. e.*, if a man is very efficient as an Inspector, make him immediately a Lecturer, and as soon as he has made his mark as a Lecturer, make him again an Inspector, Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer was made Chief English Lecturer, Rajahmundry College. Here he did most valuable work, as acknowledged by the Principal in his report on the working of the College.

In those days Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer contributed a few striking articles in the *Educational Review*, reviewing the whole policy of public education and suggesting useful lines of reconstruction. These articles attracted the notice of the late Mr. G. H.

Stuart, D. P. I., and of Mr. Orange, Director-General of Education. In 1905, Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer was made Inspector of Schools, and in three years Deputy Director of Public Instruction, being, next to the late Dr. Satyanathan, the only Indian who has risen to this eminence. The time when he held this high office was a period when the organization of education in this Presidency was reform totally and how much of the credit of all this work was due to the initiative of Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer, the public are not in a position to know; only we have the Government's acknowledgment of his official work in their award to him of the titles of Rao Bahadur and the Imperial Service Order. In presenting the first-mentioned *sannad* at the Coronation Durbar, the Collector of Madras said of Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer: "In all the appointments he has held he has manifested exceptional zeal and activity in the public service and he has earned the confidence of his superior officers by his sound judgment and his broad and enlightened views in educational matters." And later, when His Excellency Lord Pentland decorated him with the Imperial Service Order, His Excellency said that 'his (Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer's) long and efficient work in the cause of education in this country had earned for him the respect and gratitude of his superiors and of the Government, while the wise and beneficial influence which he had exercised as an Inspector in the Educational Service had done much to raise

and maintain at a high level the educational ideals of Southern India. His work since the year 1908 has been in the heavy Circle which included the Presidency Town where his reputation had further increased and he had won the respect of everybody.'

Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer is the only Indian who has been in every branch of the educational service—schools and colleges, inspection and direction; but it is as Inspector he has longest worked and will be best remembered by the Madras Educational public. He has been in charge of almost every Circle in the Presidency and laboured hard for the improvement of education, both secondary and elementary, and the promotion of school life in all its phases. As Inspector, he was not a mere fault-finder, but a hearty fellow worker. He recognised the difficulties of both staff and management and dealt sympathetically with them. His criticisms have always been of a constructive nature and any improvement effected in pursuance of them always met with his prompt recognition and encouragement for further progress. His motto to the teachers has always been "Gladly wolde he lerne and gladly teche," and he organised, among other things, with great success a scheme of lectures to the Elementary teachers of Madras on the lines of the English University Extension lectures.

Between the years 1907 and 1914, Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer has served in a number of educational committees which considered the reorganization of

education—elementary, secondary and collegiate—and there has been no educational reform in recent years but has been originated or moulded by him. In all these committees Mr. Pranatartihara Iyer has led the party of moderate reformers, quite sympathetically alive to the importance of up-to-date methods but at the same time vividly realizing the special difficulties of the pupils of our schools; he was neither a red radical nor a reactionary. The last marks of esteem the Government showed his achievements were, first, his appointment as their representative in Delhi on the Select Committee which considered the question of Provident Fund in Schools, secondly, sending him as their delegate to the Educational Conference held at Ranchi last year by the Government of Bihar and Orissa, where also his services were highly appreciated, and thirdly his delegation as witness before the Royal Commission on Public Services in India. The remarkable evidence which he gave on this last mentioned occasion shows that years of official discipline had not a whit affected his sturdy independence; he stood up manfully for the rights of Indians in the Educational Department of public service. It is a strange irony of fate that an officer of this exceptional merit and distinction, who was for years acting as a member of the Indian Educational Service has had to retire without being confirmed as such.

We regret to have to record the death, at a comparatively early age, of Mr. Rajarama Iyer, B.A., Principal of

The late Mr. Rajarama Iyer.

the Madura Native College. Mr. Rajarama Iyer was a native of the Madura District. He graduated B.A. from the Trichinopoly St. Joseph's College in 1884, while he was only 18 years old, and from that year till his death in April last, a period of 31 years, he was engaged in teaching work. This is a record of which any teacher may be proud. Except for a short period, during which he acted as Principal of the Calicut Zamorin's College, Mr. Rajarama Iyer's work was all done in the Native College at Madura and the High School out of which the College grew. From the point of view of South Indian education, there can be no doubt that his death is a great loss. He was one of those comparatively few teachers who are scholars. His general culture was wide, but he was a special student of History and English Literature. He was a fine and ready writer and a fluent and forcible speaker. His lectures in the College were very informing and were very much appreciated by his pupils.

Mr. Rajarama Iyer's activities were not confined to his College. He was connected with all public movements in Madura and in the Presidency. He was largely instrumental in promoting the success of the Hindu Permanent Fund and was connected with it for many years as Director, Secretary, and Treasurer. He was an ardent co-operator. He was the editor of the 'Madura Mail' (now the 'South Indian Mail') for several years. It was a labour of love which brought him no remuneration but a lot of obloquy as he did his work as editor fearlessly. His habits were simple and his manners were amiable. He was thus

deservedly popular not only in the College but amongst the general public also and was an influence for good all round. It is a pity that he did not live to enjoy that leisure and repose which he had earned by hard and strenuous work in the cause of education for over 30 years.

Accepting the recommendations of a majority of the Senate, the revival of the Matriculation misery. the Madras University Syndicate has promulgated rules for mechanically determining which holders of the Secondary School Leaving Certificates are unfit for being matriculated at Colleges. The Syndicate has thus deliberately reversed the policy of freedom initiated by Dr. Bourne, as soon as possible after he left our shores. We think that the action of the Syndicate will prove a shrewd blow against the spread of University education in the Madras Presidency, though we believe that the Syndicate does not realize this fact. We, therefore, desire to discuss this question in all its bearings. Lord Curzon's Universities Act, though it has proved a boon to Calcutta, Allahabad, Punjab and Bombay in that it has caused in those provinces a great expansion of University education, has proved otherwise in the Presidency of Madras. This is because the Senate and the Syndicate created in Madras under the provisions of that Act have developed a strange propensity—that of constantly reversing their own decisions in matters of educational policy. We need scarcely refer in proof of this to the treatment of the questions of compulsory teaching of

Vernacular literature in Colleges, of the regulations for B.A. and M.A., and of allowing examinations to be passed in compartments. Now the career of contradiction is crowned by the cancellation of the discretionary power given four years ago to Principals of Colleges to matriculate their own pupils. The educational policy recently followed in Madras reminds one of a gardener who plants a tree to-day, to-morrow pulls it up and plants its somewhere else and the day after to-morrow pulls it up again and plants it upside down.

With regard to this question of the assessment of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate, the Senate was divided into three parties, (1) those that represented the interests of Honours Colleges, (2) those that represented the interests of non-Honours Colleges, and (3) lawyers and politicians who represented "public" interests. Some of the last class were smarting under the notion that some pupils who earned fairly good marks were arbitrarily refused admission in some Honours Colleges and desired that Principals should be deprived of the power to refuse admission to pupils of average ability. Meanwhile it was found that the Principals of a few colleges did not exercise their discretion properly and the first class of Fellows—those that represent the Honours Colleges—desired and rightly so that such Principals should be temporarily deprived of absolute discretion in the matter. Now the net result is that *all* Principals have been deprived of discretion in choos-

ing whom they think fit for matriculation, but yet the right of refusing admission to the brightest pupil is still there!

Now the S. S. L. C. scheme was devised because it was found on the examination of the results of the Matriculation examination for a number of years that the bulk of candidates get just the pass marks or one more or less and that the continuance of any mechanical rule for separating the wheat from the tare was bound to cause the greatest hardship and injustice to pupils. One mark more and a young man can go on to B.A.; one mark less in any one subject and another young man is branded a failure for all time. To mitigate this injustice the S.S.L.C. was devised to enable people to assess the worth of a pupil from an examination of the whole of the certificate and investigation of how he has done during his whole school course. Now all this is gone and a pupil passes or fails according as he gets so much mark in each subject or one mark less; and this is because it is said that a few Principals—not even half-a-dozen—have admitted into their Colleges, pupils who in the opinion of the Syndicate, were unfit for a College course. If some Principals did so, they did themselves and their colleges harm but did no harm to the University. Even if otherwise to punish all Principals for the laxity of a few is scarcely proper.

Now we take up the question of the actual percentage of marks prescribed as enabling a pupil to join a college. The

school marks are to be moderated with reference to the examination marks and the result entered as the absolute mark of the pupil. This, to some extent, implies that marks awarded in all schools are of a similar standard of value. This is by no means true. We know of schoolmasters who are extremely severe in their marks—some perhaps under the belief that the school marks ought not to be more favourable to the pupil than his possible examination marks. We know also of schools where school marks are very high. But high or low, lax or severe, the marks of a pupil at school, *compared with the average school marks* is a certain indication of the worth of any pupil. The Syndicate's rule that the school mark after having undergone a mathematical operation has to be compared with the average examination mark is based on the wrong assumption that the school mark and the examination mark are comparable quantities. The school mark of a severe teacher or a generous one is the average of marks given day after day, hour after hour and represents the teacher's opinion of the standing of any pupil *with reference to his fellow-pupils*. The examination mark is a test of memory and of the pupil's attempt to dodge an examiner and pass off memorized matter as original thought. True both school marks and examination marks are given as percentages; but that is where their similarity ends. One can as well compare one with the other as one can compare a marble statue with a photograph for judging which represents the colour of the original best.

But this does not exhaust all our objections to the scheme. The Syndicate wants pupils to secure five marks more than the average in each subject to qualify them for admission to colleges. How this mystic number 5 was arrived at we have no means of knowing. It means that only pupils who are *much cleverer* than the average are fit for University studies. It means that the average pupil of the VI Form is unfit to enter the University. We think that this is an unmerited and severe condemnation of our Secondary school system. We do not know whether the Director of Public Instruction and the Inspectors of Schools—some of whom have worked so enthusiastically and so successfully for the modernization of secondary school education, will agree with this deliberate opinion of the Syndicate that secondary schools under their care are so badly organized that the average pupil is such a failure, that only those who get 5 marks more than the average are fit for a college education. We think that the Educational Department ought to resent this wholesale condemnation of secondary school work. In our opinion, the average VI Form pupil is fit to be admitted into colleges.

We have another point to urge. We know of numerous pupils who would certainly have failed under the old Matriculation system and would under the present rules of the Syndicate be debarred from being admitted into colleges, who yet were during the four years of liberty admitted into colleges, have

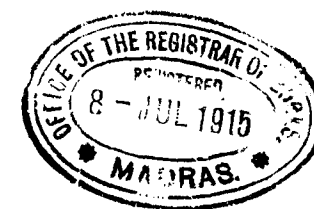
passed the Intermediate examination with credit and are studying for Honours. All such will under the present rules, become permanent failed Matriculates, standing monuments of the vacillating policy which has characterized educational reform in Madras during these dozen years. Moreover, we have already pointed that the bulk of school pupils get one mark more or less than the average. If colleges are to be closed to all who do not get 5 marks more than the average, there will be a tremendous shrinkage in the strength of colleges, especially in those of them that have no Honours Colleges. This is why we have characterized the rules as sure to prove a blow to higher education.

One more remark and we have done. At present the severe and the generous schoolmaster award marks during the course of school work, each according to his principles of marking and the marks obtained represent the genuine opinion of the teacher and the work of the pupils. But now the Syndicate has promulgated this rule, teachers will have to modify their methods of marking by awarding high marks to the boys likely to pass examinations and low marks to the rest. It is only thus that he can get the better boys to get 5 more than the average; for if he marks conscientiously, the bulk of his boys will be about the average and more will "pass." Thus these new rules will, in our opinion, prove a stimulus to "faking" marks on the part of teachers!

We offer our humble congratulations to the Honourable Sir C. Sankaran Nair on his appointment as Member of the Imperial Executive Council in charge of the portfolio of education. His sturdy independence of character and opinion is very well-known and will prove invaluable in the Council of the Viceroy. We are only sorry that he is called to this high office where there is so much possibility of doing good to his native country, at a time when the cruel war stands in the way of any large expansion of educational expenditure, when he cannot embark on any extensive schemes of educational development. Let us fervently hope that the war will end soon and the prosperity that follows in the wake of war will greatly increase India's income when Sir Sankaran Nair can introduce proposals intended to secure for the sons of India an education comparable in reality and worth with that given in England, France and the United States. Thus will he have served his motherland better than by his early political activity and his constant work for the betterment of social life in India. Sir Sankaran Nair has visited Europe often and knows how comparatively primitive is educational organisation in India. We are sure he will spend all his energy in reorganizing public education on an efficient modern basis and not be carried away by cant which passes so often for principle in the case of many amateur educational critics in this country.

The new Member for Education.

to the Honourable Sir C. Sankaran Nair on his appointment as Member



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A NOTE ON ENGLISH COMPOSITION IN OUR COLLEGES.

ENGLISH Composition in our Colleges is not a very pleasant subject. The memories it revives during the vacation in those who had to do the work in large classes are disagreeable in more ways than one. There is first of all the dull monotony of going through the piles of identical blundering essays week after week. And then there is the painful feeling of the enormous waste of power involved in the attempt to master a foreign language. But there is no use complaining against destiny. It is more profitable and wise to consider whether in the circumstances in which we are placed our methods are the best.

XXI

In the matter of methods to be adopted help is offered to us by innumerable American and English books on composition with the specimen copies of which we are constantly supplied by the kind publishers. But these amiable guides are too often of the nature of will-o'-the-wisp. They warn us against errors which our students never commit and say not a word about the errors which they do commit. They warn us against colloquialisms, provincialisms and slang words of which our students are blissfully ignorant. They bid us beware of hackneyed idioms and commonplace proverbs which perhaps many of our students come across here for the first time. Most of these books give us elaborate accounts of the theory of composition—an exhaustive analysis of the kinds of sentences, an enumeration of the intellectual and emotional qualities of style, a formidable array of the figures of speech, &c., &c., so dear to the pedagogic heart. But scarcely a practical hint. For instance a brief hint like "Never allow the students to use figures of speech" would be of far greater practical value, I think, than an explanation of oxymoron or litotes. Expounding rhetoric is one thing and giving practical suggestions which would be of use to us in improving a student's composition is another. The latter is a narrow but definite field and it is rarely that

a man who sets out to work here is not lured into excursions outside it.

It is good that we realise at the outset that after all our work in the composition classes can only be to a large extent negative. We can point out the students' errors, prune their excesses and show how they should not write. But the positive graces of style—sublimity, strength, perspicuity and all the rest of the rhetorician's catalogue—no mortal educator can call into existence. For all these the student should be left to his own devices, to his reading, his thought-power, his imagination and taste. No great prose-writer was ever the handiwork of his teachers of rhetoric. So all that we can do especially in the first two years of a student's college course is to enable him to express himself intelligibly and correctly. Therefore lectures on pathos, humour and strength can very well be spared at this stage. These topics should be taken up later in the more advanced classes where rhetoric is taught as a separate subject and the student's judgment and taste are trained.

Well, in this modest sphere of our work which is mostly of a negative nature how should we proceed? What is the most important point we should pay attention to in an under-graduate's composition? Is it the spelling or the idiom or the use of "shall" and "will" or the right use of the articles, the sequence of tenses or grammatical concord? Attention no doubt has to be paid to all of these. But what is the order of emphasis? And do these exhaust the list? Do they go to the root of the matter? Let us consider.

English spelling has an unenviable reputation among the languages of the world for irrationality. The spelling of each English word has to be learnt individually. And

doubts constantly arise in the case of the out of the way words even in the minds of great writers. George Meredith, I remember to have read somewhere, was not quite strong in spelling and was often set right in this important matter by the compositors. A great English writer like Meredith may have erred in spelling but an S. S. L. C. student in India should not. The latter loses half a mark, I believe, for every spelling mistake he commits in his answer papers. This is to make a fetish of the most irrational element in the language.

Next to spelling in irrationality come the idioms or the idiosyncrasies of the language. It is only a wide acquaintance with the language that enables a man to know the correct use of all its idioms. Like the spelling of each word each idiom has to be learnt individually and very few I believe know the correct use of all the idioms in the language. Under idiom we may also include those half idiomatic and half grammatical points like the use of the article, the use of "shall" and "will" and the sequence of tenses. These are so peculiar to the English language and so alien to our vernaculars that no examiner, I think, is justified in calling heaven and earth to witness the incapacity of the Indian student who has not quite mastered them. There are great Indian publicists, Editors of newspapers and Judges of the High Court who are perhaps not quite as strong in these matters as the heart of a pedagogue could wish; but their work in the administration of justice, in educating the public opinion of the country and in the framing of the laws in the Legislative Councils is not hampered thereby.

Now it may be asked, if the spelling does not matter in the least, if the correct

use of the article and the auxiliary does not matter much, if the sequence of tenses does not matter to a certain extent, what is it that matters? These form the traditional ground under the feet of the pedagogue. If that is cut away what can he stand upon? Well, we do not want to overthrow the pedagogue but only ask him to shift his position. We do not urge him to ignore the spelling, idiom, &c., of the language but to pay greater attention to deeper and more vital matters.

But what are these? Let us ask ourselves what is the greatest defect we find in the composition of an average student in the first or the second year of his college course. Apart from its puerile thought, silly comparisons and perhaps a bit of goody-goody morality, is it not its want of logical sequence that pains us most? The paragraphs are heaps of disjointed sentences having no unity and leading nowhere. No sentence naturally leads to the succeeding one with the result that no definite impression is formed on the mind after reading the paragraph. Too often the connecting links like 'for' and 'however' are omitted or wrong connecting links used as 'and' for 'but'. This is undoubtedly the most serious and fundamental defect in an under-graduate's composition which betrays an immature mind. This defect defeats the very purpose of composition—the expression of ideas. And unlike bad spelling and idiom this is a defect which can be most effectively removed by the teacher. For he has to deal here not with an individual idiosyncrasy of the language but with a rational element indispensable to all intelligible human speech. A logical arrangement of sentences showing their intimate connection with one another and relating to a single idea is the very basis of all

intelligible writing. Unless this foundation is well and truly laid the superstructure of idiom and usage, the ornamental tropes and figures and the flourishes of style will only be a dangerous encumbrance. Surely intelligibility should come before correctness and ornament.

But strange to say it is this foundation of logical sequence between sentences and paragraphs that receives the least attention in colleges. Wrong spelling, wrong idiom and wrong use of tenses are very often pointed out. They are frequently put on the black-board and ridiculed. In fifty per cent. of these cases the errors are probably mere slips which a careful revision on the part of the student might have removed. But the more fundamental error—the absence of arrangement and logical sequence which is not due to haste or want of revision but which is due to confusion of thought characteristic of an undeveloped and untutored mind—does not receive as much attention as it should.

To a certain extent the method of correcting the essays adopted at present in several colleges accounts for this state of things. A hundred or a hundred and fifty note-books are taken home by the lecturer and are returned within a week or fortnight with blue pencil marks below the errors in spelling, idiom, grammar, &c. The students rarely pay attention to the 'corrected' essays and are not to any great extent benefited by the labour of the lecturer. Errors in idiom and spelling can be easily underlined or otherwise marked but errors in logical sequence and arrangement do not easily lend themselves to such an arm-chair treatment. It is only by individual attention and personal talk with the student that these can be set right. The value of an essay corrected by

the lecturer with the student before him is very great. It is worth half-a-dozen essays which only receive a slipshod treatment.

The practical difficulties which lie in the way of adopting the method of individual attention are, of course, many, especially in the colleges which have to deal with large numbers it would almost be impossible. But a sort of compromise between the arm-chair treatment and the personal treatment can be adopted as in the Presidency College. The subjects for composition are announced beforehand and the students come prepared to the class. They have to write the essays in the class which extends over two consecutive hours. They are advised especially in the first year class to give a heading to each paragraph. The essay-books are taken home by the lecturers and the points to which the attention of the students has to be drawn are noted. The next week or fortnight when the books are returned and while the class is engaged in writing the next essay each student is called to the platform and his errors are explained to him. Of course it must be confessed that even under this system one man can deal effectively with only thirty or forty students at the most in the two hours. But usually the composition of the large classes is in the hands of two or three men and if they all sit in the lecture-room each in a corner and deal with their several batches the system can be made to produce good results.

It is on account of the want of some such individual attention and of the adoption of a wrong order of emphasis—namely, spelling, idiom, usage, grammar and logical sequence instead of exactly the reverse order that the essays of the most of the Intermediate students are little better than those of the High

School pupils. Above all I believe it is the meagre attention that is paid to the logical sequence and arrangement that is mainly responsible for the abrupt beginning, the disproportionate development, the awkward repetition and the inconclusive conclusion which make the average Intermediate essay at present so hideous.

D. SUBRAMANYA SARMA.

PRESIDENCY COLLEGE,
MADRAS.

THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCHES.

IV.

REPORT ON THE MAHOMEDAN AND BRITISH MONUMENTS, NORTHERN CIRCLE, 1913-1914.

The annual Progress Report of the Superintendent of the Mahomedan and British Monuments of the Northern Circle for the year 1913-1914 is an interesting record of valuable and commendable work. More than two lakhs of Rupees were spent on conservation work, of which 60,000 Rupees were devoted to the United Provinces, 51,000 to the Punjab and 100,000 to the Delhi Province. The buildings principally concerned were those of the former Mughal capitals, Agra, Delhi and Lahore. About 8,600 photographic prints of archaeological buildings and buildings of modern Indian architecture were taken and supplied to the Chief Commissioner of Delhi and a few private individuals. More than a hundred inscriptions were collected, nearly all of which are at Delhi and belong to the Mussalman period. Half a dozen publications were made, namely the Annual Progress Report for 1912-13, a monograph on the *Delhi Darbar Loan Exhibition of Antiquities*, a revised edition of the

Catalogue of the Delhi Museum of Archaeology, a guide to the *Historical buildings and gardens of Delhi*, a treatise on the *Kutb* area, and a description of *Nandan Mahal and tomb of Ibrahim Chishti* at Lucknow. The monuments of Shahjahanabad (Delhi) were listed, and a list of the Hindu, Buddhistic and Mahomedan buildings and works was for the first time completed. They included 409 buildings of which 196 are mosques, 8 tombs, 20 graves, 97 temples and 88 miscellaneous buildings, including the palaces and mansions of historic families. A grand programme of the archaeological works to be done in the new city of Delhi was submitted to the experts engaged in its planning, and it was pointed out how the monuments and glories of mediæval architecture could be utilized to the best advantage in the great imperial city in the process of formation. A number of interesting exhibits were acquired for the Delhi Museum, many of which were the property of the last Emperor of Delhi and were found in the palace after its capture in 1857. A portrait of Nadir Shah and one of Mirza Babar, a sword of Shah Abbas presented to Ali Mardan Khan, two *katahs* of Bahadur Shah II, which bear witness to the Emperor's fondness for the art of calligraphy, a portrait of Sayud Abdulla the King-maker a sword of Aurangzeb and two others of Shah Jahan and Shah Tamasp, are among the acquisitions.

A few words about the conservation work may not be unnecessary. At Agra a number of improvements were made in the garden of the *Taj Mahal*, amidst which may be mentioned the erection of six seats of Mughal pattern, three of sandstone and three of marble, by the Department, and twelve other seats by the Hon. the Maharajadhiraja of

Burdwan who visited the place. The old Mughal aqueduct taking water from the lifts west of the mosque to the old tank which supplied the fountains of the gardens was repaired. The tomb of Itamadu-d-Daulah which had been disfigured by the loss of a large number of inlay stones for which it was famous, was restored to its original perfection, about 8000 pieces having been replaced at a cost of nearly Rs. 4,000 and five months' labour of 30 workmen. A considerable improvement was made in the causeways, the *chaddars* and other features of Akbar's tomb at Sikandarrah. The generosity of the Maharaja of Burdwan vented itself here also in the form of a hanging lamp and a *chaddar* or covering for the sarcophagus. At Fatehpur-Sikri much clearing of debris and strengthening of masonry was made in the *Sarai*. In the province of Benares commemorative tablets were fixed in a number of military cemeteries. The tomb of Cornwallis at Ghazipur was placed under a special establishment.

Passing on to the province of the Punjab, the Report enumerates first the conservation work made in Lahore. The surroundings of the Hazuri Bagh and Jama (Badshahi) Masjid were improved, the wooden ceilings of Ranjit Singh's pavilion were renewed, and the Bari Khwabgah, the Mughal plaster work of which had been covered by later Sikh and British additions of doubtful value, was to a large extent restored to its indigenous beauty. The enclosure surrounding the tomb of Nur Jahan at Shahdara was completed, and minor repairs carried out in the tomb of Jahanghir. An inscription tablet in English and Urdu was fixed on the old gate-way in the bazaar of Shalamar gardens, which gave entrance to the

Rang-Mahal, the house of Sadullah Khan, Shah Jahan's Prime Minister. The tomb of Shaikh Chilli at Thanesar and the mosque of Kabul Bagh at Panipat received similar attention.

In Delhi province it was that the conservation work was most elaborate. The *Kutb* areas and surroundings engaged a good deal of the archæologist's attention. The masonry drain at the back of the *Kutb* mosque was improved; the great northern Court of Alauddin Khilji was grassed, planted and laid out with paths; the original stone base of the unfinished *minar* was reconstructed to its full extent; the missing portions of the paved flooring of the eastern colonnade of Altamash were replaced. Excavations were made around Altamash's tomb which led to the revelation of an unknown *tykhana*. "It is recorded that the tomb was built by Altamash in his own life-time and that it was never finished. This conclusion has been arrived at by most authorities from the condition of the dome. It seems not improbable that on the Emperor's death the four walls had been completed from the floor of the *tykhana* up to the springing of the dome. The main floor of the tomb or, as it may also be called, the ceiling or vaulting to the *tykhana*, had been left unfinished till the interment ceremony had taken place. This would render the ceremonies, additional to burial, and to the formation of the lower sarcophagus, an easier matter. The place was used before the Emperor's death, no doubt as a place of prayer; he might even have visited it himself, and these reasons may account for the addition of the plaster to the *tykhana* walls. The latter may also have been made to look presentable for the interment ceremonies. But "le roi est mort vive le roi," and Altamash is

quickly forgotten in the coronation ceremonies of his successor. More than that, national chaos prevails for the next 30 years. Ruler follows ruler in quick succession and Altamash's tomb remains unfinished. Either funds for the completion of the vaulting of the *tykhana* in dressed stone are lacking, or no one has the leisure for the work in the general turmoil. The *tykhana* is filled in with rubble, sorry makeshift, and the false tomb or cenotaph placed above. The stairs are closed up. Firoz Shah records that he repaired 'the stair-case to the dome;' for he refers to the stair recently opened out, for the building shows no sign of stairs ascending to the roof." Improvements were made in Alauddin's College and its vicinity, and a gangway was constructed from it to the south prayer chamber of Altamash.

Elsewhere in the Delhi province, conservation was not so expensive as in the *Kutb*, but none the less useful. The Bijai-Mandal and the Begampuri Masjid were repaired. "The function of the Bijai-Mandal has not yet been explained by any ancient records, and the theory that it was a royal pavilion, situated within the city of Jahan Panah and used by the king as a spot wherefrom he could review his troops or witness games and elephant fights, seems the most likely theory. This and the Begampuri Masjid are the largest buildings within Jahan Panah, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the extensive ruins, which cover the high ground at this spot, indicate the former position of the royal residence of this city of Delhi. Jahan Panah dates from the first quarter of the 14th century and the building under discussion (Bijai Mandal) antedates the Begampuri Masjid by some 50 years." Another important work was the execution of certain repairs

the object of which was to prevent any danger to the pyramid of cells on which the Lat of Asoka, brought by Firoz Shah from Khizrabad, stands. At Tughlaqabad the citadel was improved in various parts, and at Mehrauli the curious building known as *Jahaz Mahal*. According to one theory this building was so called owing to its likeness to a ship or to its proximity to large sheets of water; but as a matter of fact it "cannot by any stretch of imagination be likened to a ship," although it is near a great tank named the Shamsi Talab, famous in Muhammadan folklore. "Another story in connection with it is that it was built by some merchant who achieved wealth by conveying merchandise on the Indian rivers by means of his boats. The chief function of the building appears to have been a religious one, a mosque forming the western wall of the court, the other sides being occupied by *dalans*, with an imposing gate on the east side. The angles of the roof are emphasised by four red sandstone *chattris*, the one at the south-east corner bearing a Hindu inscription, perhaps carved by some mason, and dated Samwat 1565." A number of modern additions and alterations were removed from this building, adding greatly thereby to its general appearance and bringing to light a series of underground rooms running round its base. At Khairpur the tombs of Muhammad Shah Lodi and Sikander Lodi, as well as the Lodi bridge near the latter, were repaired. At Purana Qila or Indrapat the citadel-wall facing north-west and including the Talaqi gate was repaired and strengthened, and a new and fascinating entrance to the city which had been hitherto hidden from view was brought to light. In Delhi Fort also various repairs were undertaken and carried

out. A novel experiment was made in the fitting out of two of the western rooms of the Khwabgah so as to represent apartments of the Mughal period. "The rooms chosen for the purpose have been fitted with glazed screens and doors and the latter will be covered externally with ornamental copper-plating, an illustration of which will be given in a subsequent volume of this Report. The floors are laid with the thick white mattress, still seen in the houses of Indian gentlemen, and on this have been strewn rich velvet and Persian rugs, *takias* and other smaller pillows. The original decoration of the walls is in excellent order, while in the niches have been placed small Chinese vases of the type loved by the Mughals and so often illustrated in the old paintings. On the *masnads* have been laid a sword or dagger, as if ready for use, with various smaller objects such as trays for sweetmeats, fly-whisks, chess-boards, and the other appurtenances of the apartment of a person of distinction."

One of the most interesting sets of historical memorials to receive the attention of the department is the old *Kos Minars* or Mughal milestones. Enquiries were made with the help of the Local Governments of the United Provinces, the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, the Rajputana administration and the Kapurthala and Patiala darbars, and the positions of these *minars* were fixed. Tower-like in structure, these *minars* are usually at intervals of between 2 miles 3 furlongs and 2 miles 5 furlongs. Many of them are in ruins and have been repaired.

Of the 108 inscriptions collected during the year, about 43 belong to the Mughal and pre-Mughal period. The pre-Mughal inscriptions are comparatively few. A Persian inscription at Kali Masjid, for example, at

the Turkman gate, belongs to the reign of Firoz Shah and states that the mosque was built by one Junan Khan, better known as Khan Jahan, and requests the visitors to bless the king and the founder. An inscription of 1494 at Khairpur Naumaha (Delhi) records that the dome was built in the time of Sikandar Lodi by the help of God. One of 1415 at Babarpur Bazidpur (Delhi) records a visit by a certain saint, Khwaja Gulam Naqshband. Another inscription dated 1246 mentions Hazrat Bibi Fatima Sani, "one of the most devout, religious and pious Persians of age." Two other records (104 and 105) mention two other saints. Inscription 8, dated 1638—48, praises the fort buildings of Delhi and the dates of its foundation and completion. Inscription 11, dated 1654, records that the mosque *Dai Wali* was built in that year. Inscription 25 is noteworthy as it mentions the foundation of a mosque as well as a school. Inscription 62 on the arches of the Jama Masjid at Delhi is dated 1650 and records the praises of the Emperor Shah Jahan and says that the mosque was built at the expense of ten lakhs of Rupees. Inscription 102, dated 1575-6, records that in the time of Emperor Akbar, the Abdun Nabi's mosque was built by Shaikh Abdun Nabi who was the mine of learning. The inscription was composed by Faizi.

SOME ETHNOLOGICAL PUBLICATIONS OF MYSORE.

Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya of the Mysore Ethnographical Survey has issued four small pamphlets dealing respectively with the Telugu Banajigas, the Kunchigas, the Gānigas and the Dēnigas of Mysore. A superior and highly respected community, the Banajigas are most abundant in the region forming the Kolar, Mysore and Bangalore districts.

In the other five districts of the State they are comparatively rare, thereby shewing that their original movement into Mysore should have been from the Telugu land, in the east. The various theories which prevail about the origin of the caste prove, in spite of the differences in detail which they display among themselves, that the community was an immigrant one from the land further east and thus give a clue to the nature of their geographical distribution in the Mysore State. The term Banajiga is supposed to be derived from the Sanskrit Vanik, merchant, a theory which receives support from the fact that the Banajigas are essentially a trading community. A section of the caste, however, who style themselves *Balajas* explain their origin in a variety of half-religious legends. The term *Balaja* is considered by some to be really a corruption of Banajiga; but the Balajas themselves say that it signifies the descendants of Balargama, which they claim to be. Others among them say that their ancestor owed his existence in the world to a *Bali* or sacrifice which goddess Gauri performed of yore in consequence of her desire for ornaments! Dissatisfied with the ornaments given by her father Daksha, she performed, we are told, on the advice of Brahma, a yāga; and the result was the rise, from the sacrificial flames, of a person who wore glass bangles, turmeric and other articles of ornament, and who gave them to the fair performer of the sacrifice. The latter wore them and was so pleased with them that, in her divine generosity, she directed all women in future to adorn their person with them. The individual who thus rose in the flames and who became the indirect benefactor of the woman-kind was, we are informed, the ancestor of the Balijas! And as the Balijas owed their existence to Gauri they

came to be known as the Gauriputras or Gauravalu, from which the common term *Kavaras* has been derived by corruption. A third version, more prosaic than the other two but equally lacking in historic truth, is the theory that they were the descendants "of a king of the Magadha country called Bali or Balija or Subhakara, who was said to have been reigning in the country from 31 B.C. to 8 A.D." It hardly needs to be said that no great significance can be attached to these legends; but the second is interesting for the fact that it informs us why Gauri is the tutelary deity of the caste and why the making of bangles and pearl ornaments was the original occupation of the caste. However it might be, there is no question that the community immigrated from the Telugu country. The use of the caste title *Nayadu*, the belief in Mysore that they immigrated from Vijayanagar, the use of suffixes like Appa, Aiya, Amma and Akka to the names of individuals seem to clearly prove their immigration from the original Telugu home. The conclusion of some scholars is that they were a recent offshoot of the Kapu or Reddi caste; but it is more probable that they were a different community. The Balijas of Madras are, it is well-known, known to the Tamil people as *Vadugans* and *Kavarais*, and are divided into two great divisions,—namely the *Désas*, those descended from the Ngik chiefs of Madura, Tanjore, etc., and the *Pétas* or ordinary traders. In Mysore, according to Mr. Nanjundayya, no such distinction exists; but that such a distinction must have originally existed is proved by the claim of the Balijas of Mysore town to have immigrated from Vijayanagar as *Ravuttas* or warriors, by the legend among the *Nayadu* Balijas that they obtained the title "when, during the

XXI

zenith of the Vijayanagar rule, the king divided the whole kingdom into nine parts and placed at the head of each part a man of this caste under the title *Nayak*," and by the claim made by the Oppanā Balijas of Mysore city that they were originally sent into the Mysore country to collect the tribute due to Vijayanagar. The Balija immigration into Mysore is thus one of those gigantic immigrations of the Telugu race which were a common feature in the age of Vijayanagar rule and was due to the same circumstances, political, commercial and military, under which the Tottiyans and other *Vadugas* found themselves in the Tamil land in that period.

If the ethnographical history of the Balijas is deducible from the available materials, that of the Kunchigas—a branch of the Okkalu caste,—is not so clearly known. The Kunchigas have got a legend which bears a close resemblance to the Tottiya legend of early habitation in the north, of Mussulman oppression and of settlement in Vijayanagar. The period of their settlement in Vijayanagar is said to be S. 1226 (A.D. 1304); but they did not stay there long. For an unknown reason they "removed further south to Nandana Hosur in Chitaldrug District whence they migrated to Sera, which is still considered as the headquarters of this caste." The migration should, it seems to me, be attributed to the same spirit of political and commercial enterprise which characterised many a community in the Vijayanagar period. That the Kunchigas were originally a caste of enterprising traders seems to be demonstrated by their subsequent work in the Malnad. A number of them who were engaged in the lucrative trade of buffaloes emigrated to those parts. "Even now," says Mr. Nanjundayya, "they come to the maidan parts, buy buffaloes

and sell them in the Malnad where these animals are rather rare. Hence they are styled Mārōru or sellers, but they have their god in the Sira Taluk where they repair for periodical worship and have the same exogamous divisions as the other Kunchitigas in the maidan." (p. 2).

The Gāṇigas (Telugu *Gāṇḍla*, oil-mill) have an even still more obscure history. Some of them speak Canarese, others Telugu, and still others, Tamil; and it is difficult to say to what part they originally belonged. Their own theory is, like the theory of other communities, that they immigrated from the north "at a time beyond living memory." A Mysore nobleman, Mallaraje Urs, is said to have welcomed them to Bangalore, assigned them habitation in the market town and exempted them from house-tax. There is no material enabling us to say when this colonisation took place and who the nobleman mentioned above was. The same is the case with the Dēvāṅgas or weavers of the State. Mr. Nanjundayya gives the myths connected with them, but does not enlighten us on their movements in the past. From the linguistic standpoint they might be Telugus or Canarese; but whether they came from further north, as the other castes claim to have, it is impossible, from the materials at present available, to say with any degree of confidence or certainty.

Whatever might be the nature of the movements and migrations of these communities, their history, after their final settlement in particular areas, has always been the history of social and religious adjustments, of caste formations and caste conciliations or conflicts. These social and religious adjustments were almost universally due to the civilizing influences of Brahmanism. The general tendency has been to adopt the creeds and cults, the

habits and customs of the Brahmins, but the adoption has not been made too easily. Old customs and ideals, old notions and superstitions die hard, and Brahmanization has therefore been resisted, with success in some cases and with failure in others. On the whole, however, Brahmanical ideas and ideals have made remarkable headway, as a glance at the various birth ceremonies, marriage ceremonies, death ceremonies, etc., will show.

Taking the birth ceremonies, for instance, the idea among the Banajigas that the husband of a lady who is *enceinte* should abstain from the killing of animals, from carrying a corpse, from putting on a roof over a house, and from shaving, is evidently Brahmanical. In the idea of the mother's impurity for ten days after the child's birth, in the purification and naming ceremonials of the 11th day, and in other respects also we seem to hear the echo of Brahmanical customs. The Kunchigas invite Brahmin priests for naming the child and follow Brahmanical ceremonies, though it is the paternal aunt that places the child for the first time in the cradle and gives it a name. Among the Gāṇigas, the non-Lingayet sections perform the purificatory and naming ceremonies on the 11th day with the aid of Brahmins; but an old custom prevails among them, according to which a round stone is first rocked in the cradle before the child is laid on it, the idea being that the child should grow as strong and as enduring as that stone. Even the Lingayet Gāṇigas observe pollution for 10 days. On the 11th day, however, it is the Jangama priest that "purifies the house and gives a name to the child in the manner peculiar to the Lingayets." Among the Devangas pollution is observed only by the non-Lingayets. Both perform the purificatory ceremony on the

11th day, the Lingayets inviting a Jangama and the non-Lingayets a priest of their own caste. The Brahmin was usually called by the latter till recently, when caste pride led to its renunciation. It is an instance, not of a lack of Brahmanical influence, but of out-Brahmaning the Brahmin.

Passing on to the marriage customs and ceremonials, we find the same tendency to adopt the Brahmanical ones, the degree of adoption differing, of course, in different cases. Among the Banajigas marriages are either adult or infant, but the latter custom is becoming more popular. The optional character of a woman's marriage, however, remains still; but in the prohibition of widow marriage and strict laws against divorce and against conjugal infidelity the Brahmins have been closely imitated. Among the Kunchigas also infant marriages are becoming fashionable, widow-marriage prohibited except in a few places, and law of divorce made stricter. The Gāṇigās have been comparatively conservative. Both adult and infant marriages are in vogue among them, but they have clung with greater fondness to the former system. Similarly they have not given up the old notion that marriages are optional even in the case of women. They do not, however, allow widow remarriage. Among the Devangas also, marriage is adult or infant. It is moreover quite optional, and widow remarriage is more often perhaps practised than not. They seem thus to have resisted, with some success, the influence of Brahmanical ideas. So far as the actual ceremonials of marriages are concerned it is difficult, owing to the complex nature of the subject, to take up the case of each caste and analyse how far it is Brahmanical and how far it is not so. But the growing solemnity of the celebrations, the

five days' duration, the performance of the preliminary agreement of *Nischitartha*, the worship of Kalasas and ancestors preliminary to the tāli-tying, the part played by the milk-posts, the call to Arundhati, the sham pilgrimage to Benares and numerous other items demonstrate the common features, in the midst of widely different methods and orders of ceremonials; and these are evidently due to the imitation of the Brahmins. But from amidst these Brahmanical features some old quaint customs of a Dravidian type display themselves here and there. Among the Banajigas, for instance, the sister of the bridegroom gets a promise from him, immediately after the worship of the Arundhati star, that his first-born daughter would be given in marriage to her son. Two other curious customs among them are the making and worship of balls of earth from an ant-hill and the bridegroom's stealing some article like a brass vessel or a hatchet from his father-in-law's house. The Kunchigas also worship lumps of ant-hill earth placed at the foot of pandal posts. Among the Gāṇigās the bridegroom goes to the pandal with a dagger in his hand and keeps it till the conclusion of the ceremony.

The death ceremonies show the same principle of compromise or conflict of customs. Almost all of them bury their dead. The non-Lingayets engage either Brahmins or Satanis to help them in the performance of purificatory ceremonies. The Lingayets have got peculiar customs like carrying the corpse in a sitting posture, washing the Jangama priest's feet and pouring the water into the mouth of the corpse, etc. The ideas of pollution, of charities (especially of cows), of ancestral worship in the form of kalasas and Śrāddhas (especially during the Mahalaya

Amavasya), are examples of Brahmanical influence among the non-Lingayets.

Passing on to the question of food, we find the same tendency to imitate the Brahmanical system of vegetarianism. The superior classes of the Banajigas are strict vegetarians and teetotallers, though the other classes are flesh-eaters and only nominal abstainers from drink. Among the Gānigās the Jyōtinagara and Lingayet sections are vegetarians and eschew liquor, while the others have not given up flesh while they have given up liquor. The Dēvāngas are also gradually coming up to the Brahmanical standard. Similarly in dress, in the laws regarding adoption, property and inheritance, and numerous other matters the Brahmanical influence is growing daily.

V. RANGACHARIAR.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN COCHIN.

Part III—An Era of Educational Reform (1907—1914.)

[Continued from p. 232, April (1915) number.]

IV

DURING the period under review, Secondary education too was efficiently organised and developed in the State so much so that it showed a record of steady and satisfactory progress. The first and important question that engaged Mr. Banerji's attention with reference to Secondary education was as to whether the Sirkar should retire from the field of Secondary education, leaving it to private enterprise alone or whether the Sirkar should continue and develop the policy of maintaining model schools. Having given the question careful consideration, the Dewan

rightly came to the conclusion that the time had not yet come for the Sirkar to withdraw from the field of higher education. This is what he wrote in the Press Communique (Feb. 1908),* "a strict control our University and Secondary education by Sirkar for many years to come is necessary and very many reasons can be urged in support of this view. In the first place, the resources that may be at the command of private individuals or Missionary bodies cannot be compared with the resources of the State and as it is essential that Secondary schools should be thoroughly efficient and serve as models throughout the State, it stands to reason that it is the duty of the State to provide such schools in every important centre. The cry for abolition persistently raised does not appear from past experience to be altogether justified....." In accordance with this policy each Taluk of the State was provided with a Sirkar High school during the period. The partially developed High Schools at Cranganore and Tripunathura were raised to the full standard and with a view to provide the Chittur Taluk too with a Sirkar High school, the unaided High school of the place was taken under Sirkar management. There were 8 Sirkar High schools—one being a girls' school—in the State in 1914. High school education was further imparted in 5 aided schools and one unaided school.

Sirkar Lower Secondary schools also showed some increase during the period, there being 17 in 1914 as against 14 in 1907. There was however a perceptible falling-off in the number of aided and unaided schools, there being altogether 14 such schools in 1914 as against 25 in 1907. The decrease was

* Press Communique—page 18.

largely due to the fact that many of these schools were, during the period, by reason of their gross inefficiency, reduced to the grade of Primary schools. Not merely inefficient Primary, but also inefficient Lower Secondary, schools appear to have been adversely affected by the new Education Code brought into force in 1911.

Not merely was each Taluk provided with a Sirkar High school during the period but the Sirkar schools were also improved in the matter of staff, furniture and equipment. The High school staff was thoroughly re-organised and an extra teacher provided for the Sixth Form. Specialists were, as far as possible, appointed in the Secondary department to handle the various subjects. The scale of salaries obtaining in Secondary schools was revised and enhanced. The minimum grade for Headmasters was fixed at Rs. 100—125 and the maximum grade at Rs. 150—175. It may not, in this connection, be out of place to mention that, although much was done to improve the pay and position of Secondary teachers, more still remains to be done. Considering what has been done in States like Mysore, Baroda and Travancore to improve the position and prospects of teachers, Cochin must certainly be said to considerably lag behind. The Secondary schools of the State were also very much improved in the matter of furniture and equipment. Larger allotments were ordered to be made than in the past in connection with their libraries and laboratories. Some of the schools were also provided with Hostels or Boarding houses. In this connection special mention should be made of the District school at Kunnankulam, the hostel attached to which continued to make steady progress year after year. It has further to

be mentioned here that proper syllabuses and curricula of studies were framed with reference to Secondary schools and brought into force in 1910. Thanks to the organisation of a Text-Book Committee suitable text-books came to be prescribed year after year. Although the scale of fees in Secondary schools was a little raised, this could not at all be a matter for complaint, having regard to the facilities opened up for better and more efficient teaching.

Aided Secondary schools also shared in the general progress. Their efficiency was promoted by the new rules of recognition and aid and their finances were improved by the new Grant-in-Aid rules. In the case of all trained teachers half-salary grants were ordered to be given. The proportion of trained to untrained teachers consequently continued to increase year after year in all the schools of the State. There were 5 Aided High Schools in the State in 1914.

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Not a little attention was bestowed by Mr. Banerji, during his administration, on the State College at Ernakulam which, under the fostering care of the Dewan as well as of the Principal, progressed with rapid strides all round. In the first place, the staff of the College Department was thoroughly re-organised with a view to meet the requirements of the Intermediate Course. The salaries of the various Lecturers were fixed in a series of grades ranging from Rs. 100 to 300. It may not in this connection be inappropriate to state that this organisation of grades allowing, as it does, of such wide gaps was rather unfortunate since it is rather invidious that Lecturers possessing almost equal qualifications moving in the same sphere, and doing the same kind of work

and that, with almost equal efficiency, should be treated so unequally as in the Ernakulam College when it comes to remuneration. It is not too much to expect that, in the near future, a decisive step will be taken by the Department towards an equalisation of the Lecturers' grades. Secondly the Science Section was equipped with a splendid laboratory, second to that of no other Second Grade College in the Presidency. Recently the laboratory was furnished with an electric installation at considerable cost. Thirdly each section was furnished with a pretty good library of its own which, thanks to the generous aid given year after year, has all along been steadily growing. Fourthly, the various sections were equipped with furniture and appliances on modern and approved lines. Last but not least, the College was furnished with a splendid hostel consisting of two sections—one for Hindu students and the other for Christians. The establishment of the hostel was not a little due to the persistency and determination of the Principal, Mr. Davies, who was keenly alive to the advantages of the residential system and that, specially in a place like Ernakulam. Thanks to the brilliant results produced by the College in the University examinations year after year, its reputation always remained at a high level and naturally it became a centre of attraction for students from far and near.

In the latter years of his administration it was realised by the Dewan that the time had almost come for the elevation of the College to a higher grade and it was expressed by him in not a few official reports and papers that when the time came for it, the Durbar would be found to follow a generous and Statesmanlike policy in the matter.

VI

The progress of female education in the State which was slow and halting before, received a special impetus during Mr. Banerji's administration. His views in connection with female education were thus expressed in the Press Communique (1908)—“the advance of female education in the State is somewhat slow and it is necessary to take such measures as would give it an impetus and promote its progress. While Primary education is extended in the villages the girls may be allowed to join the village Primary schools up to the Infant and First classes and no fees need be levied from these girls. The Sirkar should establish a large number of girls' schools in important centres—say, a dozen in each Taluk—to serve as model schools for girls. These schools should generally be constituted up to the 4th class but higher forms may be opened according to local needs..... Fees should be levied in all girls' schools where English is taught specially but vernacular education and instruction in Sewing and Music should be encouraged and given free. Fees in the case of girls' schools where English is taught will be half the rates levied for boys. The question of providing female teachers for girls' schools should receive the attention of the Durbar..... Later on when the number of girls' schools increases and a large number of competent female teachers is available, a female Inspecting Officer may be appointed Female education in the Lower standard should not be moulded in the same pattern as that for boys. Those who do not wish to go beyond the Primary or Lower Secondary stage should be given an education..... that may prove to be of practical value to them in their domestic spheres.” During

the period of his administration the views set forth above were all gradually carried into effect and female education was placed on a sound and satisfactory basis in the State.

In the first place, as early as 1908 the education of girls in the Primary department was made free in all Sirkar schools. This was naturally followed by a steady increase in the number of girls under instruction as evidenced by the fact that in 1088 there were as many as 11385 girls receiving instruction in girls' schools alone as against 6459 in 1082. If we were also to include the girls attending boys' schools the number would exceed 15000. Secondly, more and more girls' schools were opened by the Department year after year. Whereas, in 1083 there were only 24 Sirkar and 16 Aided girls' schools, 5 years later the number had risen to 38 and 20 respectively. It must however be confessed that the proportion of female literates in the State is still very low and as for female literates in English, they are a 'negligible quantity.' It may not however be vain to hope that, under the wise guidance and inspiration of successive Rajahs and Dewans and Directors, giant strides will, in the coming years, be made by female education in the State and that, in the not distant future, Cochin will become an example and beacon-light to other States as much in the mother of female as of male education. Thirdly, it has to be mentioned that adequate arrangements were made by the Sirkar for the training of female teachers. A separate department for the training of female teachers was attached to the Training School at Trichur and trained female teachers were turned out in sufficient numbers year after year. The number of women teachers increased from 59 in 1083 to 265 in 1088. Fourthly, suitable

curricula of studies were framed for girls' schools and strictly enforced. In addition to the 3 Rs., subjects of such practical utility and value as Hygiene, Music, Drawing, Needlework, Dress-making, Domestic Economy were included in the syllabus. Special teachers were appointed for the teaching of music, drawing, needlework etc., and suitable textbooks brought out for the teaching of music. In 1913 an Inspectress was appointed specially for girls' schools.

In this connection, it may not be out of place to make a reference to the two fully-developed Girls' High Schools that have been in existence in the State for some years, viz., the Victoria Jubilee Girls' High School at Trichur and the St. Teresa's Convent Girls' High School at Ernakulam. Two important changes were introduced in the constitution of the former school in 1911. In the first place, in February 1911, the training class attached to the school was removed to the Sirkar Training School and secondly, in June, the Girls' Industrial Section of the Government Technical and Industrial School was amalgamated with this school. Thus the V. J. G. School, while it ceased to be a training institution for women, acquired a new and additional character as a Technical and Industrial School. Ever since there have been two sections in the school—one literary and the other industrial. The literary section prepares pupils for the School-Final examination while the Industrial Section gives pupils a three years' course in technical and industrial subjects such as embroidery, needlework, lace-making, etc. It is left to the pupils after completing the Lower Secondary course to seek admission to one or the other. As was anticipated by the Dewan, the Industrial Section appears to be getting more and more

popular and continues to be patronised by a large majority of the pupils.

VII

It may be a commonplace to state that, in the best interests of education, too great attention cannot be paid to the efficiency of training schools and colleges; for it is in such institutions that teachers are properly trained and equipped for their responsible work. There was a Training school at Trichur even before Mr. Banerji's time but its condition appears to have been anything but satisfactory. For years it had been working in a hum-drum old-fashioned style, with little or no regard to modern ideals and methods. The following is the scathing report submitted by the S. E. O. with regard to its working*—"I find the system faulty, the organisation bad and the equipment and surroundings such that, men and women who are sent for training, instead of seeing models of excellence for imitation and introduction into the schools they may happen to open are brought into contact with objects that are calculated to imbue their minds with what is in every way unwholesome and lowering from an educational point of view. If these institutions are to be made models in every way and to educate the eyes as well as the minds of our future teachers, a thorough re-organisation is needed and the State must be prepared to spend more money on them Till our training schools are models we cannot expect any other institutions to be models." Proposals were then made by him for a thorough re-organisation of the Training schools and with a few slight alterations, they were accepted by the Dewan. The re-organisation was actually effected towards the end of 1910.

* Letter dated 20-12-1909 from Special Educational Officer to the Dewan.

In the re-organised school provision was made for the training of teachers of three grades—Elementary Lower, Elementary Higher and Secondary, each grade extending for a period of about 2 years. The minimum qualification for admission to the E. L. was fixed as the 4th class, that for the E. H. as the third Form and that, again, for the Secondary as the Matriculation or School-Final Examination. In addition to a purely professional course a literary course also was included in each grade. The former course consisted of subjects such as the Principles of Education, Methods of teaching, Kindergarten, Sloyd, Discipline and Organisation, Registers, Notes of Lessons, School Hygiene, etc., while the latter embraced such subjects as English, Malayalam, Arithmetic, Geography, Drawing, Nature-study, Agriculture, Hygiene and Civics. In the Elementary grades the course was to be rather simple while, for the Secondary grade it was to be somewhat advanced. It is beyond doubt that the provision of a literary course in the school has contributed not a little to enhance the utility and efficiency of the institution. In the Training school a separate section was opened for the training of women-teachers and the syllabus drawn up for them made provision for the teaching of callisthenics in the place of sloyd and drill and for instruction in music, needlework and domestic economy. The staff of the Training school was thoroughly re-organised to meet the requirements of the new syllabus. Further, a number of stipends was provided for each grade at the rate of Rs. 6 for the Elementary and Rs. 10 for the Secondary. Thus re-organised on modern and methodical lines, the Training school has been doing useful and efficient work ever since.

For the training of the graduate teachers of the State, arrangements were made with the Travancore Government by which a certain number of graduate teachers was allowed to be sent up from the Cochin State to the Training College at Trivandrum year after year.

VIII

I shall now proceed to consider the progress of technical and industrial education in the State during the period under review. Before Mr. Banerji's time there were no technical or industrial schools under Sirkar management and of the five industrial schools in which instruction in shoe-making, embroidery, grass-mat making and lace-making was imparted, three were aided institutions and two unaided. These institutions however were of an elementary type, not being sufficiently comprehensive in the scope of their activities nor commensurate with the economic resources of the State. It was realised by the Dewan at the very outset that, for the economic progress of the State it was necessary to establish a net-work of village industrial schools. A scheme of village schools was however out of the question unless a sufficient number of trained hands was available. It was consequently found desirable to establish a Central Technical and Industrial school under Sirkar management. "An Industrial school should, as a first step, be opened at Trichur" wrote the Dewan, "in which all the chief industries of the State should be taught and its standard raised and stipends should be given to the students belonging to the backward classes to encourage them to undergo a course of training in such industries in this school. If possible an Arts school should also be opened under Govern-

ment management failing which, the private enterprise should be encouraged by the grant of substantial help." It was left to the Special Educational Officer to submit a scheme for the opening of such a school and the proposals made by him in December 1909 were, with a few alterations, accepted by the Dewan. In September 1910 the Government Technical and Industrial school was opened at Trichur.

The school as first organised, consisted, in the first place, of a School-Final Section in which students were trained for the School-Final Examination with technical subjects as their optionals; secondly, of an Industrial section in which such industries as lacquer work, sloyd, electro-plating and gilding, bell-metal work, mat-making, rattan and bamboo work, blacksmiths' work, weaving, carpentry, etc., were taught, and thirdly, of a Technical section in which instruction was imparted in such subjects as Short-hand, Type-writing, Book-keeping, Commercial Arithmetic, Commercial Correspondence, Commercial Geography and Vernacular commercial subjects. There was further a Girls' section attached to the Industrial school in which such industries as embroidery, lace-making, hand-knitting, needle-work, etc., were taught. The Technical course was fixed for three years and the Industrial course for four. The students admitted to the Industrial section were also to be given a general literary course of an elementary character. Pupils attending the Industrial branch were to pay no fees but to receive stipends, six in each industry, under certain conditions. Further certain special stipends at the rate of Rs. 6 per mensem were to be awarded to those who agreed to be trained as teachers. At the end of the 4th year, an examination

was to be held and those who passed, getting 50% in each subject were to be given a certificate signed by the President of the Board of Examiners appointed by the Dewan.

A series of changes relating to organisation and course of studies was however introduced in the school in the succeeding years. In the matter of organisation, it has to be noted first that, in 1911, the Girls' section of the Industrial school was separated from the Boy's section and amalgamated with the Victoria Jubilee Girls' School and secondly, that, in 1912, the School-Final section was virtually abolished, being transferred to the local Sirkar school for all literary work. The school thus came to be a purely Technical and Industrial school intended for boys alone. With reference to course of studies also a series of minor changes was introduced from time to time. The commercial curricula were revised so as to make them suitable for candidates appearing for the Madras Government Technical examinations. The literary course with reference to Industrial students was lessened in the case of some and altogether dropped in the case of others. In the place of fixed stipends a system of work-fees was introduced. The Lacquer section was abolished and an Arts section was opened in its place. The Industrial course was reduced from 4 to 3 years and the vernacular commercial course was reduced to one year. As a result of changes like these, the institution was improved in efficiency and usefulness and brought more and more into line with modern conditions and requirements.

In addition to the Sirkar Technical and Industrial school at Trichur, there were 10 special aided schools in the State (1914) with a strength of about 800. The total grant given

by the Sirkar to these schools was nearly 2000 Rs.

IX'

In this connection, it may not be out of place to say a word about the special arrangements made during this period for the education of the junior members of His Highness' family. In 1084 the Palace School at Tripunathara was abolished and a common Residential Palace was opened at Ernakulam (1909) for the benefit of the junior princes. All Tamparans above 16 years of age, at which age they are generally invested with the sacred thread, were required to live together in the Palace and provided with all necessary facilities for education, physical exercise and recreation. Further they were placed under the supervision of a warden who, happily, was one of themselves, being a senior stipendiary Prince. The system thus established, although it was viewed with some misgivings at first, is however gradually coming to be more and more appreciated by the wards themselves. It is now arranged that, during every vacation, they should, as a regular part of their education, be taken on tours, by their warden to places of interest and importance in various parts of India.

The younger members of His Highness' family studying at Tripunathara were placed under the supervision of H. H. the 7th Prince (now H. H. the 8th Prince) who for his culture, public spirit and educational zeal is deserving of special mention. Under the management of the same Prince a special school was opened at Tripunathara, in 1085, for the benefit of the girls of His Highness' family. The school is beyond the sphere of the Director and considerable latitude is followed in the matter of curri-

cula, text-books, hours of teaching, vacations and holidays, etc.

X

A fairly exhaustive account has now been given of the important educational reforms inaugurated during the period under review. In addition, numerous minor reforms such as the institution of scholarships and special examinations, the organisation of Teachers' Conferences and Examination Boards were introduced during this period. We may venture to hope that the tide of educational progress that has been flowing on in the State for so many years will, instead of suddenly dying away or abating, only continue to flow on with even greater force and volume, in the years to come.

P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER.

(To be continued.)

MORAL EDUCATION.*

This subject is engaging now, more than ever the attention of all interested in education—the Government, the parents and last, but most directly concerned, the teachers. Of course it is nothing new. Education of a child in its true application is the harmonious development of the three faculties—intellectual, physical and moral. Unless these faculties are adequately and properly cultivated, one cannot discharge satisfactorily the various duties in the many phases of human activity. Proper education is training for a complete and successful life. We have known instances of individuals of high intellectual attainments not being able to turn out really good work owing to poor physique, and

* A paper read by M.R.Ry. S. Vaidyanatha Iyar Avergal, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, M. H. School, Walajanagar, before the meeting of the Teachers' Association, M. H. School, Walajanagar.

of failures in life owing only to moral depravity. Life is not merely a physiological function. It is a noble and valuable gift of the Great God. To wreck it or slight it is equally culpable and profitless. He blasphemes and behaves undutifully who throws it away lightly and without due cause.

If education implies moral side, where then is the necessity for considering that question specially? It is because it is not as it ought to be. The rapid advancement of education these years has been on the intellectual side to the partial and total neglect of the other two sides. Of late something has been done for the improvement in the physical side of education. At present there is not a single school without a play-ground and other facilities for games. Inter-school and inter-district sports and tournaments are the order of the day. Thanks to the interest of the Civilian officers; their influence, official or otherwise, their help in financing and organising, have been of great service in the development of the physical side of the present day education.

So nothing is more natural than to turn with eager eyes to the development of the moral faculty. Though generally in the order of mentioning it comes last, it is first in importance.

Time was when everything that was good in the land and its citizens and every blessed thing was attributed to that education bailed from the West. Time is come when every evil and accursed thing is fathered upon the children of the school and the education as at present imparted. It has been denounced as godless and soulless. It is considered to be the cause of anarchy, disloyalty and sedition and the unruly and unholy acts of youngsters, though fortunately our Presidency is free from such censure.

At first only a small band of men with educational interest were strenuously working for improvement in this direction. Now the

band has strengthened considerably and public opinion in its favour has grown stronger and people's voice has become louder. The help of the benign Government is being sought in this direction. Who would be more willing than the paternal Government of India, to help in this direction as the formation of character and the moral side of education has been by them placed in the forefront of their educational policy?

Then why is this delay or why is this hesitation? Delay may not be always dangerous; sometimes it may be due to a cautious policy. There are some difficulties at the outset which if not wholly at least partially account for their tardy action. They are as given below:—Whether there is any good in giving direct moral instruction. Whether it is possible to impart moral instruction apart from religious instruction. If without it, whether it would be efficacious. If with it, whether it would be possible in schools whose pupils belong to different religions, and so on.

So the Government of India though bound to be neutral in matters religious are yet anxious that something ought to be done in this matter of moral education as they have fully recognised the importance of the formation of character as the chief purpose of education. They have accordingly invited the Local Governments to consider the question in committees composed of officials and non-officials. When these bodies finish their work something tangible may be done in this direction. A satisfactory and practical solution of what is unquestionably the most important educational problem, can't be easily provided without calm deliberation and considerable experience.

Hence any amount of discussion on the subject would not be too much. If in our humble way in our small body this subject is discussed, it may not be with the hope that our voice would reach the gates of Delhi, but that it would make us

alive to our duty as teachers engaged in the formation of the character of our young charges.

Having taken this subject for this short paper, let me give out my views on the different aspects of this question with the hope of getting them discussed and examined by you all here, so that the paper may at the end become a tolerably long and complete one. Let me now consider the question—whether direct moral teaching is necessary.

At present something is being done in this branch of instruction here and there. Religious instruction is being given in some private Hindu institutions and Bible is being taught in some Mission institutions. This does not form part of the regular curriculum nor is any provision made in the Madras Educational Code. In some other provinces the Code permits religious education out of school hours, by special teachers if the parent likes. Even this permissive measure was not taken full advantage of, as many schools had no provisions made for religious instruction. Hence some doubt also is entertained whether the desire for moral education is real.

The opinion of some educational experts is worth considering before answering the question as to the necessity of direct moral teaching. They admit the necessity but say that direct moral teaching, setting a period or two in the timetable, presenting something for memory cramming would not mend the evil or fill the gap. Far better results, they say, can be achieved by discipline and example of the teacher and other indirect means. In their opinion, reading books contain certain moral lessons which in the hands of a clever teacher can exert greater influence than a special text of moral lessons in the hands of an indifferent teacher.

Some of the factors mentioned above exist now and have existed and yet why is the demand for moral instruction? That is because there is nothing definite. What is everybody's business is done by nobody. There is a difference between

a lesson lending itself to moral teaching and a lesson bending to the teacher. Sometimes, dwelling on the moral side in any lesson as an English or History class may be considered a digression. It is only when the teacher is in that vein he would consider the moral aspect. It is only when the boys are in that mood they would follow. It is only when questions on that point are asked in the examination, the interest of both the teacher and the taught would continue. As regards the difference between a clever teacher and an indifferent teacher in dealing with the indirect method referred to, it is operative throughout the school curriculum.

A special moral text-book in the hands of a clever teacher would have untold advantages.

The many indirect aids would only ensure success—would only increase the effect of direct moral instruction without clashing with it. I shall speak of these later on.

What sort of moral instruction is to be imparted? What kind of text is to be put into the hands of boys cannot be fully told in a short paper like this. Briefly put, strings of moral maxims, and collection of the stanzas would neither appeal to the teacher nor to the boy, especially now as they are taken step by step to taste extracts from famous authors. Selections from the prose of Ruskin, Emerson and Addison and the poems of Cowper, Tennyson and Milton, inculcating cardinal virtues that have bearing on the daily conduct of boys at school and outside would form a suitable text.

Moral teaching to be effective should better be personal. Excellent materials are available in Sanskrit epics, Arabic and Persian classics and the Bible. Another Rabinindranath will write themes just within the comprehensions of youngsters. Selection from religious lore can be made by an Indian committee and selections from English authors can be made by a mixed committee. Books prepared with the above materials and

written in two or three grades would be suitable for all the high school classes.

Special teachers are not necessary so far as the selections from English authors are concerned; every teacher is already familiar with them. As regards the other selections from religious books, no teacher would be unwilling to become acquainted with them. He would be persuaded to read them carefully for self-improvement also. Any teacher who realises the responsibility of his duty and the nobility of his profession is always aiming also at the moral side of education. Even an indifferent teacher as a matter of doing bare justice to his work for the day cannot but get himself acquainted with the contents of the text-book.

There need not be any controversial topic in the extract from religious book. A teacher should always, and especially in teaching religious and moral lessons, be, what Cardinal Newman says of the character of a gentleman. "If he be an unbeliever, he will be too profound and large-minded to ridicule religion or to act against it. He is too wise to be a dogmatist or fanatic in his infidelity."

Giving one or two periods a week for this instruction would not interfere with the time allotted for the teaching of other subjects. This may be put down under non-detailed English study as the class would always be in charge of the class-master for moral instruction.

Having said a little about direct moral teaching, I shall pass on to consider the various indirect aids. As already pointed out both direct and indirect means help each other in reducing the extreme rigidity of the former and too much elasticity of the latter.

I shall here mention these indirect aids to moral instruction and a word on each. They are: the example of the teacher, the tone and discipline of the school, monitorial system, the self-government of boys, enlistment of the

parental co-operation; home supervision of studies by the class-master, organised games; school associations and hostels. Almost all of these are possible even in the case of an average school.

Regarding the example of the teacher as a moral force I should be cautious in my remarks. We are not angels of perfection; we are men with all human imperfections. We may, however, try to conduct ourselves in such a way that we are models to the boys who are innocently and yet young and who would unconsciously follow us. They are in the stage of character-formation. They are open to healthy and good influence. A single act worthy of imitation is worth a hundred maxims well taught and understood. Our own private life however cautiously concealed we may keep, would always be watched for good or evil by boys many of whom are more shrewd in this than in regular school work. With a high moral character, and with a noble ideal of duty in all our actions, we can exert great influence. By commending noble and heroic character in History and English lessons as worthy to be set as ideals, by appealing to their own sense of justice and injustice, right and wrong, good and evil, by a timely reproof of vice and praise of virtue and above all by sympathetically viewing their actions as those of young and immature minds, a fair foundation for the building up of a good character may be laid.

The tone and discipline of the school is not quite independent of the indirect aid treated above. It is partly the result of the personae of the teacher. The discipline should avoid extremes. There should be a healthy atmosphere in the relationship between the Headmaster and his Assistants; between the Assistants themselves, between masters and boys, between boys themselves. A spirit of justice and fairness always aiming at the welfare of the taught should prevail over the thousand and one small details in the school routine.

It follows naturally that a teacher who is conscious of his being an example for the boys would never consider his work over as soon as the school closes for the day. He would not keep himself aloof from the boys nor would the latter keep themselves at a distance from the teacher. They would move freely without a reserve in one and fear in the other guided in their actions by an honourable and chivalrous feeling.

This naturally brings us to realise the advantage of home supervision enlisting the sympathy and co-operation of the parents. The indifferent parent is roused from his apathy the pessimistic is convinced of the real work done by a quiet teacher in and out of the school. We have seen in our rounds of home supervision, how the progress reports are being understood by the parents and how on our part we are made to be more careful about our remarks in the reports. By home supervision, the truants are seen in their true colours; unhealthy, insanitary and bad habits of boys are found out to be remedied, the nature of his association is seen and a hundred and other details, trifles in themselves yet going to shape the character of the future generation are attended to.

The monitorial system has the advantage of appealing directly and effectively to the feelings of the boys. The monitor is one among them. He views things in the same plane. The system of self-government—the school associations and organised games, all tend to create what is called public opinion among the boys. By giving them the duties involving trust and responsibility we may make them deserve the same. A monitor will help the teacher in going through the daily class routine. He will feel that he is responsible for the order of the class during the absence of the teacher. The secretary of the boys' association and the captain of the games have the interest of the whole body in their mind. In managing the affairs of the club, of course under the guidance of their masters, they bring to play their

judgment, tact and organising capacity. One more aid and that is the hostels. Here, the teachers have greater opportunities of observing the boys and regulating their conduct, directly and immediately. For they are their local guardians. The surroundings of a good hostel are everything that could conduce to an enlightened educational career something like the up-country public school life.

To the extent allowed in the paper I have briefly referred to these indirect aids and on the whole, I feel I have not done full justice to the task I have undertaken as I was not able to devote as much time and thought as the paper deserves and as I could have devoted.

THE PHYSICAL AND MENTAL VALUE OF GAMES.

EVEN under the stress of the Western civilization it is a matter for regret and surprise that a major portion of the Indian public hold a bad and wrong notion about games. It is thought that if time in games be usefully directed to studies, a good many youngsters of sportive habits would become better than what they were, and would fitly take places among the eminent men of the land. How much of it is true and supported by facts; how deep the wound which such unhealthy idea has caused in the manhood of our country; how such ill-judging men are unconsciously on the wrong scent for advance; the following part will reveal. While condemning to the utmost the idea that over-studiousness without gamesomeness can elevate a nation in any way, we should not fail to make an attempt at tracing the root-causes of such a pernicious supposition without a certain amount of sympathy. The result will show that it is not without example and reason that such an idea is gaining ground

among us. What is it that lends it reason and precedent? We cannot deny the fact that a certain number of sportively inclined students have held out no promise, and such a state of affairs is due to undesirable excess to the exclusion of studies. Had their attention, time and energy been *equally* apportioned on the physical and intellectual necessities of human life, we should certainly have witnessed a favourable result. Why talk of excess in games *only* as pernicious when excess in everything is no less so? The worst that falls to the lot of one *wholly* devoted to games exclusively can in certain respects be preferred to the worst happening to one indulged in studies exclusively; the former has at least the boast of good physique and a healthy man while the latter, having claim to good knowledge, suffers all his life in weakness, disease, from want of good sleep, and such other ailments consequent upon mental over-strain. Further the latter leaves *his* weakness as an unavoidable legacy to his children; thus he perpetrates the crime of not only self-destruction but of destroying the manhood of his children. Imagine a country with individuals physically degenerated and what melancholy and harrowing sights are they! The dwarfness and weakness and differently ailing constitutions that are common sights in educational centres like Madras and Trichinopoly are largely descended from their weak parents, not to talk of certain cases in which the deformed and degraded builds are of their own make. Add to the above the dusty atmosphere of towns, the ill-ventilated and insanitary dwellings of students, with the dangerous combination of ill-cooked meals in hotels, and see what a disaster is foreboded by such a state of things! If a nation of good physique

be left as an alternative to one of *purely* mental development we would be right in choosing the former in preference to the latter in the interest of the country. This is not in the way of advocating for an *exclusive* physical training but of pleading for a necessary and natural combination of both sports and studies. Though it is sufficient apology to argue for sports even mainly on the basis of physical training, it will certainly interest and surprise us to see that they confer even a good mental training in valuable principles governing a nation's life, possessing as they do cloaks of boyish amusements and conventions.

The physical training given is, as admitted by all and felt by those taken part in games, immense. Let a weak student devote one hour in the evening to games and after some months compare him with what he was. The result can be guaranteed to be beneficial, when we see his powers of consumption, digestion far developed. Good sleep is never denied to him. Never before his appetite was keener, his meal more hearty than after systematic physical training. In the selection of physical exercises, the choice of a kind which is *active and open-air* is the best, and the necessary inducement to it must exist in the form of amusement. The value of amusement in games is immense in that it does not tire a player so much and so soon as the one having blind physical exercise with nothing to season it. The word 'active' has been used in the sense in which we require that players must be simultaneously engaged in action. The co-operation of players in games is the fruitful source of the feelings of keen competition, mutual help, sympathy, union, etc., which, if realised in a nation, would serve to make it a civilized and enlightened one.

The above feelings are such as a nation can well envy; such, that without them nation-building is impossible; that can attract the interested attention of people who are more advanced in life, more serious and responsible than the innocent ones on the play-grounds. They are taught rather than sought, and the mental training does not descend upon the students in as formal, as serious and dictatorial a manner as coming from a school-master. The ways of instruction imparted in the open-air and school-room have different powers on their memories; of course the self-taught, open-air and disguised teaching will have a stronger and more lasting hold on the memories of students. The laughing, the jumping, the whistling and such like exhibitions of youthful mirth on the play-ground do not in any way lessen the memorising effect of the mental training. Taking the foot-ball game as an example, we shall inquire into the meaning, purpose and value of the different actions, events and parts of the play.

The students who organise a team are well aware of, and receive training in, the art of inducing their friends and others to join it and this they will do by whatever ways they command. The play-mates range on two sides for a match after sufficient experience, fully prepared to satisfy the rules and requirements of the play. The very success and preparation require the partners to follow their field-captain, and a wanton departure from them means expulsion from the play. Unless the members of a side are held together by the spirit of union and mutual sympathy and unless these feelings exist, success can never attend them. If the players of a side have differences among them they should sink them in the interest of a common

cause; otherwise the opposite party will bring the ball and kick it into the goal of their foe, unresisted. It is a common sight in the foot-ball ground that each member of a side is anxious to win a name for himself and the party; each equally shares the glory of a success, or the disappointment of failure. The feeling for the party, fighting for a common cause are things so soon fostered in him as created, and can well serve as the best lessons to mankind. In disputes touching the two contending parties, the power of arbitration of a referee appointed by common consent is unquestionably obeyed and respected by both. Any departure from the rules or limits of the game is noticed by him and proportionate penalty is exacted. The boys thus understand and obey the power of arbitration vested in the referee.

The principle of the division of labour which comes to our serious notice in the higher stages of our educational career is seen guiding the activities of the players. It governs the life of every community, every government and the actions of every plant and animal in the world. The foot-ball field serves a good educator of this principle. There are different parts in the play field by different individuals and the functions of a player are in accordance with the post he keeps. The 'centre-forwards', 'wings', 'backs', 'half-backs' and goal-keeper have their own duties to perform and their own posts to guard. Within the limits prescribed by the rules each player has to move, act and contribute his part in the general work of the party as a whole. If the players are to deviate from their duties and expectations, failure will very often be the result. The referee who stands common to the two parties, has to watch the movements of the players, running

here and there and suspend the play by whistling, should he notice anything objectionable or anything contrary to the rules of the play. As important as the principle of division of labour, every member learns to understand the value of his relation to every other member of his side in the matter of relieving his comrade when attacked by the opponent and of dribbling the ball and sending it to him as necessity arises. Mutual help, the exhibition of mutual sympathy strikes the key-note of success and these feelings are possible of creation and development.

Carefully considered, the foot-ball or any other game has as much to teach as any handbook of those principles on which a nation's life can be based. The games are early amusing experiments for the practical application of the principles of a corporate existence, besides giving us at the same time a healthy body, and a fund of good fun. When in our younger days we rally our playmates for a match, we unconsciously cultivate the principles which we learn to admire in our adult stages and which avail us then. Failures and obstacles are sure to face us on our way to improvement but a patient and continued resistance will bridge us over them. The early difficulties give us enough scope and practice to learn the value of resistance and the test of success is an unbroken continuity of our method of patient resistance without feelings of depression and despair. The manhood of such a trained past is what is wanted and the inability of a good many adults to organise is traceable to their unpractical school-days.

In consideration of the advantages conferred on the men of a country by games, the matter of early physical training in games

should receive a more careful attention. More opportunities, encouragement and sympathy must be extended, and the system of prize-giving should be continued with unabated vigour as it offers a very successful bait for the display of the sportive skill, and without sufficient inducement, the games would go on unnoticed and unattracted. The seeds of efficiency of our countrymen must be sown on the play-grounds and the harvest will show that the game is certainly worth the candle.

K. RAMACHANDRACHAR.

THE CONDUCT OF SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS—ITS DEFECTS AND REMEDIES.

OUR readers may very well remember an article which appeared in the December issue of your valuable journal, wherein a thread-bare and thoughtful discussion on 'Our Present System of Examinations' was attempted. The discussion, which was intended to be more or less of a general nature, brought under its scope the several important aspects of the *system itself*, in which a study of similar systems in other advanced countries was made, which helped, of course, to throw some light as to how, in our country too, examinations may be made to serve a real purpose towards helping the attainment of the true ends of education.

The place assigned to examinations in any rational system of education, is, by no means, inconspicuous; and, leaving aside details and questions of a controversial character, we can easily see that what real purposes examinations serve, depends upon how they are conducted. This is an important detail which should never escape the consideration of every teacher, if he intends his school

examinations to be a source of help to him as well as to his students.

Examinations, in the words of Fitch, touch very nearly the morality of the school life and they are, like fire, 'a good servant but a bad master.' Nothing is so dangerous and hazardous, to the best interests of a school, as to allow examinations to dominate the regular school work which has to be helped and not hindered by them.

Confining our attention, at present, to the conduct in schools, we may begin by making a distinction between School Examinations on the one hand and Public Examinations on the other hand with the latter of which we are not concerned now. Granting that examinations, both internal and external, serve a real purpose and are quite necessary, every teacher should look about himself and see how far the way, in which examinations are conducted in his school, is helpful not only to himself but also to his pupils in their respective school work and if it is really conducive to healthy progress. The moment a teacher finds the conduct of examinations a source of discomfort and disappointment to him, he should in the best interests of all, set himself about removing the defects found therein.

From personal experience, we may venture to say, that, in very many schools, the examination season is a very unwelcome season with many masters, for the simple reason that the conduct of the examination is not based on any sound organisation. If organisation is the soul of every institution, it must, above all, find its place in the school also in the matter of the conduct of examinations, success in which presupposes mutual confidence among the members of the staff, a healthy spirit of discussion among them, and

a vast degree of calmness and preparedness to prefer pupils' interests to the interests of those teachers who handle this big machinery. The matter may not claim so much consideration at the hands of laymen, as it naturally eludes their experience and notice. Much of the bitterness and estrangement between the Headmaster and his Assistants, in most schools, can be ultimately traced to how they conduct themselves in this season; and there has been, very often, as in other things, a tendency on the part of a competent Headmaster to domineer over his Assistants, and in the case of an incompetent one, to easily set off one Assistant-master against another. We can only sympathise with those Headmasters who cannot, by reason of their poor attainments, sit in judgment over the papers set by their more competent Assistants; but we cannot, even for a second, approve of their playing the part of a Machiavelli, simply to gain their own ends. Such Headmasters, in most cases, are not at all willing to come to any compromise with their Assistants in anything and as a result of it, many evils follow. Not the least of such evils is an unpardonable neglect of the pupils' interests by both the Headmaster and his Assistants. A spirit of vengeance is created in the minds of both and this spirit, not being capable of any action or reaction between the two, finds its outlet elsewhere and is directed towards the poor students who fall victims to it. To make the situation more graphic, we may take facts to substantiate the truth of the above statements. Of course truth and plain-speaking have got a bitterness about them and are sometimes offensive and the doses in which we administer them are not always palatable. What actually takes place is this:

When the examination season arrives, the Headmaster himself prepares a list of Examiners in the various subjects, not even consulting them beforehand, as a matter of courtesy at least and then publishes it and forces it upon his Assistants with a notice that they should submit the Question papers, say, within a week from the date of this mandate. The special facilities the Headmaster enjoys by knowing beforehand in what subjects he will be an examiner, are mercilessly denied to his Assistants, and in not a few cases, does the Headmaster set his papers and then publish the list of Examiners. We can only reasonably expect that the unduly short time, given to an Assistant-master for setting papers, will hardly be sufficient to ensure any adequate study on the part of the various examiners, which, of course, reflects very poorly on their productions. The master, in spite of everything, does not forget how his own students had once fared very badly at the hands of another examiner, and he now wants to settle his old accounts with him, by turning the tables on him now. This rotten state of affairs appears to have neither a beginning nor an end as long as it finds suitable manure in the disposition of an indifferent Headmaster. As soon as the papers are set, the Headmaster receives them coolly and passes them himself or takes into his confidence one or two people for whom he might have cultivated a fancy. The whole business of passing the papers is such that many Headmasters cannot and will not safely entrust it to their Assistants even in cases where they deserve it by virtue of their sincerity. The particular teachers of the particular subjects are not consulted and even in case they are consulted, it so happens that the teachers are left to

settle everything between themselves, and from words they very often come to blows—a deplorable state of things indeed in the school room. A spirit of vengeance and a supremely detestable element of personal feeling among the teachers secures the safety of the Headmaster. When such papers are placed in the hands of the poor students and when naturally it is certainly no fault of the pupils if they fail to do full justice to a paper set by an indifferent and vindictive examiner, the results of such examinations count for nothing but a mere waste of time and energy.

Thus it is clear how the moral tone of the school life is rendered pure and unsullied or becomes depraved, according as these examinations are well or ill-conducted. We may safely presume without any offence to any body, that every teacher should have had experience of this, at least once in his career as a teacher, and without pausing here, we shall proceed to suggest certain remedies by which a proper conduct of school examinations may be ensured.

Here, as we have already pointed out, what is wanted is organisation which, in its turn, implies mutual confidence among the several masters who should form a corporate body of their own.

The Headmaster, in the *first* place, before he prepares the list of examiners, should see that he selects such of the teachers as examiners in the subjects in which they have specialised and with which they are keeping themselves in touch in their school-work. In this case, the Headmaster, unless he has strong reasons not to confide in them, will do well to allow the teachers of the various classes to examine those classes in the subjects in which they take them. This concession, we may safely take for ourselves, as

the teachers, who are examining in the subjects which they teach are sure to know exactly their students' actual attainments in those subjects in preference to any other who has to study them before he sets his hand to the work of setting questions. Any deviation from this procedure will be necessary only when it is apprehended that there is any unfairness, or leniency in the paper set by the class teacher himself. It is always desirable that the Headmaster keeps himself on the defensive in such cases without presupposing anything which will be a cause of offence or annoyance to his Assistants. The Assistants, in their turns, ought to justify the trust placed in them and must deserve the concession shown to them. It cannot be gainsaid that this arrangement will minimise the strain which otherwise falls on teachers when they have to study a number of Detailed and Non-detailed Text-books, after all, for framing about a quarter of a dozen questions, the scope of which may perhaps fall beyond the comprehension of the examinees.

Secondly, it is quite necessary that every school should have an *Examining Board* with the head of the institution as its President and this Board will control the conduct of the school examinations in all its branches. The Board may also divide itself into a number of as many *Sub-Boards* as there are subjects, the members of each Sub-Board being those senior masters who are teachers in a particular subject. Thus the anomaly of asking a Mathematics teacher to sit in judgment over a History paper and *vice versa* will vanish. This arrangement is sure to make the conduct of the examinations smooth and really beneficial to the best interests of the school.

METHODS OF TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

(Continued from page 253 of April No.)

In my last article, I dwelt upon the Teaching of Geography in general and I now propose to refer briefly to the various methods of teaching Geography as adopted in England, Germany and other countries. Mr. T. G. Rooper, for sometime Geography Teacher, and later, Inspector of Schools in England, has, in a very interesting address delivered at the annual meeting of the Geographical Association, in January 1901, 'opened up a glimpse of a wide prospect' with reference to these methods. He rightly observed "None of these methods is complete in itself, none of them is without value, and all of them ought to be present to the mind in preparing the simplest course of lessons in Geography."

The first method is what is known as the *Analytic Method*. Here the Earth is taken as a whole, and analysed systematically into oceans, continents, countries, islands, &c. It proceeds from the whole to the parts; it begins with the general relations of the earth as a celestial body, and ends with the home. It deals first with the earth as a whole in order that the facts afterwards learnt may fall into their right places, and be understood as parts of a whole. Though the method is systematic and bears a scientific stamp, its chief defect lies in presupposing some familiarity with natural phenomena, and some acquaintance with mathematical and physical notions, and a somewhat matured understanding. The chief objection to this method is—it does not start from the child's immediate neighbourhood and so it is not suited to the young children. Nevertheless it has the advantage that it introduces the child even at an early stage in a cursory way, to the globe and the map of the world. This method is the one adopted in most text-books of Geography.

Thirdly, we should press the attention of masters and managers of schools towards instituting a system of *comparative examinations* among various schools, of course, in subjects where there is uniformity in Text-books and Syllabuses. Comparative examinations will be found to be highly useful in guiding the work of teachers by helping them to see how far they have fallen short of the standard and how they may raise it so as to keep themselves apace with other schools. An honest spirit of emulation and healthy rivalry among the various schools tends to create for the respective schools an atmosphere of educational activity unsullied by any baser influences, and helpful to satisfying the true end and aim of education.

Thus, to make a long paper short, a spirit of mutual confidence among teachers, the forming of Examining Boards and Sub-Boards, due discretion in the assigning of subjects, with an eye to the claims of the class teacher, and last, though not least, the institution of a system of comparative examinations, are the surest means of rectifying some of the most patent and chronic defects which are co-existent with our present system of examinations. Many more remedies of a really useful character may suggest themselves to our readers, of whom we shall take leave at present, of course, reserving more elaborate discussions on this subject to the later issues of this journal.

S. G. SUBRAHMANYAN.

The second method is the reverse of the first and is known as the *Synthetic Method*. Here the child begins with the study of the smallest portion of the earth's surface which is most familiar to him and proceeds step by step until he has thoroughly mastered the Geography of the whole globe. It begins with a single portion of the earth, adds the other parts gradually, and finally unites them into one big whole. Instead of presupposing some previous knowledge in the pupil, as does the 'analytic method,' it imparts the necessary preliminary geographical notions first. This method is an elementary one, proceeding from the near to the far, from the known to the related unknown, from the easy to the difficult, from the simple to the complex. It is best suited for geographical instruction in all elementary schools and the lower classes or forms in secondary schools. This method has undoubtedly its own merits. The child may arrive at a comprehensive idea of the regions nearest to his own before examining more distant parts. But its chief defect is that it is opposed to the fundamental principle of Geography teaching—that the whole aspect of the globe must be presented sufficiently early in the school course of a pupil to develop his imaginative faculty and to rouse his childish curiosity. This method also ignores the fact that Geography is a living subject and all parts of the earth are not equally worth studying.

The third method is what is known as the *Associative Method*. Geography draws its materials from several sciences. This method consists in showing the bearing and dependence of each of these sciences on others. Prof. Rooper observes in this connection—"If we think for a moment of sciences as circles and then of several circles intersecting at a given point we have the presentment of a fresh science which differs from any of them taken by itself and yet is made up by the common ground which is shared by all of them." It ought not to be supposed that this

method does not consist in amalgamating History, Geology, Astronomy and the rest to one science under a new name. All that it aims at is to show the bearing of each of these sciences on the other in a certain sphere of study; how they depend on each other and how they support each other in dealing with a particular range of facts. Undoubtedly this method seems a matter of common sense.

The fourth method is known as the *Grouping Method*. As the name itself suggests it consists in grouping together geographical facts and phenomena of the same kind and dealing with these kindred facts and phenomena together. Temperature of zones, regions of heavy rainfall, the deserts of the world, the tropical forests are the groups which form the basis of study. This method is no doubt very good but will not do for beginners. It is fit for more advanced students as it presupposes much knowledge. This method is a help to deepen the advance study of Geography as facts already known are placed in a fresh light; as it connects distant places together and suggests comparisons. It also leaves the student to search for principle and to understand more clearly the laws which underlie seemingly dissociated facts and phenomena.

The fifth method is the *Concentric Method*. Under this plan the child will at the very beginning of the school career study a very brief outline of all that is intended he should study in the school course. In every subsequent year this brief outline is gradually expanded until the whole world in full detail is completely mastered.

The sixth method is known as the *Comparative Method*. This, as the name suggests, consists in comparing the various leading natural phenomena of one country or continent with those of another. It is better suited to make the study of geography more deep. The comparison of the Ganges river basin with the Indus basin and the Northern Hindustan river system with that

of Southern India and such like comparisons will lead to the appreciation of contrasts also and these contrasts again will suggest a number of very interesting problems. This method cannot be left out of account in any course of lessons in Geography however elementary.

The seventh method is the *Constructive Method*. This method is based upon the principle that the brain grows while the hand works. At every stage the student of Geography constructs models and maps to illustrate almost every feature he studies in connection with the Geography lesson. This method is a very valuable and important one, provided due sense of proportion is observed. It has been said and said very well indeed that a great deal of brain energy comes out when the hand and the brain are working in harmony; the result is much better work than when the two are not correlated. Practical work systematically done will keep in full employment the self-activities of the pupil. Without it, splendid opportunities to assist rational education are lost. An advocate of this method advises the teacher to dispense wholly with the book, to depend exclusively on the map and pictures, and to lead the pupils to discover for themselves from the map the characteristic features of the nature of a country.

The teacher should from the very commencement never lose sight of the fact that his pupils cannot receive all the training they need within the class-room. Whenever practicable, he should take walks and go on excursions with his pupils, and call their attention to the objects on their way. Of course there are many practical difficulties in the way of carrying into effect this suggestion, but really they are not in themselves insurmountable.

In all Geography lessons, the teacher should systematically and carefully avoid anything approaching the professional methods or a style of lecturing. The tutorial method—the system of question and answer, it cannot be too often

repeated, must be scrupulously followed. The teacher himself should never attempt to dis-course, he should, on the other hand, try to find out the knowledge and experience of his pupils. He may sum up what has been learnt during the lesson from the whole class, and even add to it by filling in some of the more perceptible gaps. But his additions to the common stock of knowledge thus acquired ought not to predominate, at least in the earlier lessons. They should be thrown in only when naturally suggested by what has been gained from the class.

The teacher may often with advantage take some incident of the day, or something that has attracted the attention of his pupils, as the suggestion for a lesson. As for example, a wet morning may suggest a lesson on rain; or the flitting of a butterfly through the class-room serve as an opportunity for introducing to the students some of the wonders of animal life. Such topics naturally rivet the attention of children. The teacher must therefore be ever on the alert for materials on which he may exercise his pupils' powers of observation and reflection.

V. SRINIVASA RAO.

A BENGALI NOVELIST.*

BY PRINCIPAL P. SESHADRI, M.A.

THE towering genius of Sir Rabindranath Tagore has dwarfed writers of lesser merit in Bengal, however genuine their inspiration and however polished their art. The author of the novel under review should for instance have attracted greater notice, but for this circumstance, though we are now glad to see Messrs. Macmillan bring him the recognition which is his due by publishing this translation of his *Swarnalata*. We will say at the outset that we have enjoyed the novel

* *Swarnalata*: By T. N. Ganguli. Translated from Bengali, by Dakshinacharan Roy. (Macmillan & Co., Ltd.) 3s. 6d. net.

immensely and it has made us long to have opportunities of knowing more of his work.

The novel will make a special appeal to Hindus all over India, as it deals with a feature of social life, common to all of them, the joint family. The interest is centred in Sarala, the wife of the younger brother in a Bengali home, tyrannised over by the elder brother's wife. The misery drives Sarala's husband in search of a living; and the poor, patient, suffering wife struggles on in life, with her little son Gopal and an old and faithful servant in the family, Syama, who plays here the noble part of Adam in *As You Like It*, giving the slender savings of a lifetime for the up-keep of the family. Bidhubushan, the husband, returns after various vicissitudes only to see his wife dying of consumption. The story is full of the deepest pathos reminding us of some of the best scenes in George Eliot's *Scenes from Clerical Life*, and coming much nearer to the Indian heart dealing as it does with a life and civilisation in which he has been brought up from childhood.

The novel suffers from an unfortunate want of organic unity, because we are now asked to interest ourselves in a second series of episodes, the fortunes of Sarala's little son, Gopal, who has now grown into a fine young lad and is to marry after some exciting adventures, the pretty and accomplished girl who gives her name to the novel, Swarnalata. We confess we find it impossible to rouse ourselves into any enthusiasm over the young man's chivalrous attempts to win the hand of Swarnalata, nor have we the patience to unravel the complications enveloping the incident of Swarnalata's wedding, as our mind is too full of sweet Sarala who is no more,

and the memory of whose trials in life will be an abiding influence with us. But for the Hindu tradition of ending every possible tale in a wedding, Mr. Ganguli would probably have followed the more artistic course of ending it with the death of Sarala, which is narrated in a scene worthy of any great master of the art of fiction.

There is enough of variety in the novel to relieve the tragic intensity of some of the earlier scenes, and to present a fairly comprehensive picture of village life in Bengal,—let us remember, the author has given the novel, the alternative title of *Scenes from Hindu Village Life in Bengal*. There is Nilkamal, the man from the village whose ambition to become a great actor has to express itself only in personating Hanuman, the Monkey-god and brings on the merciless ridicule of the spectators which drives him to great misery; the malicious Granny Digambari without whose wicked machinations no Indian village would be complete; the greedy Brahmin, Sasanka, (what an undeserved name) who would embroil even sweet Swarnalata in the meshes of his villainy; the latter's father and brother who contribute with the heroine to form the most perfect picture of a Hindu household; and Gopal himself with all the makings in him of a fine gentleman in every sense of the word. The scenes peculiar to Bengal are sketched with considerable ability and real insight and they must be very informing to readers from other provinces.

We are afraid the work of the translator requires considerable revision as the book is full of lapses of English idiom and even positive mistakes of grammar. A random examination reveals a pretty formidable list, which accords with a work of real genius. We are asked, "Did

she dare to accuse her?" (p. 69), and an elementary rule of grammar is broken again and again. "We are told that they laid down to rest" (p. 64) and that "both gave loose their tongues" (p. 69) though the latter is unintelligible and the former is wrong. The translator's knowledge of the correct use of the definite article is not exhibited, at least in this sentence: "Nilkamal's eye was very painful now and the water flowed from it" (p. 106). The translator must be more careful about sequence of tense, than he would seem to be judged by this sentence right at the beginning of the twenty-fifth chapter: "After Bidubhushan's departure from home four years passed, during which Sarala never for a moment forgot her husband." That he uses the correct tense lower in the same paragraph does hardly improve matters. The arrangement of words is faulty when he writes: "While things thus stood" (p. 29) or, "well knew how to ingratiate himself" (p. 87) or again, "a Peepul tree altogether screened her from his sight: "Prayerful attitude" is by no means a good expression, nor does one "insinuate" a compliment and we can also assure the writer that "bright" eyes are to be admired and not referred to as a sign of fever. There are misprints too in the book. A letter has got dropped in "plantin" on page 118; a letter has been added in "Savarna" on page 67; and a letter has been changed in "beggerly" on page 41—so that there are all forms of ordinary mis-spelling. We hope the next edition will have a correction of these and other errors.

In spite of what we have said in the last paragraph we have no hesitation in thinking that *Swarnalata* is among the very best novels of Indian life, suggesting the highest

possibilities in that direction: faithful in its portraiture of society; lively in its narration of incidents; full of emotional power in its treatment of love and sorrow and forming a human document of the highest interest.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

The General Education Board in America.

The General Education Board in America as it now exists, is a non-official body incorporated by an Act of Congress entrusted with the administration of the large fund given by Mr. John D. Rockefeller. The object of this fund, as defined by the donor, was to provide an income to be distributed to, or used for the benefit of, such institutions of learning, at such times, in such amounts, for such purposes, and under such conditions, as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States. The total amount, according to an account recently published, given for this purpose by Mr. Rockefeller stands at dollars 53,000,000, the largest sum undoubtedly ever given by any man for philanthropic purposes. Of this total the Board now holds 34 millions in its endowment and reserve funds, yielding an annual income of about 2½ millions of dollars. Capital and accrued income have been distributed, under the conditions specified by Mr. Rockefeller in 1907, to the amount of dollars 23,800,000 for the endowment of the University of Chicago and the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research. The nature and extent of the Board's activities in the distribution of its permanent funds during the 12 years under review are indicated in the following statement of appropriations made to June 30, 1914:— Colleges and Universities: dollars 10,582,591; Medical schools: dollars 2,670,874; Negro Colleges and schools: dollars 699,781;

Miscellaneous schools: dollars 159,991; Professors of secondary education: dollars 242,861; Southern Education Board: dollars 97,126; Rural school agents: dollars 104,443; Farm demonstration work, South: dollars 925,750; Ditto, Maine and New Hampshire: dollars 50,876; Rural organization service: dollars 37,166; Educational Conferences: dollars 18,108; Administration expenses: dollars 304,794. Total: dollars 15,894,364. The general policy of the Board, as laid down in this report, is to co-operate with State and local authorities, as well as with private institutions, for the advancement of learning, and this without discrimination on religious, racial, or sectional lines. According to the *Times*, it has been the declared policy of the Board to co-operate, but never to interfere, with existing institutions. It has recognized that education in the United States is essentially a State function, and that no national system can ever be possible except one which shall succeed in harmonizing and uniting the several State systems. Ten years of close scientific study have fully confirmed the Board in its opinion that "no fund, however large, could by direct gifts establish a system of public schools," and that to do so, even if it were possible, would be a positive disservice. Up to June, 1914, the Board has made contributions to the funds of 103 Colleges and Universities. The contribution made by the Board to these 103 Colleges and Universities make up a total of 10½ millions of dollars, but, as a result of the conditions attached to these donations, the various institutions benefiting thereby have undertaken to raise additional funds aggregating close on 40 millions. Thus, through the co-operation of the Board over 50 million dollars will have been added to the resources of these institutions. This total does not include bequests, of which there have been many, made by the wills of those "whose interest in a particular institution was first aroused or much deepened by campaigns undertaken to increase endowment."

The English Language as a World Language, by Professor Neumann.

Professor Neumann in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* contributes an amusing article on "The English Language as a World Language in the Present and Future." It is not Herr Neumann's intention to be funny, but like so many of his kind he is most amusing when most serious. The Professor travels over the world, and to his regret finds English spoken in all parts of the Far East. It is spoken, he tells you plaintively, in every shop from Yokohama to Rangoon, in the schools of Siam and Japan, Korea and China. He quotes Lord Curzon: "The sound of the language will go into all lands, and its words unto the ends of the world." He admits that between 1800 and 1900 the number of those speaking the English language has quadrupled, whereas those speaking Russian and German have only trebled. In accounting for this rapid growth Herr Neumann attributes it mainly to "economic conditions." Remove these economic conditions and the language in its growth becomes stagnant. Even now there are marked indications, not only of phonetic decay, but of decay in the capacity of the language to express ideas. In America, for example, there is a rising desire on the part of emigrants and their descendants to perpetuate their own languages at the expense of English. Dr. Neumann does not give his authority for this remarkable statement, which is altogether opposed to the views of the best American writers on the subject. His strongest "proof" is that Germans and Italians, Syrians, Arabs, Jews, and Chinese, all have their own papers in America, published in their particular dialects. American English is becoming rapidly interlarded with impure elements from other languages, and the Professor sees a time coming when these elements will lend a character to the language which it does not at present possess. It is the same in India and China where the language

has become dragged with exotic terms. In the British Colonies the colonists do not dream of writing the classic language of Shakespeare and Dickens. They have thousands of forms in use which are not English, and which are pressing on pure English with disastrous results. Wherever Dr. Neumann looks he finds signs of decay. He quotes the following words as insidious interlopers—Pagoda, monsoon, verandah, shawl. The existence of a jargon-like Pidgin English is evidence that pure English is losing its power. The language is rapidly becoming decomposed. Wherever it comes into contact with a conquering language it recedes—witness Arabic and Esperanto!

Admission into the Intermediate Class: Headmasters' Opinion.

The following representation by Headmasters of High Schools in this Presidency is in course of transmission to the Registrar of the University of Madras:—

We, the undersigned Headmasters of some High Schools in the Presidency, have the honour to request you will be so kind as to lay at an early date the following representations before the Syndicate for their kind consideration and orders thereon.

(2) The Resolutions passed by the Syndicate dated 9-2-15 under Regulation 166(a) regarding the admission of High School students into Colleges, are indeed far too severe and even impracticable, for should they be enforced, they would shut off from Colleges about 90 per cent. of the candidates seeking admission therein. These Resolutions, therefore, require to be revoked, or at least considerably modified, before effect is sought to be given to them in the coming academic year.

(3) The main objection against the Matriculation Examination was that it attached undue importance to the Examination marks, and kept back really deserving pupils; and it was with

a view to remedy the evil that the S. S. L. C. scheme was introduced. But the recent Resolution restricting College admissions militate against the spirit of this scheme inasmuch as they lay down certain fixed minima about the fluctuating Presidency averages in the several subjects of the Public Examination.

(4) Taking the Presidency average in one subject (say English) as the minimum, would exclude 50 per cent. of the applicants for admission; raising it by 5 marks would eliminate 75 per cent.; and extending this standard from one subject to four others would certainly lead to the rejection of so many as 90 per cent. of the candidates, if not more. On the other hand, every facility, one should think, might well be afforded to pupils of even average abilities to enter upon a University course.

(5) To fix the Presidency average as the standard of reference would tend to take away all incentive to work in schools, and all spirit of healthy emulation between them: for if by dint of hard work in all schools a higher Presidency average is reached, quite the same percentage of candidates would still be judged ineligible for College admission.

(6) The Resolutions in question in their zeal to keep out a few stray ineligible candidates, would, in effect, keep out quite a host of eligible ones. This is certainly highly detrimental to higher education, and in the interests of the country in general.

(7) The rule requiring the 'supplementary pupils' to show class marks even in the subjects in which they have done creditably in the Public Examination is quite against the spirit of the S. S. L. C. scheme, which expects the pupils to concentrate their energies in the subjects in which they have been found to be deficient. It will be enough in their case if it is certified that their proficiency in those subjects has been maintained during the 'Supplementary' year.

(8) The low percentage of passes in the Intermediate Examination is more a proof of the undue severity of the test, and of the urgent need for the lightening of its course, than, as is by some alleged, of the abuse of discretion by Principals in making admissions.

(9) In conclusion, we pray that in view of the considerations above detailed no hard and fast rules be laid down to restrict admissions into colleges. Should, however, the Syndicate deem any restriction necessary, an absolute prohibition may be enforced only against those pupils whose marks in English and in the subject or subjects proposed to be brought up for the Intermediate Examination fall below the Presidency average by more than five.

Education in Mysore.

In January this year, the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore submitted proposals for working out the scheme of Compulsory Elementary Education in the fifteen notified localities under the Mysore Elementary Education Regulation. The Inspector-General of Education was not in favour of opening new Government schools in all cases where provision for educating more students had to be made, but considered that the improvement and expansion of existing schools and the starting of aided schools should be encouraged wherever practicable. He further recommended that the Grant-in-Aid rules might be relaxed so as to admit of grants being given up to two-thirds of the cost, during the next three years in the notified areas. Orders have now been passed by the Mysore Government agreeing with the Inspector-General in his views and to approving of the principles enunciated by him, including the relaxation of the Grant-in-Aid rule for three years. It is not, however, clear from his letter how many new Government schools are likely to be required, how many aided schools may be expected to be started in each of the cities and towns, and how many of the existing schools

require to be improved or in how many of them more students can be admitted after effecting improvements. The number of aided, Government or Municipal schools out of the 205 institutions now in existence, is not also known. In the absence of information on these points, and as to the number of schools having one, two, three or more classes respectively, the Mysore Government observe in the order that they are not in a position to judge of the financial effects of the proposals. They are, however, satisfied that the line of action proposed by the Inspector-General is suitable and they have therefore authorised the Inspector-General of Education to proceed to give effect to the scheme in accordance therewith, and to open new schools or sanction grants to aided schools as the need arises. The Comptroller has also been authorised to admit the charges incurred by the Inspector-General under this order for a period of three months in each case, in anticipation of and pending the formal sanction of Government. As regards the improvement of existing schools, the Government have sanctioned scales of establishment and charges for primary schools as a standard to be adopted in the case of schools having not less than 120 students on the rolls and 100 in average attendance, which work out at Rs. 112 per mensem for schools in Mysore and Bangalore Cities and of Rs. 87 per mensem in other towns. In opening new schools the Inspector-General of Education has been instructed to see that the ratio of one teacher for 30 students, is not exceeded in any institution. The Inspector-General has also been empowered to appoint additional teachers in existing schools whenever the number of students warrants it.

Some Observations on the S. S. L. C. Scheme, by Mr. S. Vaidianathaiyer.

Mr. S. Vaidianathaiyer, Headmaster, Municipal High School, Walajapet, writes: Out of the 12 boys of this school that completed

their certificates by appearing in all subjects in the last public examination, not one is eligible to enter the University course. About half the number have failed piteously by not getting the required marks above the Presidency average in one of the five subjects—the three A group and the two C group subjects. To quote an instance, A boy having only 4 marks above the Presidency average in Tamil alone (Group C) is to be considered disqualified though he has scored good marks in all other subjects. Here are his marks.

Subjects.	At the Public Examination.	Presidency Average.	Marks as moderated.
1. English ...	43	43	51
2. Composition and Translation (Tamil)...	47	46	49
3. Elementary Mathematics ...	44	32	38
4. Tamil (C) ...	42	37	41
5. Chemistry, Theology and Practical ...	50	37	55

2. In addition to these 12 boys, five appeared in A and one in C group subjects. Of these 17, not less than half the number would have passed the Matriculation examination if they had appeared for it.

3. The moderation seems to have done as much harm as good. It brings down the public examination marks in some cases (please see above). It even brings it below the Presidency average thus making the boy ineligible for admission who would otherwise be eligible.

4. So, this moderation may better be made in the case of boys whose marks in the public examination are low. Further, the minimum for admission should not be as high as it is fixed at present; it should be the Presidency average itself and in some special cases, 5 marks below the Presidency average, such special cases being

failure in one or two subjects with distinctly good marks in other subjects. This concession to deserving cases is one of the salient good features expected of the S. S. L. C. system.

Another change is, in my humble opinion, to be made in the circular regarding the supplementary course. The circular lays down that boys that have qualified in some subjects should undergo a supplementary course in school in these subjects also though they need not appear in them at the public examination. I am unable to see any other object for this course except it be a penalty for their not qualifying in all the subjects in one year. Is this course for improvement in knowledge or marks? It can't be for the former as they would read the same subjects; it can't be for the latter as they need not qualify again having qualified before. On the other hand, there is a chance of disqualifying themselves in such subjects in that year's moderation. So in this matter, things may continue as before.

5. I continue to be an optimist with regard to the S. S. L. C. scheme that has been working these years. Some of the defects, such as, the non-recognition of B group subjects, the utter disregard to school marks, the vagueness due to the absence of a passing or a failing have been remedied in some measure. Other defects would surely receive due attention and when these are also remedied the system is bound to be a boon.

I have these suggestions to make for the immediate improvement of the scheme. The specialisation should be in the Sixth Form. The syllabuses in some subjects, such as Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics should be lightened as specialisation begin only in the Sixth Form and boys read these subjects only one year. By these means they may be made to have a real and useful knowledge in the subjects they read and a good foundation for the intermediate course.

The history and the languages of the land have not received the consideration they so much deserve. However much the position of B group subjects is bettered, Indian history and Indian languages should find place in A group to better fit the Indian youths in the full measure.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

Rules for admission into the Intermediate Class.

The following are the Resolutions of the Syndicate passed at its meeting held on February 9, 1915, on the question of issuing rules and directions in connection with the admission of students to affiliated Colleges, under Regulation 166 (a):—

1. That the recommendation of the Senate that no holder of a completed Secondary School Leaving Certificate be admitted to a University Course of Study, or registered as a Matriculate, unless he has obtained a minimum percentage of marks in such subjects as may be specified by the Syndicate, be accepted.

2. That the marks obtained by a holder of a Secondary School Leaving Certificate should, before being made the basis of admission to an affiliated College, be moderated as follows:—

The individual mark gained by him for the last year at school in each subject of Groups A and C of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme should be multiplied by the average mark for the school at the public examination and the result divided by the average mark of his class for the last year at school. The figure thus obtained should be added to the individual mark gained by him at the public examination as the total should then be divided by two.

3. (a) That admission to University Courses should be restricted to those holders of completed Secondary School-Leaving Certificates, whose final marks as moderated above are above the Presidency or State average in the Final Examination.

(i) by 15 marks (of which 5 marks shall be English) in the subjects of Group A taken together.

(ii) by 5 marks in each of any two of the subjects in Group C

(b) That any student who has failed to qualify for admission to a University Course of Study by reason of deficiency in any subject or subjects should be required to undergo a supplementary course at school in all subjects and to appear again at the public examination in the subject or subjects in which he failed to qualify, and his eligibility for admission should then be determined by the marks gained by him after moderation as follows:—

(i) in the case of the subjects in which he failed to qualify for admission, as in para 2 above, his latest school and public examination marks being taken.

(ii) in the case of the subjects in which he previously qualified for admission, by multiplying the individual mark obtained by him at school during the supplementary year by the average mark of the school at the public examination of that year and dividing the result by the average mark of his class for the same year at school.

4. That the selection of candidates for admission to University Courses of Study should be made by the Principals of affiliated Colleges from among those eligible under the rules 2 and 3 and that for the guidance of Principals the Registrar be directed to issue a circular or recommendations similar to those of previous years, in which there should be a further recommendation that any marked deficiency in the subjects of Group B on the part of any candidate otherwise eligible for admission to a University Course of Study should be considered a disqualification, until such deficiency had been removed as the result of a supplementary course at school.

5. That the several Directors of Public Instruction be requested to arrange, if possible, for the final marks as moderated according to the foregoing rules being shown on each certificate issued.

6. That resolutions 2 and 3 above be communicated to the Principals of affiliated Colleges with an intimation that for the year 1915 they may be considered not as rules and directions issued under Regulation 166 (a), but as recommendations which, however, ought to be observed as strictly as possible in making admissions to the college for the ensuing academic year, and that the certificates of all students admitted contrary to these recommendations during the year must be submitted to the Syndicate for inspection, together with a full statement of the special grounds upon which such students were admitted.

Also that Principals of Colleges be further informed that it is the intention of the Syndicate that after the year 1915-1916 these recommendations shall come into force as express rules and directions and that no student admitted other than in accordance therewith will be eligible for registration as a Matriculate of the University.

Results of Examinations.

First M. B. & B. S. Exam.: 22 candidates passed in 2nd class and 9 candidates were qualified for the 1st L. M. & S.

Second M. B. & B. S.: 18 candidates passed of whom 1 was placed in 1st class, and 6 were qualified for the 2nd L. M. & S.

Second L. M. & S. (New): 13 passed.

Second L. M. & S. (Old): 6 passed.

Third M. B. & B. S.: 20 passed, and 9 were qualified for the 3rd L. M. & S.

Third L. M. & S.: 21 passed.

Final M. B. & B. S. Degree: 6 passed, and 8 were qualified for the Final L. M. & S. Degree.

Final L. M. & S. Degree: 24 passed.

M. D. Degree Examination: James, Gnana-muthu V.

B. S. Sc. Degree Exam. (Part 1): 1 passed.

B. A. (Honours) Degree Final Examination:—

Branch I (Mathematics): 1st class—3, 2nd class—2, 3rd class—10.

Branch II—A (Physical Science): 2nd class—6, 3rd class—2.

Branch II—B (Physical Science): 2nd class—1, 3rd class—1.

Branch III (Natural Science): 2nd class—4, 3rd class—7.

Branch IV (Mental and Moral Science): 1st class—1, 2nd class—3.

Branch V (History and Economics): 1st class—2, 2nd class—10, 3rd class—15.

Branch VII (English Language and Literature): 1st class—2, 2nd class—9, 3rd class—14.

Branch VIII (Sanskrit Language and Literature): 2nd class—5, 3rd class—3.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

College of Science.

The Syndicate of the Calcutta University recommended to the Senate at the meeting on 19th inst. that a grant of Rs. 20,000 should be given for the partial equipment of the University College of Science to render it possible to work in July next. The college is being started out of the endowment made by the late Sir Tarakanath Palit of Rs. 14,00,000 with the object of promoting scientific and technical education among his countrymen through indigenous agency. According to the conditions of Sir Tarakanath's bequest the chairs for research will be maintained out of the income derivable from the endowment. But the University must earmark a sum of Rs. 2,50,000 for the structure of the college. The site chosen is No. 92, Upper Circular Road, an area of about 13 bighas of land, part of which was owned by Sir Tarakanath Palit. In accordance with the scheme there will be laboratories for Chemistry, Physics and Botany. The staff will consist of Dr. P. C. Ray, Dr. P. C. Mitra, Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, Messrs. Raman, D. N. Bose and Agarka. The last two mentioned went to Berlin to study before the opening of the war and are possibly still interned there since no news has been received from them. At present the college will start with twenty students for research work in Chemistry. Dr. P. C. Ray will occupy the chair.

The erection of the college buildings is not finished and the date of its completion cannot yet be given. It is understood that the chemical classes will be held in a portion which is sufficiently advanced to be used for the purpose.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

College of Commerce.

The local Government has accepted the offer of a sum of Rs. 1,85,000 in 3½ per cent. Government Promissory Notes made by the Committee for Lord Sydenham Memorial Fund. The terms of the offer are that the Government should undertake to provide a suitable site and building thereon for the Government College of Commerce, any additional funds that may be required for the purpose being supplied by the Government and the college to be named after Lord Sydenham. Until the building for the college is taken in hand the Government be authorised to expend such part of the interest according from the fund as may be required for the scheme for renting quarters for students of the college. The Government should undertake the construction of a

building for the college as soon as ever it is practicable for them to do so and the Committee be afforded an opportunity of expressing their opinion regarding the selection of site and the plan of the building before they are finally settled. In compliance with the above it has been decided to designate the college in future the 'Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics.'

Matriculation Examination Result.

Out of 4247 boys who appeared at the Matriculation Examination of the Bombay University 1008 are successful.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

Dates of Examinations, 1916.

The Registrar has the honour to inform that, provided the *Holi* festival does not fall on any of these dates—(i) the Intermediate, the Matriculation and the Commercial Certificate Examinations of 1916 will be held on Monday, the 13th March, 1916, and following days, beginning at 10 a.m. each day; one paper, as far as possible, being given daily in the Intermediate and the Commercial Certificate Examinations, and two papers daily in the Matriculation Examination; (ii) the Degrees (Arts and Science) Examinations of 1916 will be held on Monday, the 27th March, 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day; one paper, as far as possible, being given daily; (iii) the previous and Final LL. B. and the LL. M. Examinations of 1916 will be held on Monday, the 24th April, 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day; one paper as far as possible, being given daily; (iv) the L. T. Examination of 1916 will be held on Monday, the 3rd April, 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day; one paper being given daily; (v) the Preliminary Scientific M.B., B.S. Examination of 1916 will be held on Monday, the 3rd April, 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day; one paper being given daily; (vi) the 1st M.B., B.S. Examination of 1916 will be held on Saturday, the 1st April 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day; one paper, as far as possible, being given daily; The Practical Examination will be held on Monday, the 10th April, 1916, and following days; (vii) the Examination in Group A of the Final M.B., B.S. Examination of 1916 will be held on Thursday, the 6th April, 1916, and following days, beginning at 7 a.m. each day, and the Examination in Group B shall commence on Monday, the 10th April, 1916; one paper, as far as possible, being given daily. The Practical and Oral Examinations of both Groups shall be held

on Monday, the 17th April, 1916, and following days. The dates for the Degrees Practical Examinations will be notified hereafter.

Commercial Certificate Examination.

The Registrar, University of Allahabad, has informed the Principals of Colleges affiliated in Commerce that the Syndicate of the University has accepted the view of the Faculty of Commerce, that greater stress should be laid on accuracy rather than on speed in Shorthand, and has, therefore, resolved—(i) that the passage and business letter referred to in clauses 1 and 2 under the heading "Shorthand" in the prospectus of the commercial certificate examination be dictated at the rate of 100 words per minute instead of at the rate of 110 words per minute; (ii) that clause 4 of that same section be made to read as follows:—In judging of the candidate's performance, special importance will be attached to spelling, punctuation, neatness of writing in transcription, proper arrangement into paragraphs, and general business-like appearance; (iii) that these suggested changes come into force in the 1916 examination.

Medical Examination Results.

BACHELORS OF MEDICINE.

Final Examination.—The following is the list of successful candidates who appeared at the Final Examination for the degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery from the King George's Medical College, Lucknow:—Anil Kumar San Gupta; Balbir Singh Gurkha; Banwari Lal Gupta; Brij Behari Lal Saksena; Dwarka Prasad Bhargava; Har Govind Dayal Mathur; Hari Krishna Dikshit; Kali Sahai Nigam; Kedar Nath Goyal; Lakshman Das; Madho Prasad; Manohar Lal Bhargava; Mahomed Abdul Hamid; Rabindra Nath Banerjee (Honours in Medical Jurisprudence); Vidya Dayal Saksena; Zafar Husain Jafri. In the *First Examination* 33 students passed, 7 of them getting Honours.

School Leaving Certificate Examination, 1915.

Out of 1971 candidates who appeared at the School Leaving Certificate Examination (1915) of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh; 962 candidates passed of whom 48 were placed in the First Division and 914 in the Second Division.

S. S. L. C. Examination.

The number of candidates appeared this year for the S.S.L.C. Examination of the Allahabad University shows a steady rise. This is the fourth time the examination has been held. In

1912, only about 750 candidates appeared while this year they came up to 2,000 almost, of which nearly 53% appeared in the first division and 43 in Mathematics. But over 200 distinctions have been gained in two vernaculars, distinctions in the other subjects being very few.

Changes in Regulations.

In Regulation 12 the word "Examination" in the fifth line is changed to "Examinations," the word "Degree" in the sixth line is changed to "Degrees," and the words "and Bachelor of Science" are added after the word "Arts" in the sixth line.

Regulation 12 has been changed so as to read as follows:—"With the exception of the Previous Examination in Law, and of the Practical Examination for the B. Sc. degree, each of the examinations subsequent to the Intermediate Examination in Arts shall be held once every year at Allahabad, and the examinations for the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science at Nagpur also, and shall extend over such days as the Syndicate shall appoint."

Regulation 13 has been amended to read as follows:—"The Central Provinces Tenancy Act and the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, together with the rules made thereunder, in the case of candidates who intend to practise in the Central Provinces including Berar, and who are prosecuting a regular course of study in one of the affiliated Schools of Law in the said Provinces, or in the University School of Law, or in other Schools of Law affiliated to the University, in which adequate provision is made for the teaching of the Central Provinces Tenancy Act and the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act; and the Law relating to Law Tenures, Rent and Revenue in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh in the case of other candidates."

OFFICE MEMORANDUM OF THE INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, BHAGALPUR DIVISION.

Matriculation Examination, 1916.

Test-Examination of Private students.

A student who has not attended any school for at least one year previous to the examination, will be treated as a private student.

2. All private students are required to appear at the test-examination of a Zila School. No private student will be admitted to the test-examination unless accompanied for the purpose of identification, by some person known to the Headmaster.

3. The first day of the test-examination in all Zila Schools in the Bhagalpur Division will be the 14th December 1915. The results must reach this office by the 5th of January 1916.

4. Each private student will have to pay on or before 30th November 1915, a fee of Rs. 2 for admission to the test-examination, to the head of the Institution at which he appears. The balance of fees, after payment of expenses (stationery, etc.), will go as remuneration to the examiners.

5. Candidates for the test-examination should apply to this office not later than the 15th of November 1915. They should forward the certificates granted to them under the transfer rules by the Headmaster of the school in which they last read. In the case of a candidate who had failed at a previous Matriculation Examination and did not join a school afterwards, the Registrar's receipt, in original, will be accepted in lieu of the transfer certificate.

6. A student who failed to pass the annual examination for promotion to the first class at the end of the session 1914-15 and then left the school cannot under any circumstances be allowed to appear at the Matriculation Examination that will be held in March 1916.

7. Each candidate should submit with his application a statement showing:—

- (1) Age. No candidate who has not completed the age of 16 years on the first day of March 1916, will be allowed to appear at the Matriculation Examination.
- (2) Residence.
- (3) Father's name.
- (4) Classical language.
- (5) Vernacular language.
- (6) Additional subjects.
- (7) Whether he has appeared at any previous Matriculation Examination.
- (8) A certificate signed by a respectable gentleman to the effect that the candidate has prosecuted a regular course of study and has been subject to proper discipline.

8. *Bonâ-fide* teachers employed in any of the recognized schools in the Bhagalpur Division may be admitted to the test-examination on payment of the prescribed fee, provided they can produce certificates of service and character from their employers, or from the Deputy Inspector of the district concerned.

9. The forms of application for permission to appear at the Matriculation Examination will be signed by the Headmaster of the Zila School at which the candidates have undergone the test, and will be forwarded by him to the Inspector for countersignature not later than the 10th of January 1916.

10. Applications and fees (amounting to Rs. 12 in each case) for admission to the Matriculation Examination must be forwarded to the Registrar of the Calcutta University by the private candidates themselves, before the date to be fixed by the University.

11. Candidates who have had their training in a school situated beyond the jurisdiction of the Calcutta University will not be permitted to appear at the test-examination as private candidates.

12. Candidates who have not been resident within this Province for at least one year previous to the date of the Matriculation Examination, except in the cases of the sons or wards of Government servants transferred to this Province, will not be permitted to appear at the test-examination as private candidates.

Intermediate in Arts and Science, B. A. and B. Sc. Examinations, 1916.

Deputy Inspectors of Schools, Sub-Inspectors of Schools, and *bona fide* teachers of recognized English Schools in the Bhagalpur Division of three years' standing, i.e., those who have served as such for full three academical sessions, will be admitted to the above examinations. Schoolmasters should produce certificates of character and length of service (with dates), and of diligent and regular study from the managers of the schools in which they are employed. The applications must reach this office not later than the 15th January 1916.

2. Candidates for the B. A. or B. Sc. Examination must forward with the applications their F. A. or I. A. or I. Sc. certificates, and those for the I. A. or I. Sc. Examination their Entrance or Matriculation certificates, together with a letter in original, from the Senate of the Calcutta University permitting them to appear at the examination.

3. Candidates should read carefully the certificate which this office will have to sign and be careful to supply all information and documents required, without which the Inspector must decline to sign it.—*Behar & Orissa Gazette, June 23, '15.*

Reviews and Notices

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY EDUCATION? BY J. WELTON, D. LIT., M.A. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 5s. net.

It must indeed excite no small surprise that any such question should come to be asked in this enlightened twentieth century as is indicated by the title of this latest work of Prof. Welton's. Nevertheless, it is a strange and significant fact that this question, fundamental as it is, does not seem to be any nearer solution to-day, than it was when Aristotle wrote two thousand years ago. We find this very question raised so recently as last August before the Education Section of the British Association.

There are three problems with which the practical educator has to deal—the end of education, the subjects of study, and the methods of instruction. These three hang together, the methods depend upon the subjects, the subjects upon the end, and this again on the theory held as to the general aim of life. Seeing how varied are the views held regarding the general aim of life, and what dissatisfaction there has been regarding the results that have been achieved by education, the question is one that needs consideration in all seriousness; and Prof. Welton's book is an eminently luminous contribution towards clearing the ground, and removing the several misconceptions that prevail regarding the most essential aspects of this vital question,—the error and confusion being for the most part due to matters like education being allowed "to drift along on the stream of tradition and prejudice," and to a distressingly vague and indefinite use of terms.

The most fundamental error in the prevailing notion about the subject consists in identifying the work of education solely with that done in schools and colleges, as if the man brought up in the subjects of a school curriculum is alone to be regarded as 'educated', and the influence of schools and colleges the only influence worth being considered educative. Education is a teleological process. It therefore includes every positive human influence, not that of the school alone. It is not sufficiently recognised that the sphere of school influence is, after all, but limited and that the parents have an 'inalienable responsibility' in the matter. It is deeply to be regretted that owing to absorption in the superficial trivialities of life, and such other causes, parental responsibility has come to be greatly neglected; parents have not more than the

vaguest notion of what schools are doing, or of what they wish their children to become. Not until both the family and the school work in harmony, and fulfil their respective functions, can the true purpose of education be achieved.

It has thus to be remembered that all the existing differences of opinion regarding education bear upon only that part of it which is undertaken by the schools, and do not relate to the entire process. Now we find that these differences resolve themselves into differences of opinion regarding the end of education. Is the end of education to be knowledge or character, social service or self-realisation? Our answer will depend upon our general theory of life, upon what we regard as the highest good for man to achieve. If education is therefore to achieve its purpose, it must only be after an agreement is arrived at as regards what should be the ultimate aim of life. Again, where, as in education, the question of end is involved, inquiries into facts cannot yield ultimate principles in the shape of invariable laws, such as are possible in the department of the physical sciences. Moreover, the problem of education is a psychological one; its consideration is therefore subject to the difficulties and limitations of psychological investigations in general. The difficulties of the internal and external methods of observation are too well-known to need mention. What is known as child study can at best only help indirectly the problem of education; while, experiments test only the workings of minds under artificial conditions quite remote from the concrete point of view. Quantitative exactness, it is, in the nature of things, impossible to secure. And, after all, traditional psychology has been individualistic, whereas education has to do with the psychology of a community, a kind of social psychology. Nothing can help the science of education so much as a frank recognition of the difficulties involved.

After making this clear, the author takes up the question of the end on which every thing else depends, and as to which there are ever so many differences of opinion. The author's exposition is truly original and refreshing, and in Chapters II and III he elucidates several important points and admirably succeeds in showing how apparently divergent doctrines, when considered from a higher standpoint of life's needs and activities, are not merely reconcilable, but are even complementary to each other. The whole discussion is highly illuminating, and con-

tains solid remarks and reflections which are the deliberate conclusions of the close thinker and practical expert.

The prevailing differences of opinion regarding the aim of life and the end of education are exhibited in the well-known antitheses, between idealism and naturalism,—is man's nature spiritual or material; between the individual and his environment,—is man's life essentially independent or one of dependence on his surroundings, physical and human; between knowledge and character,—is the cultivation of knowledge or the development of character to be the end of education; between knowledge and training,—is intellectual culture to be a matter of knowledge or of mental attitude; between liberty and authority,—is the pupil to be brought up to lead a life of liberty and independence or one of subjection to authority. Close analysis resolves every one of these antitheses, and we find not a compromise alone, but even a synthesis possible between the items in each antithetical pair. Man's nature is at once spiritual and physical; that man is truly wise and good who lives his own life ever as a part of the life of others; the same studies may be liberalising or merely utilitarian according to the nature of the individual mind; all learning is training in intellectual power; liberty and authority are really inseparable, as may be seen from man's progress or freedom implying intelligent obedience to natural laws.

All these reconciliations notwithstanding, there still remains the ultimate question whether the spiritual or the material is to determine the main aim of life; and the author comes to the conclusion that materialism is by no means adequate as an explanation of life, that man's nature is essentially spiritual, that the physical is not to be suppressed but to be subordinated to the needs of the spirit, that the end of education is the development of a full and effective personality, and that the highest good possible to man is to be sought in a relation to that highest good and true personality that we call God. Education, then, is not the mere drawing forth of innate capacities, but the drawing them out so that the end of a full and effective personality may be realised.

Next to the question of the end is that of the means,—the subjects of study, and the methods of instruction. In considering the means we have to keep in view not merely the end, but also the beginning of the process of education. The immaturity of the young has to be recognised

The earliest means of education, therefore, is an exercise of authority at home and in the school, and the young have to be taught first the duty of obedience—the root of all virtues. The institution of a scheme of studies is one form in which authority is exercised in the school. As Professor Welton rightly points out, that the chief objection to existing schemes is their rigid uniformity, notwithstanding the varieties there are in the tastes, aptitudes and needs of the pupils. There should be different types of schools for the different grades of society—the working classes, the middle classes, and the higher classes. The subjects chosen, without being removed from life, should be in accord with the feelings, aspirations and ideals, of the grades for whom the course is intended. The suggestions in regard to what should be taught in schools to boys and to girls are very instructive; and the criticisms on the evils of premature specialisation, and the dominance of an examination system “where verbal memory and shallow cleverness” would seem to be the surest aids, are extremely sound and wholesome.

Having discussed the end and the means, the author devotes the concluding chapter to the question as to who are the agents whose sacred task it is to guide the developing personality. There are four of these, all of which should work in harmony, the family, the school, the state, and the church. Family life being the earliest of the influences, the author rightly lays stress on parents realising their responsibility. The school is “the meeting point between the child and the nation;” it should therefore secure the active co-operation of the pupils in promoting their corporate welfare. Dealing with the influences of the state and the church, the author discusses the functions of the state in the matter of education, and clears up the misconceptions as to what religious education really means.

Dr. Welton's is a remarkable book, which reveals the author's deep and intimate knowledge of the problem with which he deals. His power of analysis is acute, and his attempts to remove the erroneous opinions and beliefs that prevail, by tracing them to their root causes, constitute an invaluable service to the cause of education.

AN INTRODUCTION TO EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY
IN RELATION TO EDUCATION, BY C. W. VALENTINE, D. PHIL. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS).
2s. 6d. net.

The importance of the results of experimental researches in psychology has come to be sufficiently recognised, that most teachers are sure to feel interested in experiments of their own concerning psychological problems that bear on their immediate work in the class room. To such this book offers invaluable help. It contains detailed instructions for conducting experiments on such practical problems as those of attention, memory, mental fatigue and so on—problems that the teacher has to deal with every hour of the day. The significance of these experiments is expounded in the second part of the book where, in addition, the author gives a clear and succinct account of the psychological topics dealt with. Experiments of this kind carried out by the practical teacher are bound to render his knowledge of the mental processes more definite and accurate, and also to suggest more effective methods of intellectual training. They also furnish ample opportunities to the teacher for estimating the mental capacity of his pupils, so that, as the author points out, in course of time, useful comparisons may be instituted between pupils of different sexes, of different generations, and of different countries, and it may even be possible to predict with confidence the future of individual pupils. Dr. Valentine's book thus opens out quite an inviting prospect which is sure to attract and engage the teacher who is imbued with a genuine love for his work.

MYSORE ECONOMIC JOURNAL, Nos. 1—6.

We owe an apology to the Editor, *Mysore Economic Journal*, for the delay in reviewing the first six Nos. of the Journal which have been kindly sent to us. But the delay has been more or less unavoidable and we are now able to say, after perusing all these issues, that the Journal has obtained for itself, in the brief period of its existence, a very high place in the ranks of Indian journalism. The Journal is the logical outcome of the constitution and activities of the Economic Conference which has done and which is doing so much for the industrial upheaval of Mysore; and as the State government has permitted its servants to contribute to its pages, we find very able articles written by people who know what they write about, who have the un-

impeachable authority of experience for what they say and what they think. The science of Indian Economics has suffered much from the vagaries of superficial students who have shewn themselves to be more destructive critics than constructive and practical business-men; and it is welcome to see a Journal where the writers are practical men, and where the writings have always something suggestive and instructive in them.

A mere reiteration of the contents of this Journal will illustrate what we have said regarding it. In the *January* No., Dr. Mann traces, in a manner which is both authoritative and edifying, the lines of development of Indian agriculture; Mr. Chatterton writes on *Rural Water Supplies*; Dr. Colman on *Agricultural Progress in Mysore*, Mr. A. K. Yagna-Narayana Aiyar on the *Threshing Methods in Mysore*, and Dr. Srinivasa Rao on *Research and Sanitation*. In the *February* No., Dr. Marsden writes on the prospects of the British dye-stuff manufacture in consequence of the war; Prof. Kale points out the process of disintegration going on in Indian villages, but suggests no remedies. Mr. N. Rama Rao next describes the measures taken by the Mysore Darbar for the improvement of villages, in education, production, sanitation, co-operation, etc. Mr. C. H. Yates notes certain merits and defects of the Indian workman and points out how, while he is intelligent and able, he is lacking in “activity, co-operation and self-reliance.” He elaborates the question and goes into details which amply pay perusal. Mr. K. Subba Rao's *Sericulture in Mysore* and B. Ivers' *Brick manufacture* are other articles of practical importance. In the *April* No., the place of honour is given to Mr. J. S. Chakravarti's learned article on the practicability of agricultural insurance in an Indian State. He divides agricultural insurance into three parts, namely (1) insurance of house, granary and implements, (2) cattle insurance, and (3) crop insurance; and is of opinion that the first may be left out as of minor importance, the second left to the Co-operative Societies, and the third undertaken by the State. In his *Peeps into Rural Economic Life*, Mr. M. Shama Rao gives the actual income and expenditure of four individuals in a village. Mr. H. F. Marker writes an article on the good prospects of cement manufacture in Mysore. Mr. J. Wallace points out, in the next article, what things are not at present taught in Indian schools and how this defect should be remedied if the country is to be industrially better. In the *May* No., Dr. Marsden considers the materials available in India for the dyeing

industry. Mr. Sitaram Rao contributes an informing paper on the prospects of paper manufacture in Mysore, and Mr. A. P. Smith of Travancore service, on the economic value of certain forest products. In the *June* issue Mr. M. Srinivasa Rao enumerates the requirements of Economic Research. Mr. C. R. Webster writes a very interesting paper on the economic significance of play and recreation in different countries. Mr. Marker's *Economic use of waste matter*, Mr. Subbiah's *apple cultivation in Bangalore*, Mr. K. S. Srinivasa Rao's *Ohit Funds* and Mr. K. Subba Rao's *Sericulture in Kadur and Hassan* are other interesting articles.

Each No. has got the notes of the month, a summary of interesting speeches on economic subjects or articles in different periodicals, and extracts from Reports, Speeches, etc. Altogether the *Mysore Economic Journal* is one of the most useful Journals in India and when this is said, much is said about it. We wish it a long and prosperous career, as it is bound to have.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Models and Exercises in Commercial French, by E. T. Griffiths, M.A. London: Pitman.
2s. 6d. net.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS FROM THE C.L.S., MADRAS.
Florence Nightingale, by Mrs. Macnicol, L.B.C. P.S.E. 1 anna.

The Life of Service, in Telugu. 3 as.

A Help to Family Worship, in Tamil. 4 as.

Bible Lessons for Little Beginners. Second year. 10 as.

Pictures and Stories for the Young. 1 anna.

Missionary Ideals, by the Rev. T. Walker, in Tamil. 3 as.

Geography of Asia, in Telugu. 5 as.

War and Religion, by the Rev. N. Macnicol, M.A., D.LITT. 1 anna.

Short Papers for the Times: No. 18, Responsibility. 1 p.

No. 41. Why do Christians preach to non-Christians. 1 p.

No. 42. The Claim of Christianity. 1 p.

No. 43. Salvation vs. Mukti. 1 p.

BOOKS FROM MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.

Here and There Stories: Intermediate, Here and There in Scotland and Ireland. 4d.; Senior, Here and There in Australasia. 5d.

How and Why Stories: Curious Facts about Animals. 4d.; *Insect Life.* 5d.

The Sanskrit Teacher, by Rao Bahadur R. P. Trivedi, B.A. Re. 1-8.

The Pre-Musalman Period of Indian History, by M. Prothero, M.A., and Mahamahopadyaya Satishchandra Vidyabushana, M.A., Ph.D. 12 as.

History of India for Junior Classes, by E. Marsden, B.A. 12 as.

Geography for Junior Classes, by E. Marsden, B.A. 12 as.

Waterloo, par Erckmann-Chatrain, adapted and edited by Eugene Pellissier. 2s. 6d.

The Pupil's Hand-book of English History. Book II. The Tudors, by Ed. J. S. Iay. 6d.

Milton's Paradise Lost. Books I and II, edited by J. C. Scribmegeour. 2s. 6d.

Geography of the British Isles, by W. Maclean Carey, M.A., B.Sc. 1s. 6d.

Handwork at the School Desk. Vol. I, by Lady Baine. Scholar's Text-book for First Year, Second Year and Third Year. London: Bell.

The Growth of English Drama, by Arnold Wynne, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 3s. 6d. net.

Dickens' Tale of Two Cities, by A. R. Weekes, M.A. London: W. B. Clive.

The World at War, by J. Nelson Frazer. Oxford University Press. 14 as.

Heffer's Phonetic Series. English Hamour in Phonetic Transcript, by G. Neil Armfield. 1s. 3d. *Short English Poems*, by O. M. Rice, M.A., A.B.C.M. 1s. 3d. Cambridge: Heffer and Sons.

Studies Introductory to a Theory of Education, by E. T. Campagnac. 3s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.

The Surface of the Earth, by Herbert Pickles, B.A., B.Sc. Cambridge University Press.

The Book of Judges, by H. C. O. Lancheater, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 1s. 6d. net.

Handbooks of Hindu Law, by H. D. Cornish, B.A. Part I. *The Hindu Joint Family*, 9s. net. Part III. *Partition and Maintenance*. 9s. net.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Government Orders.—The Governor in Council is pleased to appoint the gentlemen named below to be President and members of the Madras Students' Advisory Committee from the 1st June, 1915, 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 Hon'ble the Resident in Hyderabad (*ex-officio*); The Hon'ble the Resident in Mysore (*ex-officio*); Raja Vasudeva Raja, Valia Nambidi of Kollengode; The Hon'ble Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A.; Mr. A. W. Bishop, Ph.D., Director of Public Instruction, Travancore; Mr. F. S. Davies, B.A., Director of Education, Cochin; M.R.Ry. K. Ramunni Menon Avargal, M.A., Professor of Zoology, Presidency College; M.R.Ry. S. E. Ranganatham, M.A., L.T., Junior Professor of English, Presidency College; M.R.Ry. Diwan Bahadur K. Narayana Rao Avargal, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Madras; Mr. A. Latifi, Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad; Mr. E. P. Metcalfe, B.Sc., Professor of Physics, Central College, Bangalore; Rao Bahadur K. Ramanuja chariyar, Principal, Maharaja's College, Vizianagaram; The Rev. W. W. Wallace, Principal, American Mission College, Madura; The Rev. Allen Gardiner, Principal, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly; Mr. Young Necker, Headmaster, Bishop Corrie's High School, Madras; Mr. Yakub Hassan; Mr. Krishnan Pandalai, LL.D. (Bar-at-Law). **Secretary:**—Mr. A. Davies, Principal, Law College, Madras.

The plans and estimates received with the letter from the Director of Industries, No.E. 29, dated the 16th February 1915, for the provision of additional accommodation for the St. Joseph's Girls' Industrial School, Bellary, are approved subject to the remarks of the Chief Engineer. In G. O. No. 301, Educational, dated the 15th March 1915, the Government approved the proposal to make a grant of the total amount required for this purpose and also sanctioned the payment, in advance, of a sum of Rs. 2,000. They now sanction the payment of the balance subject to the following conditions:—that the aggregate grant does not exceed the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 7,000; and that all the conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-Aid Code are duly complied with. In this connection the attention of the Director of Industries is drawn to paragraph 8 of G. O. No. 397, Educational, dated the 8th April 1914, and to G. O. No. 865, Educational, dated 22nd July 1914, and he will be requested to arrange to secure the mortgage of the property without limit of time as suggested in paragraph 8 of the Government Solicitor's letter printed in the latter Government Order. The amount required for the payment of the grant will be met from the special Imperial grant of Rs. 21,000 provided in the

Civil Budget Estimate for 1915-16 under "26 Bm.—Scientific, etc., Departments—Miscellaneous—Grants-in-Aid for Industrial Schools."

The Government sanction the distribution of a subsidy of Rs. 9,100 to the Local Boards and Municipalities for improving the scale of salaries of the Pandits and other language teachers in the Secondary schools and colleges maintained by them. This amount will be met from the provision of Rs. 39,000 made in the Civil Budget Estimate for 1915-16 under 22-E. Education—Government Schools—General—Payments in support of Municipal and Local Boards schools—Opening new elementary schools, etc. The Accountant-General will be requested to disburse the subsidies to the local bodies concerned. The District Boards and Municipal Councils will submit to the Government in the Local and Municipal Department at an early date proposals for the revision of the scale of salaries of the Pandits and other language teachers on the lines indicated in paragraph 2 of the Director's letter Ref. on Cur. No. 2870, dated the 3rd July 1913, read in G.O. No. 1007, Educational, dated the 5th November 1913.

The maximum amount of grants sanctioned in G.O. No. 1168, Educational, dated the 12th October 1914, towards the cost of certain alterations to the building occupied by the Harris High School, Royapettah, Madras, will be raised from Rs. 3,715 to Rs. 4,250.

The Government sanction a grant of Rs. 500 towards M.R. Ry. A. V. Jagga Rao's Scholarship Fund. The Accountant-General will be authorized to receive the amount offered by the donor and to purchase with it and the grant now sanctioned such securities admissible under section 4 (3) of the Charitable Endowments Act, No. VI of 1890, as are likely to yield the best return. He should furnish the Director of Public Instruction with particulars of the securities purchased and the balance in cash, if any. The proposed scheme for the administration of the fund is approved. The Director will be requested to obtain and submit two formal applications under the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890—one for vesting the fund in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments, and the other for settling a scheme for the administration of the fund.

The Surgeon-General with the Government of Madras will be informed that the Government of India have awarded the State scholarship tenable in Europe by domiciled European or Anglo-Indian girls or women, to Miss Daisy Michael.

The Government has sanctioned the payment of a scholarship of Rs. 1 each to the 163 Moplah students of the third standard and Rs. 1-8-0 each to the 60 students of the fourth standard of the Moplah Schools in Ernad and Walluvanad Taluks.

In modification of paragraph 1 of G.O. No. 1356, Educational, dated the 2nd December 1914, the Government are pleased to award to M. H. Krishnaswami, T. S. Ramayya and K. Narayanaswami a scholarship each of the value of Rs. 30 per mensem to enable them to prosecute their studies in electrical engineering at the Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, for a period of four years.

Rajah's High School, Kollengode.—The prize-giving ceremony at the Rajah's High School, Kollengode, came off recently, His Highness the Gaekwar of Baroda presiding on the occasion. The School house and its precincts were tastefully decorated for the occasion with flags, bunting, &c.

A party of young girls with the Rajah's daughter, Kamalam, at their head sang a welcome song composed in honour of the occasion by Mr. M. Krishnamacharya, Headmaster, High School, Ottapalam.

The proceedings began with some excellent recitation by the boys after which the Headmaster, Mr. R. V. Ananthakrishna Aiyar, presented the Annual Report.

The results have on the whole been satisfactory. In 1915 one pupil scored cent. per cent. in English at the Public Examination. Out of 19 pupils presented for the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate Examination 9 were able to secure admission into the College Department. This number would have been greater, had it not been for the new system of moderation and the strict rules by the Syndicate of the Madras University.

Her Highness the Maharani Sahiba then graciously gave away the prizes at the close of which H. H. The Gaekwar made the following speech:—

Rajah Sahib, Headmaster, ladies and gentlemen: It has given me the greatest pleasure to be able to accept the Raja Sahib's kind invitation to preside at this prize-distribution to-day.

The Headmaster has said some extremely kind things about me. I wish I could feel they were deserved. Yet I may claim the possession of a deep and lasting interest in the cause of Indian Education, and may thus be sure that to hear of the good work which has been and which is being done in this High School gives me the sincerest pleasure. I congratulate you, Mr. Headmaster and your staff with you, on the excellent report you have been able to give of the school's progress.

May I say further with what pleasure I have made the acquaintance of your Rajah. It is a sign of happiest augury for our country to find one of her leading noblemen so deeply and personally interested in forwarding her moral and material interests.

I have congratulated the Headmaster on the steady progress shown by this report; I must further, most sincerely, congratulate the school and the people of

Kollengode, in the possession of a Rajah of such personal charm, whose marked gifts and attainments are devoted to the constant securing of their social and moral status.

On behalf of Her Highness I thank you very much for your kind reference to her. We are both delighted with what we have seen of Kollengode, her Rajah and her people.

We wish you all possible prosperity in future, and shall ever retain most pleasant memories of the kind reception given us to-day.

The Rajah of Kollengode then briefly tendered thanks to Their Highnesses for paying a visit to Kollengode. He said he would consider it a great event in life to have been given the opportunity of entertaining Their Highnesses as his illustrious guests. He also, thanked the various ladies and gentlemen present that evening for honouring his invitations.

Mr. M. Krishnamacharya, Headmaster, Ootacamund, proposed a vote of thanks in an eloquent speech.

Mr. Palladam Sanjeeva Rao entertained the audience on the flute.

The Rajah of Kollengode garlanded H. H. the Maharajah and the Gaekwarini and with the singing of the National Anthem, the ceremony closed.

New curriculum for Primary Education in Hyderabad.—Mr. N. G. Welinkar, the Chief Inspector, delivered three lectures in the Y. M. I. S. at which Dr. Latifi, the Director of Public Instruction, presided, in the course of which the lecturer explained the principles underlying the new curriculum of studies for the advancement of Primary Education.

The following salient features of the curriculum are noteworthy:—

(i) The introduction of the study of Urdu as a compulsory subject. (ii) The introduction of the study of Science styled as "Nature Study." (iii) The introduction of "Moral Instruction." (iv) The introduction of "Indian Music." (v) The safeguarding as far as possible the interests of other Indian Vernaculars and Classical Languages. (vi) An adequate provision for the study of English for those desirous of studying in High Schools.

CALCUTTA.

Lord Carmichael and the new Institute.—The adequate housing of the students in Calcutta has long been a question of which a solution has been sought both by the University authorities and by the Government. The University requires that students shall live either with their guardians or parents, in regular hostels or in authorised messes.

Ten years ago, when the University was constituted a teaching body, as apart from its previous existence as a mere examining body, the accom-

modation and arrangements were extremely inadequate. Since that time, however, a steady improvement has set in and a further great advance in this direction has been rendered possible by the gift of ten lakhs of rupees, announced by His Excellency the Viceroy on his recent visit to Calcutta. The terms of this gift have now been definitely arranged, and the Government of Bengal have added 3½ lakhs, out of the previous hostel grants, which had for some reason not been utilised. This gives 13½ lakhs for the purpose of providing fitting accommodation for the students, and as a result of the efforts of the Vice-Chancellor of the University, the proposals made have received the sanction of the Government of India.

It was felt in high circles that the question of hostel accommodation had been neglected in the past, and strenuous efforts are now being made to effect an improvement. One idea was to provide 20 per cent. of seats for Mahomedans in the Hindu hostels. This, however, was not viewed favourably in certain quarters and it has been decided to provide a central non-collegiate hostel for Mahomedans near College Square. The estimated cost of this work, in land and buildings, is about three lakhs of rupees.

The care of students during sickness is also receiving consideration. During the recent small pox epidemic, it was made obvious that the students affected did not receive sufficient attention in their hostels and messes. Although small pox cases could not be sent to the infirmary, it has now been definitely decided that there shall be an infirmary for students in the different hostels and messes to which they can go in cases of serious illness. The Belgachia hospital authorities have been good enough to offer to allow buildings in their compound, and buildings costing a lakh and twenty thousand rupees, are proposed to be erected.

The various colleges are each to have their own hostels shortly, each accommodating 200 students, except in the case of St. Xavier's, which will accommodate 60. The terms and conditions of this work have been arrived at as a result of a conference between the Vice-Chancellor of the University and the Government of Bengal, and now only await the sanction of the Government of India. The improvement which these hostels will effect in the college life of the students, may be easily imagined.

An adequate Institute has long been an urgent need of the University, and at length that need is to be filled. The present Institute has over 2,500 members and its accommodation is ridiculously inadequate. The Institute plays no small part in the inter-collegiate life of the students, a part even more important than is generally supposed. The new Institute which is to be situated to the north-east of College Square, and opposite the present buildings is to be a handsome structure. The land has already been acquired and cleared, and His Excellency Lord Carmichael is to lay the foundation stone next month. Both the Viceroy and the Governor have shown a keen interest in

the welfare of the students in Calcutta and it is satisfactory to learn that that interest has resulted in the provision of an Institute of which neither the University authorities nor the students need be ashamed—"The Statesman."

CALCUTTA.

Public School for Bengal.—The Government of Bengal has approved of the scheme of a residential school for the sons of gentlemen. On 2nd July next Government will open the school at Hastings House, Anjore, which has been given by the Government for the purpose. Hastings House will provide accommodation for 50 boarders. Mr. F. W. Papworth, B.A., London, has been engaged as an Assistant Master and he with the assistance of four Indian Assistant Masters will start the school which will be under the immediate supervision of the Director of Public Instruction with an Advisory Committee of Indian gentlemen. At present the number of boarders is restricted to 40. The school will essentially be a boarding school but to start with a few day scholars may be admitted. The fees for the boarders is fixed at Rs. 100 and for day Rs. 25 a month. The medium of instruction in all cases will be English but the study of vernacular and Oriental languages will form a compulsory part of the curriculum.

The work of the school has been arranged to suit not only those boys who will ultimately proceed to the British Universities, more especially to Oxford and Cambridge, but also boys who will complete their studies at one of the Indian Universities.

BOMBAY.

Death of a popular professor.—We regret to announce the sudden death of Professor H. M. Bhadkamkar, Professor of Sanskrit at the Wilson College, Bombay, on Wednesday the 26th May 1915. For about twenty-four years, he occupied the chair of Sanskrit in that College. He was an Honorary Fellow of the Bombay University. Professor Bhadkamkar had endeared himself to all his students by his kindness, simplicity and zeal and his loss will be mourned by all who ever came in contact with him. He was held in great esteem on account of his profound learning.

The Educational Review.

As surely as the night follows the day, as the neap tide follows the spring tide, so surely in the history of the Madras University Examinations has a lean year followed a series of fat years. The cause of this periodicity is not far to seek. Once every three or four years some new men are added to the Boards of Examiners and these new men are of different varieties. One perchance is fresh from an English school or University and knows nothing of educational work in India, its limitations and difficulties; another is perhaps an enthusiastic reformer, eager to modernize methods of instruction and is anxious to improve educational methods by setting questions startlingly novel; a third happens to be one who has been, with moist lips, hankering for a share in the loot that is called examiner's fees; but one and all bring down the average of passes ridiculously low. The teachers adjust their work to the altered circumstances and the average painfully and slowly mounts up in the succeeding year or two when a new cyclone blows and down goes the average to a ridiculous level. This shows that the University authorities are not alive to a sense of their responsibility. The Madras University is, like other existing Indian Universities, a mere examining University; and if an examining University cannot examine properly, we cannot see what it is fit for. We have already pointed that when there are bad results, the cause is not a general stiffening of the whole body of examiners but of the idiosyncrasies of two or three new additions to the Examining Boards. It is believed that the Intermediate Examination is conducted by a Special Board of three men for

each subject. Now if these Special Boards sent up such absurdly low number of passes, why did not the General Boards raise the marks to the usual? The marks as passed by the General Boards then go up to the Board of Moderators; but as the moderators are all but Chairmen of Examining Boards, they cannot stultify themselves by tampering with marks already approved by them. The marks then go up to the Syndicate. But latterly the Syndicate has developed a strange sense of humility; witness its public confession of inability to punish the few Principals that were lax in admitting pupils and its appeal to the Senate to come to its help. The Syndicate ought not to have passed the Intermediate results as sent up by the Board of Moderators but have insisted on a proper moderation. Why was this not done? The only possible answer is that the Syndicate and the Examining Boards thought that colleges have all deteriorated so much during the year that, say in the case of English, the efficiency decreased by two-third and so on. We deny that colleges have deteriorated. On the contrary, they have all increased in efficiency chiefly on account of the pressure brought to bear by the Syndicate itself and the steady demand to improve the equipment and the staff of colleges, notwithstanding the heart-rending results, we believe, and our belief is based on first-hand knowledge, that the average student at any one of our colleges is as good as in any previous year. It behoves the University to appoint a commission to inquire into the real causes that have led to the disastrous results that have startled the public. As the lay public have taken the question in hand and are not likely to rest till an enquiry is set on foot, we would like to suggest that the enquiry should be

thorough-going; most things connected with examinations are shrouded in mystery; as no one knows who is responsible for what papers and what results, there is no chance of the fear of God fluttering the hearts of examiners. The instructions given by examiners to their assistants, if published, will firstly serve as a guide to teachers in their work and secondly rouse in examiners a sense of their responsibility. The methods of marking, the arrangements made for securing uniformity among assistant examiners, the unwritten traditions handed down from one generation of examiners to another, the light of day ought to be let into all these nooks and corners and then the real causes of these remarkable ups and downs of examination results can be hunted to death.

That the results of the public examination for the award of Secondary School Leaving Certificates should show evidence of greater see-saw year by year than even the University Examination results is not surprising. In the case of the University Examination there is some moderation of marks, though the moderation exercised is of an insufficient degree. There is besides in the case of the University a kind of examiners' tradition handed down from year to year. And yet the Intermediate results this year have proved so unsatisfactory. In the case of the S.S.L.C. public examination none of these redeeming features exist. The examiners vary from year to year. Each individual examiner is his own master. There are no fellow examiners to knock off his angularities. He has no fear that his questions will be subjected to the scathing criticism of fellow examiners. He

can give as little marks as he pleases and there is no fear that he will be taken to task for undue severity. The effect of this sweet irresponsibility is seen in this year's results. The Presidency average in English has fallen from 43 to 31. This is a clear case of examiners' vagaries. No one can pretend that the students of High Schools had suddenly turned dunces or that teachers have suddenly become slackers. Every one who is in touch with High Schools knows that now-a-days very much more attention is being paid to English Composition than in the Old Matriculation days and our High School pupils write very much better English than those of, say, ten years ago. Yet our examiners will not give credit to this. Nay, we frequently find, that a pupil gets, say, 40 per cent. marks in English in one year, goes to school again for improving his proficiency in that subject, works steadily for a year, his steadiness being evidenced by his improved schoolmarks and gets in the public examination 30 per cent. marks. It is such things that have shaken public confidence in the examiners, struck teachers with despair and will in a few years lead to a thorough disorganization of all educational work. And yet the Syndicate regards the Presidency average at the public examination as an irreproachable touchstone. The futility of examining many thousands of candidates, the efficiency of examiners being a variable quantity, was the reason why the S.S.L.C. scheme was evolved and its primary aim was to reduce the importance of the public examination in the assessment of school work. But the sap has been crushed out of the scheme both by the Board that conducts the affairs of the S.S.L.C. and the way the Senate and the Syndicate have treated the certificates themselves. Opposition more or less veiled

has been steadily shown to working the scheme in accordance with the spirit in which it was conceived and promulgated and hence the inextricable confusion into which educational affairs have fallen. We appeal to H. E. the Governor who is in charge of the Education portfolio to investigate this question for himself and issue orders whereby education can be fostered and not choked as it is now.

We used to think that moderation meant the tuning down of severity; but the Syndicate has taught us a new meaning of the word. The Syndicate's rules for moderation have for their aim the bringing of school-marks of a pupil into line with examination marks, the net result being an increase and a decrease of severity in the marking. The funniest example of this came to our notice in the case of a pupil who scored 70 per cent. of marks in a certain subject. Now a student who scores 70 per cent. in a subject will be judged by all people to be very good in it. It so happened that the school-mark in that subject for last year was zero. The moderator multiplied zero by the school average and divided it by the average mark at school and got zero as the result. This zero was generally added to seventy and divided by two and the moderated mark of the pupil became thirty-five, being several marks below the average. So the pupil became unfit for admission into a college according to the rules of the Syndicate. Another student appeared for the examination in a previous year and got 45 per cent. in the public examination in one subject. Being satisfied with this good mark, he joined school again to improve himself in other subjects in which he was weak. The moderator this year not content with moder-

ating the marks of this year moderated the marks of previous years also; as a result this pupil's good mark of 45 per cent. has been moderated into something below the average mark. We do not see the object of moderating past marks. However objectionable the method of moderation may be, teachers can put up with it if ample notice be given; in future the evils of moderation may be minimized, nay may be utilized in favour of pupils by over-marking the better boys, by under-marking the worse ones and by using every possible expedient for keeping down the average mark at school to a level lower than the lowest possible examination average. But this year the first year University classes are thin, and the High school classes over populated, the damning in the second year class and in the VI Form having recoiled on all the lower classes of schools.

Very few of our readers are aware of the existence of a Central Committee of Working-man's Institutions with headquarters at 80/3, Harrison Road, Calcutta. The object of the Committee is to educate the masses of the country and to elevate their physical, intellectual and moral condition by starting schools or helping them in their work, by devising schemes of studies, by organizing lantern lectures, starting libraries; the Committee also aims at providing work for the employed, establishing savings banks for workmen, stirring the conscience of the higher classes and stimulating their interest in the lower classes, administering medical relief to the poor and spreading sanitary knowledge, opening training classes for workers, etc. After this brief statement of aims one is not surprised to read in the Second

Annual Report of the Committee that "the net result has not been quite up to our expectations." Yet we find some work has been done under almost every one of the heads of service into which the operation of the Committee have been divided. Its members are apparently endowed with an unlimited fund of courage and enthusiasm and mean to push on notwithstanding the insuperable difficulties. Propaganda work has been done energetic-

ally, as is necessary in the infant stages of any work; the names of Professor Radhakamal Mukherjee and Srijut Nogendranath Ghose being prominent among those responsible for this side of the Committee's work. Medical relief afforded has been meagre, as is natural when work is heavy and workers few. We heartily commend this work to public notice.

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LITERATURE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

THE function of Literature as an integral part of a liberal education had been recognised ever since the dawn of civilisation. The study of Letters occupied the most prominent, in many cases the only worthy, part in the educational history of all civilised nations, ancient or modern. This exclusive devotion to the Muses is not surprising, if we remember that Mathematics, History, Science and other subjects were of later birth and growth. This hoary tradition and practice of ages received a rude shock when, in the last quarter of the 19th century, owing to the wonderful progress and undreamt-of revelations of Physical Science, its advocates in Europe and America

claimed for their infant prodigy an equal, if not a greater, share in the education of youth. The struggle was a long and arduous one. But, in these days no one would dare to deny the value and importance of a due combination of literary and scientific education. On the other hand the cry, to some extent in England, and to a still greater extent in our country, is that science even now occupies quite a subordinate place in secondary schools, which is inconsistent with its acknowledged educational and practical importance. So there is no danger of literature being relegated to the background, especially so in India, where the education might be said to be almost purely literary. But though the last three decades and more have witnessed radical changes in the ideals, and considerable improvements in the methods, of teaching literature in western countries, it is very doubtful whether in India this subject has been to any large degree affected by those modern changes. In our country, far more than in any other, educational ideals and methods have been blindly adapted, and sometimes ruthlessly sacrificed, to meet the paralyzing test of examinations or the vagaries of individual examiners. Lack of consistency and progressive development in teaching English have been our greatest drawback. But signs are not wanting to

show that during the last ten years new light has been slowly peeping even into the dark regions of our secondary schools in teaching English literature.

AIMS OF LITERARY STUDY.

The study of Literature, in the words of Lowell, admits us to "the whole world of thought and fancy and imagination, to the company of saint and sage, of the wisest and wittiest at their wisest and wittiest moments," or as Ruskin says, to the society of the noble and the wise who will "talk to us in the best words they can choose, and of the things nearest their hearts." Literature introduces us to the mighty geniuses and master minds of the past of all ages,—men who are ever willing and ready to instruct and advise us, ever lavish in their constant gifts of pleasure, sympathy, solace and inspiration. This Elysian kingdom has its doors wide open to anyone who would take the trouble to knock and apply for enlightenment. The free access to this world of Letters, "those regions peopled with the spiritual offspring of great geniuses," is one of the choicest blessings we enjoy in this civilised age. Again, literature is "the representation and interpretation of life in its more permanent and universal aspects." Though often ideal in its method of treatment, it enshrines in beautiful forms the wide knowledge, deep insight, and right feeling of the noblest souls of all countries regarding the eternal problems of life and death. Our ideas about life, largely coloured by the nature of our environments and experiences, are likely to be one-sided, distorted or gloomy. The study of literature offers the only healthy corrective to this narrow conservatism and prejudice. The mere contact with such superhuman, almost divine, souls like Shakespeare, Milton or

Goethe, has an ennobling influence. Above all else, the attainment of culture is the supreme function of great literature. A broad outlook upon life and its problems, a wide sympathy and enlightened tastes, a catholicity of spirit and breadth of view, an æsthetic insight and the mental "sweetness and light," are the virtues acquired only by a discriminating and devoted study of Letters.

WIDENING THE IMAGINATION.

One of the outstanding characteristics of the adolescent period is the activity and fervour of the imagination; and the teaching of literature should aim at the proper development of this faculty. Great literature, especially poetry, presents ample materials for effecting this purpose. Stories which narrate the heroic achievements of great men and women, whether real or fictitious, captivate the imagination of youth. Through literature we "walk the streets of Babylon and Athens, Rome and Alexandria." Historical scenes and incidents, which have decided the destinies of nations at momentous epochs, stimulate the imagination and impress themselves on the mind with never-fading vividness. To store up in the memory such mental pictures or images, which are rich in their power of imaginative appeal, should be one of the governing principles of teaching literature. Such fragments of the drama of human life, as are illustrated in the noble lives and deeds of Ulysses and Orpheus, Alexander and Cæsar, Dante and Beatrice, Cromwell and Napoleon, Shakespeare and Goethe, are not only a source of infinite delight and instruction when young, but gather new force and significance with the growing mind and experience. In short, these stimulating images leave their lasting impress on the widening imagination,

AS A MORAL TRAINING.

The period of youth not only exhibits a widening of the intellectual horizon by the acquisition of new ideas and interests of life but also an expansion of the inner life of the soul. We witness the birth of a new moral sense or the consciousness of a high sense of conduct. It is a period of mental and moral struggle. There is the conflict of passion against reason, of the base feelings against the noble emotions, of "crime against the divine order of the world." And it is the function of good literature, by the portrayal of these collisions in appropriate situations, by making the good attractive and the base repulsive, and by supplying good ideals of conduct and heroism, to assist the young mind in the evolution of a high moral sense as a result of these mental and spiritual conflicts. "We create life through ideals," says Pestalozzi. Happy the youth to whose moral training the materials are supplied by great poets and prose writers who are "the unacknowledged legislators of mankind." The youth imitates what he admires, and this imitation spurs him on to noble deeds. The imitation of the actions of favourite heroes by the young is well-known. Again, high ideals are inconsistent with ignoble thoughts or actions.

A mind saturated with beautiful and sublime ideals of literature is less liable to be swayed by sordid love of gain, petty desires and motives or the temptations of sensuality. Such a mind instinctively shows a respect for the rights of others and a susceptibility not to wound their feelings. The study of inspiring biographies is of inestimable value in the building of character. They specially appeal to the robust optimism of youth, strengthen the manly elements of his nature

and prompt him to generous and noble action. The sentiments and emotions should also be purified and refined by the study of true poetry. The clenched hand, frenzied eye and indignant face, or the sigh and the tear, often unconsciously displayed by a young man deeply absorbed in reading a romantic novel or a pathetic poem are not mere passing moods of little value but signs of emotions welling from the heart which leave a substratum of their influence affecting the character in imperceptible degrees and ways. The purging effect of high tragedy, rousing our feelings of pity and moral indignation, is recognised as a healthy element in chastening our emotions. The study of flowers and birds in poetry enhances, in addition to appealing to our innate sense of beauty, our respect for the lives of insentient objects. It is by these minute and subtle influences that literature contributes largely to the moulding of the character of youth.

ITS ÆSTHETIC VALUE.

Again, literature is pre-eminently valuable for its share in æsthetic development. The youthful mind has a natural instinct for beauty and a hankering after ideal objects to satisfy this healthy craving. Poetry of Nature as well as of Man contributes to this sense of pure and disinterested enjoyment. But poems of a gloomy cast or describing the seamy side of life should be excluded. Youth, with its zest for life and love of buoyant activity, refuses to be chained by the austerities of an ascetic life. Therefore poems or stories descriptive of active life, which are a source of pure delight to the young, which exhibit the charm of beauty of the old world, and which appeal to the sense of beauty and foster the artistic taste; should be largely taught in our high schools. From Shakespeare,

Wordsworth, Shelley, Tennyson and Longfellow, numerous poems could be selected which appeal to this laudable instinct of youth. *Æsthetic* development is essential not only for its own sake but as affording "new approaches to the true and the good by the avenue of the beautiful."

DEVELOPMENT OF LITERARY TASTE.

In addition to its appeal to the imagination and the moral and *æsthetic* senses, the teaching of literature should endeavour to generate and develop the literary taste of the student. Taste is, by its very nature, quite subtle in essence; and the principles of its origin and growth are impalpable to the unobservant mind. The student should be made not only to understand literature but to appreciate it. To create in the student a pronounced interest in good poetry and prose, to make him feel deeply its emotional appeal, and to enable him to perceive and to judge the beauty of idea and form, the fitness of phrase and the music of language, should be the crowning effort in English teaching. In this, more than in any other school subject, the atmosphere of the school and the *personale* of the teacher count for a great deal. The classrooms, decorated with a few masterpieces of great painters and the portraits of great masters of literature, and the pictures illustrative of famous scenes in literature, are sure to awake in them a responsiveness to beauty and to act as a stimulus to lofty and noble types of life. Above all, the teacher should embody in himself high ideals of literary taste and culture. The teacher who loves, and feels a delight in, good literature can alone impart to his students the power to appreciate the true and the beautiful in literature and strike a sympathetic chord in their hearts when treating about sentimental

or romantic themes. This taste, contracted in the days of youth, would establish in them a life-long interest and pleasure in literary excellence and a profound delight in dedicating their days and nights to the communion with the master spirits of the past.

ENGLISH TEXTS IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS.

One great difficulty ordinarily met with in the teaching of literature is the lack of proper text-books in Indian High schools. No Reader, however good or suitable in certain respects, fulfils our necessary conditions. And the tyranny of the use of one text-book still survives so powerfully that our students and their parents grumble when they are asked to purchase more books. I believe that half a dozen books containing good selections from standard authors in poetry and prose can alone supply us with the short masterpieces which, by a judicious selection, can be made to appeal to the varied mental faculties of youth. In this respect our University, the custodian of our learning, might be expected to set the example. But, with all due deference to the gentlemen concerned, we are forced to state that a perusal of the Matriculation texts for the current year is woefully disappointing. The poems selected are poor both in quality and quantity. By what principles of taste or judgment the text-book board was guided in its choice passes our comprehension. What is intended to be taught in one year can be finished, though we make an elaborate and detailed study of the poems, in a couple of months. Then out of five poems only one, or probably two, are of any high literary merit or emotional appeal. It comes to us as a strange revelation of the poverty of English poetry that of all the great English poets Addison the essayist and a third or fourth rate poet like Mrs. Hemans

should have been laid under contribution to furnish our students with poems. Again, of the five prose books not one, except perhaps *Tom Brown's School Days*, is the product of a recognised-standard prose writer. It is a pity that utilitarian considerations, instead of pure intrinsic literary merit, or partly the patronage of some publishing firms, should have so unhappily influenced the selection of text-books in literature also. For who knows not that *The Health Primer* and *The Citizens of the Empire* are merely short treatises on popular hygiene and civics? Or again, after the selection of passages from Lamb, Carlyle, Newman and Ruskin last year to descend to Thomas Hughes is verily a fall from the sublime to the ridiculous!

SELECTION OF PIECES.

The measure of success attained in teaching literature very largely depends as much upon the proper selection of poems and prose pieces as upon the methods of treatment. They should represent the leading types of literary art appealing to the various faculties of the mind such as imagination, reason, observation, persuasion and judgment. The studies should follow the maturing visions, enthusiasms and emotions of youth, so as to form and develop the healthy tastes and sympathies of the student. If the pieces chosen are interesting in subject and of such high excellence as to promote pure literary insight and delight in the students, our principles of choice cannot be defective or wrong. But whatever is gloomy, or deals with "the solemn mysteries of life," or has a consciously didactic purpose, should be invariably avoided. Further, there must be great variety in the matter to be taught, our range being wide enough to include both the romantic and the classic modes of treatment

from the "masters of imagination and inspired spontaneity to masters of a more deliberative and calculating temper." We should find room not only for a Shakespeare, Wordsworth, and Shelley but a Pope, Addison and Goldsmith. The ballad and the epic, which specially appeal to the romantic ardour and sensitiveness of youth, the tragic and comic scenes which preserve a due balance between the conflicting elements in human life, the short story and the novel delineating real or ideal pictures of contemporary or past life, the essay and the biography contributing to the mental equipment and inspiration of youth,—all these different forms should receive equal and liberal treatment at our hands.

IMPORTANCE OF READING.

Reading should form an important part of the English lesson. The importance of good reading cannot be overestimated. "As the ear is the pathway to the heart," good and expressive reading not only makes the meaning easier to be understood but enhances the pleasure derived from literary excellence by "making the sound an echo of the sense." Further, effective oral rendering is absolutely necessary to attune the ear to the varied rhythm of verse and prose, to illustrate changes in accent and tone, to reveal subtle beauties in sound and sense, and to bring into relief the mood or emotional charm that dominates each piece. Therefore, ten minutes devoted purely to reading in each English lesson would result in producing untold benefits in the training of the voice and the ear. If the teacher's reading, which should set the model, is "radiant with the spiritual glow of enthusiasm," the contagion is sure to affect the imitative and sensitive minds of the students. Similarly, the learning and me-

morising of beautiful lines or passages from the great masters saturates the mind with noble ideas and sentiments, enlarges the vocabulary, cultivates his sense of rhythm and melody of language, and furnishes a storehouse of memories valuable for their beauty and wisdom, which prove to be a source of infinite joy and new meaning in later life.

METHOD OF TREATMENT.

We hope that the old methods, which used to maul and mangle the poem or to perform "a laborious surgery" upon the prose passage, so as to destroy the life and soul of a masterpiece, are dead or dying. Our aim in teaching should be not an exhaustive treatment of the whole piece but one of appropriate emphasis. New words are to be studied in their sound and application, shades of meaning being noted, and in some interesting cases their associations and origins being explained. English language, being highly allusive and metaphorical, allusions to scenes and personages from literature or history and figures of speech are very common. In these cases explanation is necessary not only to make them understand the passages but to appreciate the beauty and appropriateness of the association or comparison, care being taken not to overdo the interpretation. Next, attention should be drawn to the study of structure, to show that every type of literary form has an organic structure made up of scene, incident, character, motive, etc. This should be followed by an analysis of the whole piece whose aim should be to bring out the main ideas and literary beauties, so as to make them enjoy the story and experience the ruling emotion. The analytical work leads naturally to a critical study of a simple kind. The teacher's ultimate object should be to foster this critical attitude by explain-

ing certain accepted canons and principles of criticism, and applying them to the pieces being studied in the class, thus testing and developing their standard of judgment. In a word, the dominating principle ought to be to make the student understand, feel and imbibe the spirit, the fundamental idea and the significance of the piece as a whole. Such a study would engender in the student a love of great masterpieces and an eager desire to continue to read and appreciate good books in later life.

NEED FOR A GOOD LIBRARY.

Another indispensable adjunct, in these days of marvellously cheap books, to the satisfactory teaching of literature is the existence of a decent library in every High School. The library should act as a focus, as a radiating centre, where the intellectual life of the school unfolds itself and expands by contact with the master-minds of the past and of all countries. It directly fosters the reading habit of the ardent young minds thirsting for knowledge, and indirectly contributes to the development of their literary tastes and aptitudes. The works of all the illustrious roll of English poets from Chaucer to Swinburne, volumes of *belles lettres* of recognised merit, famous books of travel and adventure, inspiring biographies, the great essayists from Addison to Stevenson, and above all the distinguished gallery of novelists from Richardson to Meredith,—all these intellectual treasures should find an honoured place in every school library. The literature actually taught in the class can, during the limited time allotted to English, naturally form only a kind of introduction to the world of books that ought to be familiar to every young student. The work done in class should be largely supplemented by home-

reading under the sympathetic guidance of the teacher, each class being recommended to read certain specified books of a wholesome kind in the several departments of literature.

POETRY.

As poetry, more than any other species of literature, reveals the soul of a people and manifests the characteristic elements in the genius and culture of a nation, it should occupy a very prominent place in our syllabus. Poetry of Nature and of Man, poetry that specially stimulates the imagination and the feelings, poetry that purifies sentiment and elevates the soul, as represented and embodied in the ballad, the lyric, the epic and the reflective types, should engage our serious attention. The ballad, in virtue of its rapid movement and action, its simplicity of structure, ease and flow of rhythm and its popular legendary themes, is specially attractive to the energetic and active period of youth. Some of the poems published in the Lyrical Ballads of Wordsworth and Coleridge such as *Lucy Gray*, *Lucy*, and *The Ancient Mariner*, or the Romantic lays of Scott such as *Lochinvar*, or the ballad of *The Chevy Chase*, breathing the freshness of the Scottish mountain air, or the pathetic and humorous ballads like Goldsmith's *Edwin and Angelina*, *Lord Ullin's Daughter* and *John Gilpin*, or that exquisite lyric gem *La Belle Dame Sans Merci* of Keats should be largely studied. Similarly the development of æsthetic taste, the passion for beauty, the sense for rhythm and harmony demand the appreciative study of the choicest lyrics of the masters of "strains of unearthly romance." Ranging from the "wild wood-notes" of the songs scattered in Shakespeare's dramas and the pretty lyrics in Ben Jonson's plays, the manly grace of Dryden's *Alexander's Feast*, from the pathetic welling of the

heart seen in Hood's *Bridge of Sighs* and *Song of the Shirt*, to the sensuous imagery of Moore's *Paradise and the Peri* and Love's *Young Dream*, the lyrical element that forms the warp and the woof of many of the short poems and songs of Browning, Landor, Keats and Tennyson, the spiritual and mystical hankering after ideal beauty revealed in Donne's *The Bait*, Rossetti's *The White Ship* and Blake's *The Lamb* and *Songs of Innocence*, to the ecstatic rapture of Shelley's *Skylark* and the song: *Life of Life! thy lips enkindle*, etc., there is an infinite variety of lyrical beauty and charm, from whose eternal fountains the young student should be enabled to drink deep. At the same time, short epics or narratives of an epic character, which satisfy the youth's natural leaning to hero-worship and his ardent devotion to grand ideals of the heroic in history or legend, should supplement the ballad and lyrical poetry.

An acquaintance with a few of such pieces as Scott's vivacious *Lay of the Last Minstrel* or *Marmion* or select passages from them, Morris' *Jason* or *Atlanta's Race*, the majestic *Sohrab and Rustum* or *Tristram and Iseult*, *Enoch Arden* or one of the Idylls of the King, *Miles Standish* or *Evangeline*, would surely contribute to the mental and moral enlargement of our students. Lastly, I believe that the Indian student, with his naturally sedate frame of mind evinces a pronounced appreciation for serious poems of a reflective temper. A study of such immortal poems, exhibiting varied poetic qualities and moods, as Spenser's stanzas on the *Redcross Knight* and *The Seasons*, Milton's majestic sonnets on *Cromwell* and *His Blindness*, Pope's poem on *Solitude*, Collins' imaginative *Ode to Evening*, Gray's profoundly reflective *Elegy* and *Eton Ode*, *The Deserted Village*, Cowper's tenderly

pathetic lines *On My Mother's Picture*, Wordsworth's gravely contemplative *A Poet's Epitaph* and sonnets on *Westminster Bridge* and *Calais Beach*, Southey's *Battle of Blenheim*, Byron's superb stanzas on *The Eve of Waterloo* and *Ocean*, Shelley's beautifully delicate *Cloud* and the *West Wind*, Keats' enchanting lines on *Chapman's Homer* and *The Nightingale*, Campbell's war-pieces *Hohenlinden* and *The Soldier's Dream*, Tennyson's polished and vigorous *Sir Galahad* and *Ulysses*, Browning's energetic *Incident of the French Camp* and *How they brought*, etc., Elizabeth Barrett's sadly touching *Cry of Children*, Arnold's highly subjective *The Forsaken Merman*, Longfellow's earnestly thoughtful *Psalm of Life* and *Snowbound*, Lowell's democratic lines on *Freedom* and *The Fatherland*, and Whittier's *Barbara Fritchie*, would act as a powerful leaven in purifying and elevating the heart of youth.

PROSE.

Prose literature, with its pronounced appeal to the intellect, reason and will, is as indispensable as poetry with its appeal to imagination and passion. The short story and the novel, the essay and biography should be given an important place. It is a pity that the short-story, one of the most popular and prolific forms of modern literature, which is accorded a very high place in English and American schools, should be practically neglected in our country. Owing to its narrative and plot interest and its sketches of character within a very short compass, its usefulness and educational value cannot be exaggerated. Short stories like those contained in Hawthorne's *Twice-told Tales*, Irving's *Tales of a Traveller*, Poe's *Tales of Mystery and Imagination*, or those of Stevenson, Conan Doyle, Kipling and Quiller-Couch, should

be largely introduced into our schools. The short-story leads the way to the study of the novel. The limited time at our disposal may forbid the study of the long original novels; but now some of the immortal novels, specially abridged and rewritten to suit the requirements and capacities of young students, are available in the Children's Classics Series and A. L. Bright Story Readers. No student should leave the portals of the High school without becoming thoroughly familiar with at least half a dozen of such famous works as Kingsley's *Heroes* and *Hereward the Wake*, Scott's *Talisman* and *Quentin Durward*, Yonge's *Little Duke* and *The Lances of Lynwood*, Dickens' *Cricket on the Hearth*, *Christmas Carol* and *Story of Little Nell*, or Lytton's *Last Days of Pompeii* or the ever popular and interesting *Gulliver's Travels*, *Robinson Crusoe* and *Don Quixote*. In teaching these novels our aim should be to bring out the several stages in the development of the plot leading to the climax, the value and purpose of the episodes, the analysis of the character of the hero, heroine and others, the best descriptions of scenes, persons in their outward presentment and character, and any notable qualities in the style of the work. Next in importance is the Essay, which has a distinctive value of its own. In addition to furnishing the student with good models for their composition work, the essay supplies them with correct ideas and opinions of great minds on a variety of subjects. Some carefully selected essays from Addison and Steele, Johnson and Goldsmith, Leigh Hunt and De Quincey, Macaulay and Lamb, Carlyle and Stevenson would afford a healthy corrective to the youth's wrong notions and illusions of life, if not also to sharpen his sense of humour. Lastly, the

function of biography, as a fountain of inspiration, as a stimulus to fuller and nobler ideals of life, as a solace in moments of doubt and despair, and as a useful guide in the practical concerns of everyday life, is too well-known. A study of the lives, trials, ideals and greatness of such heroes and heroines of the world as Cæsar and Charlemagne, Drake and Raleigh, Napoleon and Nelson, Milton and Johnson, Scott and Goethe, Joan of Arc and Nightingale, would imprint on the impressionable minds many invaluable lessons of courage and uprightness of conduct in the presence of temptation or danger, and infuse a noble sense of devotion to duty and a high regard for honor and virtue.

THE DRAMA.

No scheme of English work in the High school would be complete without a contact with Shakespeare and his all-comprehending genius. The drama is a representation of human life in its light as well as serious aspects. As it exhibits what men, often the play-thing of circumstances, do under the stress of temptation, passion or struggle, it affords unique opportunities for the young student to acquire profound and sound views about the graver problems of life, and instructs him how to play his own part in the drama of life just unfolding before him. The influence of the plays of Shakespeare on the heart is deep though subtle. Instead of the original plays, which are too long and difficult for the High school, I think that the new Children's Shakespeare of Macmillan & Co. satisfies many of our requirements by presenting to us some select scenes from the plays, while furnishing at the same time readings from Lamb to give a connected account and impression of the whole story. One or two of such dramas as *Merchant of Venice*, *As You*

Like It or *Midsummer Night's Dream* and *Julius Cæsar* or *King Lear*, would give a finishing touch to the whole education. The play should be read clearly, with pleasant tone and enunciation, with proper feeling, sincerity and "artistic conscience." That should be followed by a study of the plot in its totality with the parts in due perspective, the analysis of the important characters and the revealing of its essentially dramatic beauties and poetic power, while not ignoring the dominant ethical problems of the play. As a foil to this species of poetic drama, a few scenes from the plays of Goldsmith and Sheridan would be highly valuable as introducing them to the lighter vein of prose comedies of the later age.

LITERARY HISTORY.

Whether literary history might be introduced in the High school is a debatable question. I admit that the formal teaching of the history of literature or even the historical development of literature is quite out of place; but it is my firm conviction that a glimpse of the main currents in the stream of literature, "a sense of historic succession" might be gradually developed in their minds. Our literary history might include the personal or biographic interest, and the time and place interest. The study of a poem, novel or essay might be advantageously followed, or sometimes preceded, by a very brief sketch of the life and character of the author in so far as it is reflected in, or has affected, the work in question. A few anecdotes, illustrating the peculiar or characteristic qualities of the author or revealing his personality, would enliven the students and enhance the interest of the piece. Again, literature is the "unconscious mirror" of the life and spirit of the age; and the study of a masterpiece should,

whenever necessary and possible, be accompanied by a consideration of the condition and influences of the environment on the author, as well as the characteristic qualities of the literature of the time, as exhibited in that work. For example, the study of a play of Shakespeare might be made the centre which illuminates the greatness of the Elizabethan age. The beauty and wisdom of the ancient world revealed to their gaze by the Renaissance, the spirit of bold enquiry and independence of thought quickened in them by the Reformation, the sense of national awakening and patriotism arising from the consciousness of the invincible might of England on the wide seas in that age of travel, voyages and adventure. A few sonnets of Milton or some "verse paragraphs" from *Paradise Lost* clearly show the fervent religious spirit and the sense of epic grandeur brought into being by the Puritan movement. Or again, a few essays of Addison and Steele or some stanzas from Dryden's or Pope's satires or didactic poems might be made to illustrate the essentially prosaic character of the age with its intensely social ambitions, its clubs and coffee-houses, drawing-rooms, street scenes and theatres. Poetry had shifted from the heart to the intellect and was "fluttering over the flower-beds of literature." Lastly, the poems of Wordsworth, Byron and Shelley manifest the mighty transformations that were effected over men's views and ideals of life by the Revolutionary movement in France. "A sympathy with mankind as a whole, and especially with the poor, a love of the country and an admiration for the beauties of nature, and a hatred of social injustice and tyranny"—are all expressed in the 19th century literature. The love of beauty and the romantic past inspired the works of Keats,

Scott and Rossetti. The poems of Browning, Tennyson and Swinburne show a great reverence for their art by regarding poetry as a holy thing, and demanding from the poet a high habit of thought and feeling, a heart absolutely pure, and a soul "in harmony with all right and beautiful things." These characteristic qualities of the four epochs of English literature can be brought home to them by a study of some representative works of each period.

CONCLUSION.

The High school should not be regarded as a self-contained, self-sufficient or separate unit, but more properly as the stepping-stone, the training or preparation ground, which fits the students to enter upon a University career. If they should feel quite at home in the new sphere, and confident to grapple successfully with the study of Shakespeare, Milton, Addison, Scott, George Elliot and others in the College, it is quite essential for them to be somewhat familiar with those masters in the High school. De Quincey classifies Literature into Literature of Knowledge and Literature of Power. There are other school subjects designed primarily to impart knowledge. It should be the humanising prerogative of literature to communicate this "Power." Such literature, as fosters their intellectual loves and pleasures, their literary tastes and aptitudes, and moulds their moral ideals and aspirations by creating in them a reverent admiration and love for heroic deeds and noble types of manhood and womanhood, should have a dominating and central place in our High schools.

P. K. ANANTNARAYAN IYER.

THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY IN THE PAST THIRTY YEARS.

THIS paper traces facts which have been occurring in the thirty years from 1885 and inquires how far the Madras University has followed a policy of continuity and foresight in its deliberations. Not the ideal functions of a University but the incidents that appeal to ordinary experience are taken up.

GENERAL AND SPECIAL KNOWLEDGE.

Prior to 1885, candidates for the B.A. Degree had to learn the optional subjects—Mathematics, Physical Science (more of Physics and less of Chemistry called Advanced Physics or more of Chemistry and less of Physics called Advanced Chemistry) and Philosophy including Logic, Morals and General Philosophy with special portions. They had to study in common English, English History with a special portion, Mental Science in general and outlines of recent British Philosophy. The First-in-Arts Course (now the Intermediate) had correspondingly no optional subjects but a general course in History (Ancient), Logic, Mathematics and Physiology. The Matriculation had similarly Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, History (British and Indian), General Geography. All the Arts examinations enforced an Indian language as the second and optional, while English was the first and compulsory.

After 1885, Biology, History and Political Economy were added to the number of optional subjects of the B.A. course; the general knowledge of Mental Science and British History was dropped and Advanced Syllabuses were framed in the optional branches. After the Universities Act was passed, greater was the specialisation therein for the B.A., and it was carried on to the

Intermediate; Mathematics and Science, History and Logic, Natural Science, were the optional subjects. When the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate of the Government was accepted by the University as equivalent to the Matriculation six years back, choice of special subjects was still further allowed, so that the Matriculation, Intermediate and B.A. courses are arranged on the same system. Second Indian languages formed a separate group for the B.A. and it is possible for Intermediate and School-Final candidates to go on without any knowledge of Indian languages over and above what is required for Sanskrit translation in the former or for Vernacular composition and translation in the latter.

The B.A. course was sub-divided into the Pass and Honours courses. The latter corresponds to the M.A. of the days preceding the Universities Act. A candidate was allowed to appear for the M.A. after private study; but three years' course is to be undergone by an Honours student at College. The specialisation is therefore more advanced in the Honours than in the Pass course.

ITS FORESIGHT AND CONTINUITY.

(a) *Trifurcation and bifurcation.*—When the University Regulations were revised before 1885, it was thought that superficial knowledge in a number of subjects for the B.A. Degree did not satisfy and that a fuller acquaintance with the optional subjects as ordinarily used or "Science divisions" as used by the University, was necessary. For this purpose, trifurcation was first made. The subjects were divided into English, Second Language, Science division. A candidate was allowed to pass in any one of them in any order it pleased him. So he attended more to the one or the other. The optional subject was not

specially cared for, as also the Second Language. The object of the framers was defeated. They then saw that improvement in English should form the ground work and, indifference to an Indian language receive no encouragement. So, passing in English and the Second Language taken together was made preliminary to appearing at the optional subject. Thus, when the student had no more the anxiety of passing in languages, his mind could be more largely concentrated on the other group. The change was made within a short time.

(b) *Relation to the Law College.*—A candidate who had not completed the Degree and not passed in the Second Language alone under the trifurcation was admitted into the Law College; but, he was not at all taken into it under the bifurcation, unless he took the Degree. An ordinary man of the world does not expect ideal far-sightedness. But, the University is expected to bestow sufficient thought to understand what will take place in the near future as the result of fresh changes. It is pitiable that they had to make the above alterations in no long period, and yet that the University is expected to be the training ground for future statesmen and administrators.

(c) *Transitory Regulations.*—When the old trifurcation and bifurcation were made from 1885, no transitory regulations were made in favour of those who finished their course in 1884 and having had some general subjects should properly have been given one or two more chances under the old way that had not required so much specialisation. The suffering and the loss inflicted were not taken into account. Fortunately, the number of chances for old course B.A.'s is now extended for taking the M.A. Degree.

(d) *The haste and hurry of the Intermediate Regulations.*—Under the Universities Act, the Intermediate course included the History of English Literature and was to force a number of minima. Happily the former was dropped and the number of minima was soon reduced. The Government, before sanctioning the new rules, remarked that they were hasty and ill-conceived for the Intermediate and that too much specialisation was required.

(e) *Relation of Secondary education to the University.*—Having consented to let the new S. S. L. C. Government Examination be equivalent for the Matriculation and handed over the Secondary examination altogether into the hands of the Government in a slavish manner without a full debate in the Senate, the University recently passed resolutions asking the S. S. L. C. or School-Final Board to prescribe the minima for admission into colleges. It is a phenomenon of human conduct that strikes any worldly man as one of the most ridiculous. They are practically restoring the old Matriculation Examination methods in five years. Was it not possible for them to have seen that for University purposes, a public examination conducted by the Government that has its official routine and correspondence cannot be of as much use as the University Examination itself? The most ridiculous feature of the transaction is that, after having organised a committee to inquire into the causes of the Matriculation failure (slaughter, as it is called), they did not even wait for a year or two to see if they could carry out that committee's recommendations and improve the Matriculation Examination. They most easily surrendered themselves to the Government.

The Honours Course is practically confined to two or three colleges; its examiners are chosen out of them. The Honours Degree

really depends on the sweet will and pleasure of a few professors, and loses all public regard. The public think more highly of old B.A.'s. Even with regard to colleges they prefer old B.A.'s of experience, but the University, without even passing any written rules, enforces the entertainment of Honours B.A.'s, raw though they are, in colleges now seeking affiliation. If the public are to be satisfied with advanced syllabuses in print, they may; but the professors in charge of them are only those that had to deal with the ordinary B.A. course. Improvement in the quality of the product that comes out of their hands is a matter that cannot be reasonably expected.

The Law College has been undergoing transformation too often. Law students were allowed to hold appointments and to attend lectures morning and evening out of office hours. Then it became a full-timed day-college. The course was therefore reduced from three to two years. It is increased to three years again, while it is a day college. The evil at the root has not been eradicated. The proper method must have been to send the right sort of University Inspectors for examining the condition of the college and its staff. If lectures on general principles of law are delivered in such a manner as to present subjects on a scientific and rational basis, their application and matters of procedure become easy in the course of practice before a Court. Two years is more than enough in such a case. Instead of continuing it, they are not content with a few typical cases showing the application of principles, but want in lectures and in University Examinations treatment of too many cases, the details of which are of interest only to practitioners.

The L. T. Degree Examination has curiously excluded a knowledge of the history of education. It may be dismissed with the one remark that it needs no ghost to tell us how inspiring it is to be informed of educational workers who worked under difficulties and overcame them. Life is unduly cut down with increased time at college.

The Faculty of Medicine seems, amidst all these changes, to have been happier, and to have observed a policy of continuity.

Restrictions in the number of chances, not found in other Universities, British or Indian, are enforced; minima are laid down for sub-divisions of one and the same subject. The spirit of seeing how much students have learned does not predominate. The result is too much strain forced on the candidates. How much happier would they be, if they had only the means and conveniences for undergoing courses in Great Britain and passing through the hands of professors who try to educate for better on a rational basis? To the great misfortune of the increasing, yet small number that is able to go, fresh restrictions are imposed.

The practical neglect of Indian languages and Indian History is the crowning effect of the new rules and yet, the University is Indian!

THE GENERAL RESULT AND THE TRUE NEED.

The effect produced is not to call into existence on a larger scale than before the number of graduates that can think better and become more original. It has only been in the direction of no academic expansion of the intellect. Colleges are yet following methods more or less on the lines of an advanced High school while they ought to have been elevated to a different and higher

level; but restrictions as to the number of chances and of minima are unduly enforced. School and College life seems to cut down happiness and life too far by too much time and routine. Educative methods are still at a discount, notwithstanding advanced syllabuses. The most profitable way is to introduce into colleges a few high class professors of the type available in Britain and America; the courses extend over too long a time. The Intermediate and the B. A. Pass may be very well reduced to three years on the whole; the Honours B. A. and Law courses to two. A true University Professor is sure within the time to lay such a foundation as to create the enthusiasm for learning that endures and leads to research. It is why we all rejoiced to read recently of a motion in the Bombay University to reduce the Arts course to three years after seeing that High schools make the due preparation. Here, in Madras, the Secondary school course covers a period of six years and the standard of instruction has been raised. It is time for the University to re-consider matters and reduce both undue severity and length of time. Moreover, too much of specialisation in the Intermediate and B. A. Pass courses may be well diminished and an acquaintance with two or three subjects more of general knowledge and culture may be well introduced. Advanced Syllabuses are enough for the B.A. Honours course. An Inspector of Schools of repute and longstanding said, in his evidence before the Universities Commission, that educational efficiency in schools was lessened on account of the latest graduates' ignorance of general knowledge and restriction to one branch. Not merely for school-work but for ordinary purposes of the worldly man, the amount of ignorance in

other subjects than the one that they pass in is exciting pity and surprise.

What is really required is the general power of accurate examination and even research that will permeate the life of ordinary people as the effect of University training and influence. The great calamity of this country as of others is the *modern Great War*. According to Prof. Patrick Geddes, Germany influenced British and American Universities and even the *University of Paris*, while those of America and Britain are behind the times. The absence of a separate Education Ministry in Britain and the inability of British Ministers to be on the watch and to keep pace with modern progress have made it impossible for Britain to educate itself to the highest possible standard and therefore to produce a corresponding educative effect on Indian Universities. The spirit of research that takes cognisance of the meanest details supplied by the lowest man has not yet found its way into British Professors and into the life of Indian Colleges. It is not hereby meant to ignore the rare Indians that have become well-known and gained reputation in Europe and America. The power of German thought and scientific analysis which might have spread to Britain and through it to India has been most disastrously stopped by the greatest calamity of *War*; but, that is no reason for discouragement and despair. England can still find the financial resources and take the necessary steps for introducing some of the elements of British University life calculated to improve India, under the conditions in which it is placed.

The Indian public are grateful to the men from Britain that are doing commendable work in Indian Colleges with the best of motives and their energies, intellectual or

HOME AND SCHOOL INFLUENCES.*

THE subject for our consideration tonight is the Indian boys' character as at present developed and influenced by the Home and the School. It is rather a ticklish subject and my object in speaking upon it is more to open up a very useful discussion, than to throw out any constructive suggestions or to invite any obstructive criticisms. You will find my paper therefore rather sketchy than full and detailed. I want you to carry away with you certain lines of thought suggested by my paper and, if acceptable, to develop them at leisure and put them into practice.

Character, with every nation, counts for much; and the proper development of it devolves primarily upon parents and secondarily upon teachers. What contributions do the parents and teachers of India make towards the right development of character which is, according to the best writers and thinkers on the subject, the chief end of education?

The conditions of India are very peculiar and here we have the conflict of rival civilizations, religions, thoughts, practices and ideals—not to mention other circumstances. It will no doubt be conceded that in India, more than in any other country of the East, the influence of English thought and ideals is markedly strong.

As in Western countries the aims in life in India are not so clearly marked and it is chance that really and very often determines what is to be a boy's future. We have in our country no well-defined careers mapped out

physical. But they are only aware of the want of facilities for Professors of the type of Masson, Tait or Bryce to be posted in Indian Universities. The invitations of the best Professors from Europe from time to time and the appointments of University Professors will, it is hoped, gradually lead to place Indian Universities on a level with the best in Europe and America. Educated Indians know that Science is better taught in the improved laboratories of schools and colleges. They only long for the time when scientific training will place Indian manufactures and industries on a scientific basis. The glory of Indian Universities, so far as they have, is proclaimed in Convocation Addresses and by the highest administrators in India. In this country where official pronouncements are generally received with the highest respect and obedience, it does not need the approbation of humble people. Hence may be excused the absence of any trumpeting of the good features of Indian Universities. The ideal has always to be kept in view for high thought and action.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

* A paper read before the Salem Teachers' Association by Mr. M. M. Masilamani, B.A., L.T., Lecturer in History, Salem College, with Principal P. Seshadri, M.A., in the chair.

for our boys—owing to the peculiar social conditions which are however in the melting-pot. In the Western countries they have the Army, the Navy, the Bar, the Church, Medicine, Engineering, Trade, Diplomacy, etc., requiring the development of different sides of character.

On account of the hide-bound rules of the caste system the careers here have been limited in scope, extent and number and the tendency for some time has been to loosen the bands and rivets of that hideous system which is responsible for all the present-day ills of the country. When that system, which is slackening, disintegrates and disappears, the conditions of India are bound to be very nearly parallel at least to those prevailing in Japan.

In very many ways and directions we have been, throughout our history, in leading strings, and the remarkable improvement in the conditions of the country in the 19th century and so far, has been due not so much, to indigenous effort as to extraneous influence. Further the fact must not be overlooked that we are, from a material point of view, in such a low stage yet that we find appeals constantly made to Government to develop this or that side of the country. Amidst the warring interests and jarring claims of so many peoples that inhabit the country, it is but natural that Government has had to shape more or less the general policy of the country's advance, direct the energies of the people and regulate the educational system—from its own standpoint aided by, *sometimes* leaders of the country.

It is a patent but curious fact that leaders in India are of short standing and retain their commanding position but a few years. Why they do not retain their leading position for

long is a question which may engage the attention of thinking people and a probable solution may be that they are without decisive character.

If India is to play an important part in the role of great nations of modern times, it is needless to say, much depends on the training the boys and girls get to-day. We have to remember the rate of progress at which India is moving, is not at all commensurate with the height of aspirations she entertains. It therefore behoves parents and teachers to take the present flood at its full tide and bridge the chasm that separates the actual from the ideal in the realisation of which, character plays a very great part.

INFLUENCES OF THE HOME.

The mother in India possesses, to an extraordinary degree, all the gentle virtues but for lack of education her influence for good on the child is very much minimised. She has no idea of her possibilities for immense good and until female education makes great strides her influence in shaping the character of the Indian child is a negligible factor. She is now generally indulgent to a fault and a studied solicitude on her part towards the making of the character of her children is utterly impossible at the present day. Our daughters and grand-daughters may be more fortunate and they will have, we may be sure, no little share in the important art of moulding the character of the children of India.

Coming to the father, we find him as a rule, too absorbed in his work or too little inclined or too incapable to train systematically his child's character. Generally he is not much better than his surroundings which are not as desirable as they should be, for the training of character. He is either too repressive or too lax. In this connection permit me to quote

from Abel J. Jones' book "Character in the Making," a passage which pithily hits off the point I wish to make: "The time which the father has to spend upon his duties in search of subsistence makes it impossible for a large number of parents to pay proper attention to the upbringing of their children. Other parents who have the opportunity lack the desire to interest themselves in the education of their children, while again many who have the desire and the opportunity have neither the capacity nor the knowledge of child nature which is necessary to become successful trainers of the youthful mind. Some parents again are too repressive and others too lax. When one considers all these adverse facts it is easy to understand how few are the homes which can and do exercise upon the children the best kind of influence." The Indian father has no clear conception of his responsibility towards the shaping of his children's character. Very often he has questionable ways about him without any counteracting influence from the un-educated wife and therefore, in a large number of cases, is unfit to be the moral guardian of his children.

He has no greater ambition than to see his son hold a distinguished position in Government service or shine as a lawyer since these are the two careers which stand out temptingly as those open to his son. Such being the case, the training that he gives his son even towards the object of his ambition is very meagre and it very often happens that the son himself has to mould his own character and carve out his own fortune. In this connection, we may remind ourselves of the fact that the theory of Fatalism which largely enters into the texture of Indian thought, has been perhaps responsible for the lack of clear realisation by

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Indian parents of their share in the development of their children's character.

We have heard of fathers who looked askance at their sons' poring over books other than text-books and it is not at all to be wondered at, seeing that teachers too till lately did not, as a rule, encourage boys to browse in other than set and stereotyped pastures to which they themselves were accustomed.

We have also, I dare say, come across parents who discouraged their boys from taking part in active athletic games in their mistaken solicitude for the safety of the children's limbs or necks nor is it an uncommon feature to find parents sometimes setting their faces against their boys taking any interest in activities which are not directly and immediately connected with school-work. The spending of a few hours in a debating society a week is sometimes considered a waste of time and in the opinion of some parents that time might better be utilized by the boys in sitting at their books.

Curiously enough, any thing novel but harmless which the boys may do has sometimes evoked only adverse comment. To give you an example, I may mention that the paper-chase held here a few weeks ago, though enjoyed to the full by the boys, was regarded by some parents as a means devised to waste the time which might have been better devoted to books. But if only these arm-chair critics had been following the boys on that night they would have noticed what a lot of perseverance, cheerfulness under defeat and comradeship was evinced by the boys!

Coming to surroundings, we find certain practices, customs, sights and observances in vogue which are not at all conducive to the growth of a manly and healthy character. To

give you but one instance, I need not speak at length on the harmful influences of nautch-parties which happily are becoming less frequent and less fashionable as the moral sense of the community has been quickened and chastened by influences certainly foreign. Most of us can perhaps vividly realise the great harm wrought by these parties in days not long gone by.

Even the religious Kathas are not always quite harmless for you will find some of the Bagavathars dragging in, by the head and ears, during their performances, questionable stories or parallels just to provoke laughter, blissfully oblivious of the extent of the harm likely to be rendered to little boys and girls that may be present at these gatherings—not that they are less harmful to the grown-ups in the assembly; but we may credit them at least with the sense to know the chaff from the grain. Many a sensitive man or woman blushes at the blue stories sometimes regaled for the delectation of the audience on occasions—the reverse of irreligious. What is perhaps required is the strength of mind on the part of the organisers to give a broad hint, beforehand, to these performers to avoid religiously all such unedifying stories or references.

Somehow, the use of indecent language is not regarded in our country as in any way objectionable or reprehensible and that sort of language is very commonly used even by those people who may lay claim to 'culture,' without the slightest sense of impropriety or a due realisation of the extent of the harm that may be done to little boys and girls. I dare say there are people who will conscientiously belittle the evil influences of such language but if we consider the question very dispassionately, we shall find

that incalculable harm is done thereby. It is not an uncommon experience of ours to find ribald jokes and stories indulged in even in public places to the detriment of every body. If the effect of the mildest Billingsgate emitted from the mouths of people who ought to know better is so harmful, I leave it to you to imagine how great is the injury done by the real Billingsgate which so often penetrates our ears whether we will or not. This is a direction in which reform is urgently called for and who are better fitted to set the tone and standard in this matter than teachers?

Certain processions, practices, and sights from which boys cannot be excluded are not above reproach and criticism, and the sooner they are done away with the better for the country in several ways. I speak of these only in a suggestive way because I want to draw your attention pointedly to the great harm done by these to boys in their tender years.

Theatres, though much improved in tone of late leave much to be desired. Parents have to think twice or even thrice before they send or take their children to such questionable places of public resort.

Improvements may be noticed in all directions but it lies primarily with the parents to keep their children free from such a surrounding poisonous atmosphere even if they cannot purify that atmosphere.

The Indian parent has no idea of the value of systematic instruction in religion or morals and the instruction that is imbibed by boys is of an indirect and indifferent character. Books of religious value are not as a rule, placed in the hands of boys to be learnt directly and systematically and in the temples nothing but worship which but ap-

peals to the senses is provided. There is no wonder therefore that owing to the absence of any systematic religious or moral instruction many young men have no buoys or ballasts to help them in times of moral storms and tempests. The Government of India in their Resolution on Indian Educational Policy issued in 1913 said that they "While bound to maintain a position of complete neutrality in matters of religion observed that the most thoughtful minds in India lament the tendency of existing systems of education to develop the intellectual at the expense of the moral and religious faculties.....For the present the Government of India must be content to watch experiments and keep the matter prominently in view. Enlightened opinion and accumulated experience will, it is hoped, provide a practical solution to what is unquestionably the most important educational problem of the time."

The parent besides interesting himself more in the work of his son at school ought to keep a watchful eye on the influences that operate on him—taking note of his companions and places of resort. He should not only endeavour directly to mould the character of the boy but take an interest in the everyday life of the boy. He must treat him less as an automaton, and the relation existing between the father and the son should not be the hitherto common stand-alooftness on the part of the son and stiffness and nagging on the part of the father. The father must be able to enter into the joys and sorrows of his son. Above all he must so conduct himself that the son respects him because he practises what he preaches and there is little difference between his "Do as I say" and his "Do as I do." The spasmodic but intense interest evinced by the parent in the son at the

beginning of the school year will in no way compensate for the indifference exhibited throughout the year.

INFLUENCES OF THE SCHOOL.

Happily the Pial Schools of the old order are dying out and are not patronised by any but the poorest section of the people in any but out-of-the-way places. What about the condition of the Elementary schools under departmental oversight? The teachers of these schools have not risen much above the level of their surroundings and they have no clear apprehension of their responsibility as regards the development of the character of the children entrusted to their charge. Very often amongst them, lapses from moral rectitude are quite common, and indecent language emanates from their mouths doing good neither to themselves nor to their charges. Which right-thinking man has not very strongly felt about the evils of such a language which is sometimes said to taint the atmosphere of even Secondary classes, and has not longed for a clearer realisation of the responsibility of teachers in this matter?

The teacher of the present day realises very little or is hardly made to realise the great responsibility that he undertakes when he becomes a teacher. Besides filling the minds of boys with knowledge, good, bad, and indifferent which is all the conception of the man in the street about a teacher's work, the teacher has to mould the character of the children. His responsibility is the greater in India since the home very rarely co-operates with him intelligently and designedly in this all-important work. In more advanced countries a similar state of things seems to exist and India is not more happily situated in this respect.

Usually a teacher is prized not so much for his moral character as for his intellectual attainments. Every one will admit that a

teacher should be above all a model to the boys whom he educates. Very often the teacher has no proper estimate of his duties or responsibilities and is guilty of practices which he would condemn in the boys. What an amount of lying, backbiting, telling tales, kow-towing, manoeuvring for influence—generally evil, distorting, embroidering and abasing oneself—unworthy of a teacher who is responsible for developing a truly independent and manly character in the boys under his charge is said to have existed! The teacher must be a "power for good. But he is sometimes a power for evil hardly realised by himself or by society. How can we expect a manly character to develop in the boys when the teacher himself is not a model in that direction? The want of independence in the teacher is to be deplored and is no doubt due to the conditions of public service where *slaving oneself* has been erected into, and regarded, from time immemorial, as, a virtue—none the less a vice which disgraces official life in India, and is unworthy of the moral sense, education, and self-respect of any individual or community.

From some of these faults even teachers of higher standard and attainments are not perfectly free. The little ways of some of the teachers are shocking and I would say if a man could not be a truly independent and manly teacher he should not enter the teaching profession which is not rich in emolument but has room for much un-ostentatious and useful work resulting in the turning out of boys who, ought to 'play the game.' The sneak, the tell-tale, the double dealer, the dust-licker, the drunkard, the adulterer, the soft-soaper, the stabber-in-the-dark and the moral assassin must find other vocations where their capacities may have full scope. All but the really good teacher is easily found out by the boys and they only laugh

in their sleeves at the pretenders, in spite of their parade and bumptiousness.

It is a pity the School-Final Scheme has been to some extent prostituted by some teachers to further their own ends. The unscrupulous teacher has room under the scheme for practising unmitigated partiality in the way of marking and remarking and for exerting an immoral pressure on boys to choose subjects for which they have no leaning or taste—natural or acquired.

The sooner in any country the teaching profession is rid of such objectionable characters the better for that country. Not that teachers as a body will be immaculate but when teachers deliberately practise those little ways, petty arts and chicaneries which, in moments of their moral glow, they would condemn in others they are injuring their own self-respect and are doing an incalculable harm to the country's best interests. If the boys trained by the best teachers go wrong they do so in spite of them. But if teachers in any way contribute consciously to the moral degeneracy of the boys they are traitors to the land. They are the salt of the country and if it lose its savour wherewith shall it be salted?

My idea in talking about this subject to-night is not so much to criticise the work of the teacher as to point out how a teacher who realises his responsibility can work towards the making of better men and avoid those pitfalls and dangers which ordinarily beset his path.

If we in our life-time sow seeds of goodness, moral rectitude and high aims in the minds of boys who pass through our hands and consequently, by precept no less than by practice, turn them out to be better men we shall not have been untrue to the trust reposed in us and, though no statue of bronze or marble may be erected to our memory, we shall not have lived in vain.

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
1. Mechanical operations.	Boring an ordinary cork; cutting off a length of glass-tube; rounding off the ends of freshly cut-glass-tube; bending a piece of soft quill tube; drawing out glass-tube to a point making a glass jet; constructing a wash bottle.	Complete School Chemistry by Oldham. School Chemistry by Wilson and Hedley. A Class-book of Chemistry by Donnington. Chemistry. Bausor, Chapter I. Wilson and Hedley. Macnair, page 179.
2. Physical measurements.	(a) Volume:— Instruments for measuring volume:— (1) A graduated jar—with regard to the jar the following points to be considered—the unit volume on which the graduations are based; the volume between two successive scale numbers; and the volume between two consecutive lines on the scale. Error of Parallax in reading. Testing the accuracy of a measuring jar. (2) A burette—with regard to the burette also the above mentioned points to be studied. (3) A pipette. (4) A measuring flask. (b) Mass known masses—box of weights, multiples and sub-multiples of the gram, the unit of mass. The Balance—the several parts of the balance—conditions of a good balance—Resting point—methods of weighing—points to be observed in the operation of weighing—the use of the Rider in weighing.	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter II. Oldham, Chapter I. Macnair
3. Barometric pressure.	Fortin's Barometer—use of the same—Barometer readings—varying from time to time—Standard or Normal pressure—how expressed—76 cm. or 760 mm.	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter V. Oldham, Chapter VII
4. Temperature.	Different scales of thermometer—centigrade—generally used—melting point of ice and boiling point of water—errors in the fixed points.	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter V. Oldham, Chapter VII
5. Properties of gases.	Relation between pressure of a dry gas and its volume. Boyle's Law— $P \times V = K$ when temperature is constant. Expansion of gases—Absolute temperatures—simultaneous changes in P, V and T (Absolute temperature). $\frac{P \times V}{T} = K \text{ (constant).}$	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter V. Oldham, Chapter VII

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.O. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
6 Vapour pressure.	Vapour tension—meaning—vapour pressure of different liquids—vapour pressure at different temperature—water vapour exerts pressure which has a fixed value for definite temperatures—vapour pressure table— Partial pressure—pressure of a gas partly filling an inverted tube—Total pressure of a mixture of gases equal to the sum of the partial pressures of each of the component gases of the mixture—To get the pressure of a dry gas from the pressure of the moist gas—the pressure of the atmosphere is equal to the pressure due to the dry gas vapour pressure. Correction for temperature and pressure—Volume of dry gas at S. T. P. or N. T. P.	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter V Oldham, Chapter VII
7. Density of gases.	Density of air } and gases } at S. T. P.	
8. Some properties of liquids.	Solution. Separation of liquids from suspended impurities (1) by decantation (2) by filtration—Dissolved impurities:—power of liquids to dissolve substances. Solution—saturated solution—solubility of a substance in liquid—solubility of a solid in water—at the laboratory temperature and at other temperatures—use of difference in the solubility of a solid in water—in separating one solid from the other from a solution of the mixture—solubility of common salt, nitre, potassium chlorate—copper sulphate solubility curve— Recovery of the dissolved solid from its solution. Evaporation—use of sand bath, water bath and steam bath in evaporation. Crystallisation. Crystals—method of obtaining good crystals. Study of crystals—water of crystallisation—crystalloids, colloids, effect of heating crystals. Distillation—getting pure water from impure water—e.g., sea-water. Use of distilled water in the Laboratory—Description and use of a distiller—Precipitation.	Oldham, Chapter I Wilson and Hedley, Chapter III Macnair, Chapter II Whitton, Chapter I Bausor, Chapter II

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
9. Effect of heat on solids.	Some remain unaltered, e.g., sand, porcelain; some melt but reform the same solid on cooling—salt, candle, wax. Some volatilise without melting and form sublimate, e.g., sal-ammoniac; some give off water of crystallisation without melting—Blue stone—some decompose further on intense heating. Blue vitriol.	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter VI and VII Oldham, Chapter II Bausor, Chapter I
10. Effect of exposing certain solids to air.	Some absorb water vapour and become liquid—deliquescent bodies deliquescence—some lose their water of crystallisation and become powder—effervescent bodies—effervescence—use of deliquescent bodies for drying purposes—desiccator.	Oldham, Chapter IV Wilson and Hedley, Chapter IV
11. Scope of chemistry.	Rusting of iron, burning of candle, heating of mercury oxide, burning of magnesium wire; Chemical change—change in the composition of the substance and formation of new substances, as a result thereof—chemistry deals with the above. Rusting of iron—(1) Formation of a new substance rust oxide of iron—(2) increase of the weight of the rust (3) change in the air. Burning of Phosphorus (1) Formation of a new substance—Phosphorus oxide; (2) properties of the new substance Burning of magnesium (1) Formation of ash; (2) increase in the weight of the ash. Heating of mercury oxide splitting into 2 substances, mercury and oxygen—(an invisible gas.)	Oldham, Chapter II Wilson and Hedley, Chapter VI, VII, IX Bausor, Chapter I Whitton, Chapter II Macnair, Chapter IV
12. Elements and compounds. Mixtures.	Decomposition of mercury oxide into mercury and oxygen; Electrolysis of water. Mercury, oxygen—Hydrogen—examples of Elements or simple bodies—about 100 elements—decomposition. Formation of compounds—combination—Iron and sulphur—copper and sulphur—Iron sulphide, copper sulphide—compounds. Examples— Mixtures—compounds and mixtures—Separation of mixtures: I. For mixtures of solids—By taking advantage of differences in density. By melting one component; by volatilisation of one component by solution of one or more components. II. For mixtures of liquids and solutions. By distillation; by fractional distillation.	Macnair, Chapter III Oldham, Chapter III Wilson and Hedley, Chapter X

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
13. Study of air.	III. For mixtures of gases:—By solution of one component. 13. Study of air—Effect of heat on various substances such as copper lead, magnesium—Iron—sulphur—phosphorus—carbon. <i>Formation of calx</i> when a metal is strongly heated in air. Copper, lead and magnesium when heated in contact with air, take up oxygen forming oxides. Gold and silver not affected by heating—hence their name <i>noble metals</i>. Formation of calx of metals—<i>Stahl's Phlogistic theory</i>. <i>Burning</i>:—combustion—oxidation—slow and rapid combustion—theory of combustion (1) the <i>Phlogistic theory</i> (2) that something is taken out of the air when substances are burning—<i>Lavoisier's experiments</i> to investigate the truth of the same. In 1772 he proved by heating tin in air in a suitable vessel that the air lost in weight exactly as the tin gained in weight. In 1774 <i>Priestley's discovery of oxygen</i> by heating the calx of mercury—<i>Lavoisier's</i> further investigation of the truth on the strength of <i>Priestley's</i> discovery of oxygen—<i>Lavoisier's</i> experiments with mercury oxide and the historical importance of the same as it affords (1) a confirmation of the theory of combustion (2) a verification of the principle of the indestructibility of matter or law of conservation of mass. <i>Priestley</i> called the gas (obtained by heating the calx of mercury) "<i>vital air</i>" but <i>Lavoisier</i> renamed it <i>oxygen</i>. <i>Composition of Air</i>:—Air is altered when substances burn in it, viz., Phosphorus burning, iron rusting, &c., One-fifth of the air is used up and the air left behind no longer allowing substances to burn in it—Examination of the residual air—discovery. <i>Nitrogen</i>—Air consists mainly of two gases: oxygen and nitrogen; oxygen about 1/5; nitrogen about 4/5. Besides there is about 1% of argon and still smaller quantities of carbonic acid gas (0.04% by volume) water vapour and ammonia.	Bausor, Chapter I Oldham, Chapter II and XX Wilson and Hedley, Chapter VIII Macnair, Chapter V Whitton, Chapter II
14. Study of acids and alkalis.	Common acids. (1) Sulphuric acid, (2) Hydrochloric acid, (3) Nitric acid—Action of acids on metals.	Bausor, Chapter IV Oldham, Chapter XIII Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XI

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
15. Hydrogen.	Common Alkalis. (1) caustic soda, (2) caustic potash, (3) washing soda—Action of Alkali on litmus. Interaction between Acids and Alkalis. <i>Neutralisation</i>—salt formation. Acid + Alkali = Salt + Water. Names of salts:—<i>chlorides</i>—salts from Hydro-chloric acid; <i>Nitrates</i>—salts from nitric acid; <i>Sulphates</i>—salts from sulphuric acid. quantitative experiments in neutralisation— <i>Titration</i>—use of indicators—indicators generally used—litmus solution—methyl orange—phenol phthalein solution. Action of acids on metals—discovery of hydrogen. <i>Hydrogen</i>— I. Action of metals on water (a) sodium and potassium on water at ordinary temperatures (b) action of iron, magnesium, and zinc on water at higher temperatures. II. Action of metals on Acids—Preparation of hydrogen and examination of its properties—Examination of the liquor obtained in the preparation of hydrogen. Zinc sulphate—(zinc salt)	Macnair, Chapter XIII Bausor, Part II, Chapter II
16. Salts and Bases.	Burning of hydrogen in air—formation of water. Action of acids on oxides of metals. Zinc oxide, cupric oxide—salt and water. Action of water on oxides of some metals—sodium oxide—potassium oxide—calcium oxide—hydroxides of metals—action of acids on hydroxides of metals—salt and water. Formation of salt + water only when oxides or hydroxides of metals are treated with acids—<i>Bases</i>—name given to these oxides or hydroxides of metals. $\text{Base} + \text{Acid} = \text{Salt} + \text{Water}$ only—(oxide or hydroxide of a metal). Salts—Acids—Bases Study of the properties of acids—bases—salts—Preparation of acids (1) Dissolving acidic oxides in water; (2) Heating the salt by a volatile acid with a less volatile acid.	Bausor, Chapter II Oldham, Chapter X Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XIII Macnair, Chapter VII Whitton, Chapter IV Oldham, Chapter XIII Bausor, Chapter II Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XII Bausor, Part II, Chapter II

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
17. Oxygen.	Salts characteristics: (1) At ordinary temperatures all salts are solid. (2) Most of them are crystalline. (3) Majority soluble in water. (4) Many neutral to litmus. Kinds: (1) Normal salts; (2) Acid salts; (3) Basic salts; (4) Double salts. Preparations of salts: Volume of hydrogen obtained when one gram of a metal is dissolved in acid (weights to be taken) (Zinc = 0.5 gm.; mg = 0.2 gm.; Al = 0.2 gm.). History and discovery of oxygen by Lavoisier—A French chemist in 1772 and by Priestley in 1774. Preparation of oxygen:—By heating a mixture of 3 parts of Potassium chlorate and one part of Manganese dioxide; by heating mercuric oxide; by heating Potassium chlorate. Laboratory method of preparing oxygen:—heating the mixture of potassium chlorate and manganese dioxide. "Oxygen mixture" catalytic agent—catalysis. Oxides—classes of oxides—acidic oxides Alkaline oxides—Oxidation and reduction. Oxidising agent and reducing agents— Action of hydrogen on heated copper oxide—reduction and oxidation exemplified Historical account of the composition of water Formation of water when hydrogen burns— Properties of water. Compound nature of water:— (1) By volume—Hydrogen : oxygen :: 2 : 1 Electrolysis of water. (2) By weight—Hydrogen : oxygen :: 2 : 16. Reduction of copper oxide by hydrogen. Law of Constant proportions—(1) by the composition of water (2) by the composition of copper oxide obtained in several ways. E. NARASIMHAN. (To be continued.)	Wilson and Hedley, Chapter VIII Oldham, Chapter XII Bausor, Chapter I Macnair, Chapter VI Whitton, Chapter III Macnair, Chapter VII Oldham, Chapter XI Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XIII Bausor, Chapter I Whitton, Chapter V and XVI
18 Water.		

THE SCHOOL FINAL BOTANY PAPER.

BEFORE dealing with the subject proper, a word has to be said about two things, viz., the report of the School Final Board and the syllabus of the School Final Botany which have a direct bearing on the question.

The report of the Board for 1913 and 1914, setting forth certain suggestions and remarks was received recently. I am concerned only with the portion dealing with Botany. The remark that some schools have incompetent teachers and in others sufficient practical work is not being done is a grave charge and requires serious consideration. But the soundness of the charge is to be doubted as it is merely inferred from the mode of answering by boys. It must be remembered that there are other reasons at work which are responsible for such unsatisfactory answer. I do not mean thereby that there is no truth in what they say but the generalisation is a sweeping one. The same report deals with the teaching of the subject proper and it is remarked that much energy and time is spent in teaching such technical terms as Phyllotaxis, Photosynthesis.....and that that time and energy may be better utilised in correcting spelling mistakes of terms and learning scientific names for plants. The term Photosynthesis, to take one illustration, connotes many ideas and the use of that term which covers a large field in its purview is objected to while the learning of a long scientific name such as *Cassia alba* which merely denotes the plant and no further is preferred. The latter involves cramming while the former is worth knowing if it is properly handled.

Considering the second point, the syllabus prescribed in Botany for the School Final Course is another thing that creates differ-

ences of opinion. No microscopic work is expected of the boys. The internal morphology is very much limited. Only such a knowledge of the internal morphology as is absolutely necessary for the understanding of the functions is to be taught. It may not be out of place here if it is mentioned that the syllabus of the Intermediate is almost the same as that of the School Final Course only with an addition of two or more families. Herein there is much food for thinking. At any rate the School Final Botany syllabus has no definite shape about it. It is so elastic that it may be shortened or lengthened according to circumstances.

If the points mentioned above are borne in mind it will be clear for one to realise the just complaint against the nature of the questions set forth for the School Final Examination. Some of the questions were not happily worded and so they presented many difficulties to boys in the way of answering. To quote a few instances, take the sub-division (c) of the third question in the practical paper which runs thus "How much of structure can you see in each of these parts?" and the first question in the theory paper which reads thus:—"(1) what is the external structure of the young roots of a plant? (a) What distinctive structures are visible? (b) What is the structure, distribution and mode of connection of the root hairs and the root? (c) What is the structure of the tip? (d) What are the functions of the young roots and their parts?" And fifth question in the same paper which runs thus:—"(5) Contrast the Monocotyledons with the Dicotyledons and group the following families according to those two classes, viz., Anonaceae, Palmae, Rubiaceae, Labiaceae, Liliaceae, Compositae. State the characteristics of each of these families very

briefly, and name also two typical species belonging to each of them." The first two (as noted above) are puzzling to boys and there is no use of explaining away that the sub-divisions should be answered with reference to the main question. At any rate the questions are not properly worded. As to the third question it involves nothing but cramming which is objected to in the report by the Board. It is a question on the classification of plants but the examiner does not realise, when he sets the paper, how much ought to be written as the answer to that all-comprehensive question. It is a summary of six families with species out of the ten families prescribed for the School Final syllabus. Secondly it is doubtful how far one can expect from boys a knowledge of the species. Thirdly the question is beyond the pale of syllabus. For according to the circular of the Department of Education, choice is given in the teaching of certain families namely "Anonaceæ or Ranunculaceæ and Palmæ or Liliaceæ."

If in a school Ranunculaceæ and Palmæ are taught, the boys cannot answer the said questions satisfactorily as they have to omit Anonaceæ and Liliaceæ. From this it is clear that the boys are handicapped by that question for the above reasons.

Some of the questions involve a close study of Internal morphology. Further the study of the floral diagram (the ground plan) of a flower is one of the difficult portions and it may be fairly presumed that it is out of the syllabus although a superficial knowledge of the same may be profitably taught. How far a question of such a nature should figure in a public examination paper as was done this year is open to doubt. Lastly there is a Nota Bene in the theory paper to the effect

that when plants are named, their scientific names should be given in preference to popular English, or vernacular names. As to the use of the vernacular names, all must agree to the remark of the Board that such names should not be used in a public examination paper as the examiner may not know the said names and also plants are called by different names in different localities. But what is the object in saying that even the popular English names should be avoided? To me it seems that popular English names should be preferred to long, scientific, Latin names.

One can see from the above that this year's Botany paper is in every way disappointing. Alas! it is the students that suffer. Therefore it may be suggested as a temporary measure that correction may be made with leniency and that the question on the classification may be left out of consideration. One should not stop with this. In the interest of boys and for the sake of education, it must be urged on the authorities concerned that those who are actually engaged in the teaching of the High School classes should be given a larger share in the conduct of future examinations.

A BOTANY TEACHER.

AN ARITHMETICAL CURIOSITY.

In an old logarithm book I came across the problem, "What is the largest number that we can express by three digits?"

The answer is, of course, 9^{99} ; it is a number of inconceivable and appalling magnitude, compared with which the huge numbers that we meet with in sidereal astronomy fade into absolute insignificance: 9^9 is 729^9 , which is easily found to be 387,420,489. We have to multiply $\log 9$ by this figure in order to obtain $\log 9^{99}$. Seven-figure logs are useless; we must employ at least 10-figure ones to get any significant figures in the answer. I had recourse to the 61-figure logs of certain numbers computed by Abraham Sharp, and given in Hutton's tables. From these I find that $\log 9^9 = 369,693,099.63157, 03587$, etc. Hence the number contains 369,693,100 figures. I have found the first 28 of them to be 428, 124, 773, 175, 747, 048, 036, 987, 115, 9. We also know that the two final figures of the number are 89,¹ since odd powers of 9 end successively with 09, 29, 49, 69, 89, 09, etc. A knowledge of 30 figures out of 300 million may seem trifling, but in reality the error involved in taking all the remaining figures as zeros is only one part in a thousand quadrillions. If the number were printed with 16 figures to an inch (about the tightest packing for decent legibility), it would extend over 364.7 miles, or from London to Perth. If printed in a series of large volumes, we might get 14,000 figures to a page, and with 800 pages to the volume it would fill 33 volumes. There are more than twice as many digits in the number as there are letters in the whole of the Encyclopedia Britannica.

To find the largest number suggested by sidereal astronomy I took the following:—Both Very and See have expressed the opinion that certain visible objects may be at a distance of a million light years; I imagine a solid sphere of platinum of this radius, and find how many electrons it contains. From Duncan's *The New*

Knowledge, p. 65, I find that the log of the number of electrons in a cubic centimeter of water is 16.469. Taking the density of platinum as 21.5, the log of the number of electrons in a cubic inch of it is 19.016, and the log of the volume of the huge sphere in cubic inches is 71.3362. Whence the log of the number of electrons it contains is 90.352, and the corresponding number is 225 followed by 88 zeros. At 16 figures to the inch this would take $5\frac{3}{4}$ inches, just the width of the page of our Journal.

It is interesting to note that the number of electrons in the body of each human being would suffice to charge about 21 of the 91 figures.

To find the radius of a sphere of platinum that would contain 9^9 electrons, we must multiply our million-light year radius by a number whose log is 123,231,003.693, i. e., the multiplier is 1239 followed by 123,231,000 zeros. In fact, that gigantic sphere would exceed the million-light-year sphere in a far higher ratio than that exceeds the size of one electron.² Hence we may take it as morally certain that we can write with three digits a number vastly exceeding the number of electrons in the whole of creation, which is a somewhat startling fact. Indeed even the number 4^4 (which is 13407813 followed by 147 other figures) probably exceeds the number of electrons in creation. At least it equals the number of electrons in a solid platinum sphere that exceeds the million-light-year sphere in the same proportion that that exceeds a sphere 206 inches.—A. O. D. Orommel in the *Journal of the Brit. Astron. Assoc.*, May 1913.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.

PRESS NOTE.

No. 1894, Educational Dept., d/29-6-15.

The Education of Children employed in Factories.

In July, 1913, the Governor in Council appointed a Special Committee consisting of the Director of Public Instruction as Chairman, the Collector of Bombay, the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay Presidency, Sirdar Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal, Bart., C. I. E., of Ahmedabad, and representatives of the Mill-owners' Association of Bombay and the Schools Committee of the Bombay Municipal Corporation, for the purpose of examining generally the question of the education of factory children and more particularly of—

(1) considering the possibility of arranging for the education of all children employed in factories;

(2) suggesting the measures necessary to give effect to their recommendations, and

(3) reporting upon whom primarily the responsibility for, and cost of, the execution of such measures should be imposed.

2. The members of the Committee held divergent views in regard to the main issue involved, four members, including the Chairman, out of the eight recommending that, as an alternative to what they regarded as the only complete and satisfactory solution of the problem, namely, a scheme of free and compulsory education for all children, or at any rate all children within certain areas, education should be made compulsory for factory children only. The remaining members were strongly opposed to this recommendation mainly on the ground that to apply legislation in this matter specially to factory children would involve an unfair and invidious discrimination to the disadvantage of this class. While thus divided on a question of principle, both sections of the Committee agreed in putting forward one important practical suggestion which, in their opin-

ion, would go far towards removing the obstacles which in existing conditions prevent full advantage being taken by factory children of the educational facilities actually available. This suggestion was to the effect that the half-timers' statutory six hour period of work should be made compulsorily divisible into two periods of three hours each with a considerable interval of time between them, which interval might be utilized for the instruction of the children. Apart from its advantages from the educational point of view, it was pointed out that incidentally such an arrangement would put an end to a commonly prevalent abuse, namely, the practice on the part of half-timers of working for six hours in one factory and then going to a different factory for a further spell of work.

3. The Governor in Council was not prepared to accept the rather qualified support extended in the so-called majority report of the Committee to the proposal for the compulsory education of factory children as affording sufficient ground for a decision in favour of a measure of so controversial a character, and he accordingly came to the conclusion that, for the present, the proposal for the compulsory education of factory children should not be proceeded with. But after examining it further, and more particularly from the point of view of factory administration, he decided that the adoption of the subsidiary proposal, which had the unanimous support of the Committee, was desirable. With this end in view action is now being taken for the amendment of the Indian Factories Act.

4. In connexion with the general question of the provision of improved educational facilities for children employed in factories it has been represented to Government that the great majority of the mills in Bombay either already maintain schools for their juvenile operatives, or have at one time maintained such schools and subsequently had to close them owing to non-attendance, or are willing now to open such schools, and that the

difficulty in regard to ensuring that the children shall receive instruction is not so much the absence of facilities therefor as the unwillingness of the children or their parents to take advantage of them where they exist. As a step towards overcoming this obstacle the suggestion was made that, with the co-operation of the mill-owners, a system might be tried under which a child regularly attending a factory school would be paid at a higher rate than a child not so attending, truancy on the other hand being penalized by fines. But consultation with the mill-owners of Bombay and Ahmedabad showed that there was strong opposition to this suggestion, the principal ground of objection being that to place a regular premium on attendance at factory schools would have the result of raising the price of child labour all round, since the tendency would be for the children to go only to those mills which gave premia or to any others which might offer pay at the ordinary rate plus premia, an automatically rising scale of pay being thus established. As regards fines for non-attendance it was apprehended that their imposition would have a serious effect in frightening away child labour. In these circumstances it does not appear advisable to act on this suggestion.

5. At a meeting which was recently held between the Collector of Bombay and the Bombay Mill-owners' Association for the informal discussion of the whole question the general conclusion arrived at was that the first requisite for the success of special factory schools was the drawing up of a suitable and thoroughly practical elementary curriculum for such schools. This curriculum should be confined to the Three R's and should be drawn up to suit a half day and not a whole day-school, so that it may not overburden children who are engaged in hard manual work. It was also considered important that the regular inspection and examination of these schools should be undertaken by the Educational Department and that the inspecting officer should confer free-

ly with the mill managers as to the needs of the schools. The Association expressed the readiness of the mill-owners to incur reasonable expenditure in giving prizes for progress to the children on the reports of the inspecting and examining officer.

6. The Governor in Council has accepted the view that action for the promotion of education among factory children can most advantageously be taken on the above lines. He trusts that the result in due course will be a substantial advance from the general state of illiteracy at present prevailing among the juvenile factory population of the Presidency.

7. It is understood that the four factory schools maintained by the Bombay Municipality already have a special course of studies of their own. Enquiry is being made regarding the nature of this course with a view to seeing whether any, and if so, what, modifications are required in it to adapt it to the needs of children attending other factory schools. As soon as a special curriculum has been finally settled for schools for factory children, the Director of Public Instruction will invite mill owners generally to give it a fair trial, and will, in due course, report to Government the result of the action taken by him.

8. The Deputy Educational Inspector, Bombay, has, in the meanwhile, been instructed to take every opportunity of personally consulting and securing the co-operation of the mill-owners in the matter. The immediate control of primary education in the city and the responsibility for its improvement and extension rest, however, in the Schools Committee of the Bombay Municipality. The co-operation of that body is therefore essential and has accordingly also been invited.

9. The question of the special arrangements to be made for the inspection and examination of the proposed Factory Schools by officers of the Educational Department is still under consideration.

BOMBAY CASTLE, 28-6-'15.

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

No. 1874.

**REPORT ON THE SCHOOL
FINAL EXAMINATION***Held in November, 1914.*

Letter from the Director of Public Instruction,
No. 1352, dated the 29th April, 1915 :—

"With reference to Government Resolution, Educational Department, No. 725, dated the 25th April, 1905, I have the honour to submit my report on the School Final Examination of 1914, which was held on Monday, the 16th November, 1914, and the following days at the following centres :—(1) Bombay, (2) Poona, (3) Ahmedabad, (4) Dharwar and (5) Karachi.

"2. The Divisional Educational Inspectors and the Principal, Elphinstone High School, Bombay, acted as Superintendents as before, assisted by a local committee of expert officers.

"3. The examiners appointed to set the papers were as follows :—

Compulsory subjects.

1. English—Mr. J. N. Fraser, M.A., Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay.
2. Vernaculars—
 - (a) Marathi—Mr. D. S. Sawarkar, L.C.E., Acting Principal, Training College for Men Poona.
 - (b) Gujarati—Rao Saheb J. G. Shastri, B.A., Educational Inspector, Northern Division, Ahmedabad.
 - (c) Kanarese—Mr. R. D. Nadkarni, B.A., Acting Principal, Training College for Men, Dharwar.
 - (d) Sindhi—Mr. P. A. Jhangiani, B.A., Principal, Training College for Men, Hyderabad.
 - (e) Urdu—Shaikh Abdul Kadir Surfraz, M.A., Lecturer in Persian, Deccan College, Poona.

(f) Hebrew—Mr. B. S. Ezekiel, B.A., Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

(g) Latin—Mr. A. C. Miller, M.A., Acting Vice-Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Kathiawar.

3. Mathematics—Mr. M. Hesketh, M.A., Educational Inspector in Sind.

4. History and Geography—Mr. P. Wren, M.A., Principal, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Optional subjects.

1. Classical Languages—

(a) Sanskrit—Mr. V. S. Ghate, M.A., Professor of Sanskrit, Deccan College, Poona.

(b) Persian—Shaikh Abdul Kadir Surfraz, M.A., Lecturer in Persian, Deccan College, Poona.

2. Drawing—Mr. C. L. Burns, Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay.

3. Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence—Mr. K. S. Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Bombay.

4. Shorthand and Typewriting—Mr. K. S. Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Bombay.

"The examiners appointed to correct the papers, where different from the above, were the following :—

Bombay.

Marathi—Mr. B. K. Damle, B.A., Second Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Gujarati—Mr. U. D. Thakar, B.A., LL.B., First Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Kanarese—Mr. P. T. Moppikar, B.A., Kanarese Translator, High Court, Bombay.

Urdu—Khan Saheb Sayad Mainuddin Sayad Husein, Urdu Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Bombay.

Latin—Mr. G. Anderson, M.A., Professor, Elphinstone College, Bombay.

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Mathematics—Mr. D. H. Vachha, M.A., Vice-Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay, and Mr. R. D. Karve, M.A., Assistant to the Professor of Mathematics, Elphinstone College, Bombay.

History and Geography—Mr. S. K. Nayampalli, B.A., Deputy Educational Inspector, Bombay, and Mr. C. V. Patel, B.A., Head Master, Elphinstone Middle School, Bombay.

Sanskrit—Mr. M. G. Shastri, M.A., Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Persian—Mr. K. B. Irani, B.A., Assistant to the Professor of Persian, Elphinstone College, Bombay.

Poona.

English—Mr. C. R. W. Griffith, B.A., Head Master, Poona High School.

Gujarati—Mr. M. E. Daruwala, Head Master, Camp Government English School, Poona.

Latin—Mr. C. R. W. Griffith, B.A., Head Master, Poona High School.

Mathematics—Mr. H. E. H. Pratt, M.A., Inspector of Science Teaching, and Mr. B. D. Audich, M.A., Lecturer in Mathematics, College of Engineering, Poona.

History and Geography—Miss M. Newland, Lady Superintendent, Training College for Women, Poona, and Mr. P. R. Godbole, B.A., Vice-Principal, Training College for Men, Poona.

Ahmedabad.

English—Mr. A. C. Miller, M.A., Acting Vice-Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Kathiawar.

Marathi—Mr. G. B. Sapre, B.A., First Assistant Master, Premchand Raichand Training College for Men, Ahmedabad.

Gujarati—Mr. J. P. Shroff, B.A., Vice-Principal, Premchand Raichand Training College for Men, Ahmedabad.

Urdu and Persian—Mr. J. S. Kadri, B.A., Deputy Educational Inspector, Ahmedabad.

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Mathematics—Mr. J. C. Swaminarayan, M.A., Professor, Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, and Mr. J. S. Kadri, B.A., Deputy Educational Inspector, Ahmedabad.

History and Geography—Mr. K. A. Bala, Principal, Premchand Raichand Training College, Ahmedabad, and Miss R. Navalkar, B.A., Assistant, Mahalaxmi Training College for Women, Ahmedabad.

Sanskrit—Mr. G. B. Sapre, B.A., First Assistant Master, Premchand Raichand Training College, Ahmedabad.

Dharwar.

English—Mr. O. H. T. Dudley, M.A., Inspector of European Schools, Bombay Presidency, Poona.

Marathi—Mr. R. K. Joshi, M.A., Acting Head Master, Lamington High School, Hubli.

Urdu and Persian—Mr. A. J. Bangi, B.A., Special Mahomedan Deputy Educational Inspector for Urdu Schools, Southern Division.

Mathematics—Mr. B. G. Diwekar, B.A., First Assistant Master, Training College for Men, Dharwar, and Mr. G. M. Udgatti, Personal Assistant to the Deputy Educational Inspector, Dharwar.

History and Geography—Mr. K. S. Hungund, B.A., Head Master, Bijapur High School, and Mr. V. N. Magdal, B.A., First Assistant Master, Training College for Women, Dharwar.

Sanskrit—Mr. R. G. Terigundi, M.A., First Assistant Master, Dharwar High School.

Karachi.

English—Mr. F. Ludlow, B.A., Vice-Principal, Dayaram Jethmal Sind College, Karachi.

Marathi—Mr. B. G. Gokhale, Assistant Master, N. J. High School, Karachi.

Gujarati—Mr. S. D. Contractor, B.A., First Assistant Master, N. J. High School, Karachi.

Urdu—Mr. Zauddin Ahmed, B.A., Assistant Master, Sind Madressa, Karachi.

Latin—Mr. H. P. Farrell, M.A., Principal, Dayaram Jethmal Sind College, Karachi.

Mathematics—Mr. M. Hesketh, M.A., Educational Inspector, Sind, and Mr. K. U. Lalwani, Acting Head Master, N. J. High School, Karachi.

History and Geography—Mr. H. P. Farrell, M.A., Principal, Dayaram Jethmal Sind College, Karachi, and Mr. G. E. L. Carter, I.C.S., B.A., (Oxon.), and Oxford Diploma in Geography, Assistant Collector, Tatta.

Persian—Mr. K. J. Chainani, B.A., Head Master, High School, Hyderabad.

"Mr. C. L. Burns, Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, valued the answer papers in Drawing of the candidates at all centres.

"4. The number of candidates registered for the examination was 1,680 against 1,603 of the previous year. Out of this number 47 did not appear. The number examined was, therefore, 1,633, of whom 771 passed giving a percentage of 47 as against 48 of the last year. The number examined increased by 93 at Poona, and by 16 at Karachi, while it decreased by 41 at Bombay, by 5 at Ahmedabad, and by 10 at Dharwar.

"The names of successful candidates were published at pages 2290—2301 and 2377 of the *Bombay Government Gazette*, Part II, dated respectively the 17th and 31st of December, 1914.

"The results for each centre were as follows :—

Centre.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage.
Bombay	194	98	51
Poona	471	228	48
Ahmedabad	352	200	57
Dharwar	294	100	34
Karachi	322	145	45
Total	1,633	771	47

"There was considerable improvement at Bombay, as it produced better results with a less number of examinees than last year, and Ahmedabad showed slight improvement. At the remaining three centres the results were inferior to those of the last year.

"In compulsory subjects the results were as follows :—

Subject.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of success.
English—			
Written	1,633	1,045	64
Oral	1,629	1,191	73
Vernacular—			
Written	1,632	1,303	80
Oral	1,628	1,399	86
Mathematics	1,632	1,270	78
History and Geography	1,632	1,189	73

"The figures show an improvement in Mathematics. The results in vernacular were slightly inferior to those of last year.

"The following table gives the results in the different vernaculars :—

Name of the vernacular.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of success.
Marathi	695	522	75
Gujarati	370	326	88
Kanarese	218	195	89
Sindhi	281	193	69
Urdu	31	18	58
Hebrew	3	3	100
Latin	34	26	76
Total	1,632	1,283	79

"The above figures show an improvement in Latin only and a marked falling off in Urdu.

"In the optional subjects the results were as follows :—

Subject.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of passes.
Classical languages	122	78	64
Drawing	15	12	80
Book-keeping and Commercial correspondence	6	5	83
Shorthand and Typewriting	1	1	100

"The figures given above show a falling off in all the optional subjects but the last.

"The results in the classical languages were :—

Name of the classical language.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of passes.
Sanskrit	56	38	68
Persian	66	40	61
Total	122	78	64

"The above figures show results in both the languages inferior to those of the previous year.

5. "A statement* showing the results of the examination classified according to schools is appended as per paragraph 2 of Government Resolution, Educational Department, No. 1267, dated the 22nd May, 1912."

6. "The following is a brief summary of the reports submitted by the Superintendents and Examiners :—

(1) COMPULSORY SUBJECTS.

English.—Mr. J. N. Fraser who set the English paper has published notes intended as a guide to teachers in Nos. 7 and 8, Volume XIII, of 'Indian Education.' His views on the work done by the candidates of

* Printed as an accompaniment to this Order.

the Bombay Centre may be thus summarised :—

The matter of the essays on the whole was sensible and the treatment original. Expressions of gratitude to God and the British Government which were frequent were somewhat out of place in the examination room (the same remark is made by Mr. Dudley of the Dharwar Centre). The great defect of all essays was want of arrangement. Punctuation was exceedingly bad not only in the essay but everywhere. There had evidently been no sensible attempt to teach it anywhere. Hardly any candidate had any idea how to write a paraphrase or realised that the essential thing is to change the *form* of the sentence.

In the answers of candidates to questions on the prescribed text-books Mr. Fraser notices a common disregard of the instruction to be brief and of the exact point or difficulty of the question: an inability to detect irony: a general want of method and everywhere the vice of slovenly expression (including false concords and sequences). On the other hand, spelling was rarely bad and the handwriting of over half the candidates was quite good. On the part of the teachers he infers a neglect of concrete illustration and especially of the illustration of things European by things Indian (for which, he says, a carefully chosen series of pictures of things European is urgently needed); insufficient emphasis on the salient points of the text-book: and a regrettable tendency to ignore etymology completely. The oral test revealed that 'there was of course no one who could understand ordinary English as spoken by an Englishman. It would be unreasonable to expect this, but many of the candidates certainly move on a very low plane.' There was far too much inaccuracy in the form of the replies and an unnecessary adherence to that pedantic obstacle to intelligent conversation the rule of answers in complete sentences. Of 117 candidates passed by him, there were only two whose papers he considered first class.

At Poona, the work of a large number of boys was on the border line. In oral examination they showed how superficial their knowledge of English was and how their work

as a whole was apt to be thrown entirely out of gear if the questions were not asked in a stereotyped form. The spelling also was not good. A good many had read no other books than the prescribed ones. A general question on the war showed that the boys had an intelligent grasp of the situation. At Ahmedabad, the two outstanding defects of the work were the total disregard paid by the students to the exact meaning of the questions (noted also at Bombay) and the slovenliness of the work shown up. The latter defect was in part due to the failure of the contractor to supply paper of the quality contracted for. But making allowance for this, the carelessness of the candidates is held mainly responsible. Much of the writing was such as would not be tolerated in a Government office and showed great neglect in the teachers. Paraphrasing frequently resulted in obscuring the meaning. The pieces for translation from the vernaculars were on the whole satisfactory. In the oral examination the candidates showed a considerable knowledge of bookish English, but none of conversational English. As at Bombay too much attention was shown to answering in complete sentences. Candidates read too fast and with the eyes only, not with the brain. For Dharwar Centre, Mr. Dudley has sent in a lucid and interesting report. His remarks may be briefly summarised as under :—

The standard of writing was very low. Some 50 candidates were rejected on account of gross carelessness in handwriting and spelling. The best writing came from Belgaum and Dharwar High Schools, but the best cannot compare with the average handwriting of pupils for the European High School Examination. The average candidate failed badly in respect of method. Wordy outpourings took the place of succinct explanations. The number of erasures was striking. Translation was well done and in commendably correct English idiom. Composition was marked by the same errors as were noted in his report of last year. Candidates tended to select the easiest subject, the doctor's life and work: a few tackled the aeroplane, but none knew its motive power. As for the paraphrase, there were not even half a dozen candidates who grasped the

meaning of the short sentences set. Text-books were prepared with great industry and well remembered, but extraordinary lack of judgment was shown in the relative length of the answers. Brevity was shunned as an unpardonable vice. It was noted that several of the best oral candidates failed badly in written work. On the whole Mr. Dudley thought that the work showed no improvement over last year's, and the percentage of passes remains low. For the Karachi Centre, Mr. Ludlow remarks :—The work of the candidates as a whole was satisfactory. The handwriting was in many instances good. In spelling there is room for a good deal of improvement. The composition work done was on the whole disappointing. Paraphrasing was fair. In oral the reading was good. A good many however were inclined to shout. The reading of simple practical passages was much inferior, most candidates being inclined to a monotonous drone in which expression was absent.

(2) VERNACULARS.

Marathi.—At Bombay, the oral work was better than the written, the latter being inaccurate and untidy. Modi reading and writing at all the centres was unsatisfactory as last year. Some of the Poona candidates said that as the use of Modi was discontinued in Revenue offices they did not consider that it was necessary to spend much time in learning to read and write the Modi script. At Poona poetry was better done than prose. Orthography was however neglected. At Ahmedabad the result was disappointing. At Dharwar the Marathi reading of candidates did not seem to have gone further than magazines and other light literature. In composition the work was unsystematic, stray ideas being loosely put together. The candidates showed a tendency to use foreign words, e.g., पार्टी (party), कितली (kettle), पेपर (paper), etc.

Gujarati.—At Bombay, composition was satisfactory on the whole, but there was room for improvement in spelling and handwriting. Analysis and parsing also were weak. At Ahmedabad the majority of candidates failed to grasp the sense of the poetry. There was the usual crop of misspellings, and

handwriting and neatness left much to be desired. In the oral examination the general knowledge was found to be poor, e.g., the son of a Post Master did not know how the postal system worked in villages.

Kanarese.—The performance of the candidates at Dharwar was found satisfactory. However, the weak points noticed were the use of some Marathi words, e.g., खोली (kholi) अडथळ (adathala), सोवी (sovi), etc., and the 'deplorable' want of knowledge of grammar.

Sindhi.—The written work showed no improvement either in handwriting or in knowledge of the language. Most of the candidates came without any preparation. The defects of punctuation and spelling were quite as glaring as last year. The oral disclosed want of expression in reading and weakness in the power of explanation.

Urdu.—At Ahmedabad, the candidates were found weak in their knowledge of idiomatic and colloquial forms of speech and in composition. They wrote a poor, illegible hand. At Dharwar the candidates were not up to the mark, the notable defects being errors in spelling and grammar. At Karachi the work of the candidates was found better than last year.

Latin.—At Bombay, the standard of work was distinctly inferior to that of past years, syntax being very poor. At Poona, the candidates answered intelligently. At Karachi, the composition was done better, but the unseen was done poorly.

Hebrew.—At Bombay, three candidates appeared, all of whom passed, one being specially commended.

(3) MATHEMATICS.

In Arithmetic cumbrous methods were employed by the candidates at Poona and Karachi. In the case of the former the untidiness and slovenliness of the work were appalling. The candidates at Ahmedabad did well in the paper, while there is much room for improvement in point of carefulness, order and accuracy in the case of the candidates at the Dharwar Centre.

In Algebra and Geometry, the answers of the candidates at the Bombay Centre were not good in respect of Logarithms, Approxi-

mation and Graphs. At Poona, accuracy in the measurement of angles was wanting, and hurried writing, clumsy scratching and confused arrangement of different steps were noticeable in many of the papers. At Ahmedabad, very few attempted the questions on Graphs, and neatness and accuracy were not observed in Geometry. At Karachi, most of the candidates failed to solve correctly the question on Logarithms owing to ignorance of decimals.

(4) HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

In History the candidates at the Bombay Centre are found fault with in regard to map-drawing, handwriting and spelling; though the answers given were good. At Poona, the candidates did not answer satisfactorily the questions on India's defences, Party Government and Co-operative Credit Societies. Many of them did not realise the true meaning of 'Local Self-Government.' Some candidates complained that they had not had sufficient instruction in the causes and course of the war because their teachers in the early months of the war had been afraid to handle such a delicate subject. At Ahmedabad, the candidates did not seem to be well abreast of recent events and lacked sense of proportion for different questions. At Dharwar, the candidates though pretty well grounded could not give correct expression to their thoughts owing to imperfect knowledge of the English language, their spelling especially of names being 'horrible.' The examiner at Karachi says the question on the war was intelligently answered by all.

In Geography the Bombay and Poona candidates did well, while those at the other centres were not up to the mark. Some penetrating and suggestive criticism on the work in Geography is made by the examiner in Sind, Mr. G. E. L. Carter, I.C.S. He says that candidates while knowing the relative position of places in India could not draw an approximately correct outline-map or insert the conventional signs properly; from certain indications he infers that antiquated and inaccurate text-books and maps must be in use in schools; he found confusion with regard to the relation of sun, moon and earth and inability to explain matters by diagram.

he thinks candidates rely too much on careless reading of inaccurate newspapers instead of studying reliable text-books and books of travel. He attributes the faults detected not merely to ignorance and carelessness, but also to bad tuition and lack of practice in examination. All these faults in the papers are attributable primarily to the teaching staff, not to the boys, and in order to raise the standard of the papers, which is low, the standard of the masters must be raised both in their own training and in being supplied with at least some simple apparatus for dealing with physics. Boys will not be able to understand any group of facts connected with Geography unless the main physical facts, such as the effect of flowing water, are properly explained.

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

(1) CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

Sanskrit.—At Bombay, the handwriting of candidates is criticised as unsatisfactory and the translation was found generally weak. At Poona, the examiner found that the Sanskrit passages were well understood though the English rendering was generally bad. In rendering the English passage into Sanskrit the work was found unsatisfactory, the most elementary rules of agreement in gender, person and number having been neglected. At Ahmedabad, the failures committed bad mistakes in Sandhi and Syntax. At Dharwar, all the four candidates passed.

Persian.—The majority of the candidates were from the Karachi Centre and their work is reported to be fair.

Drawing.—The examiner states that the test applied was a little more advanced than the second grade, but not quite so difficult as the third grade. Mr. Burns advocates that Drawing should be made a compulsory subject with the standard lowered and the subject simplified.

Book-keeping and Commercial correspondence.—Five out of six candidates passed. They were all from the Bombay Centre, but the answers given were not as good as in previous years. The one candidate examined in Shorthand and Typewriting passed, the answer written being good.

"7. It is not necessary for a candidate to take an optional subject, and only 144 or 9 per cent. did so. The percentage was a little higher than last year. Apparently it is considered that passing in an optional subject does not add to the value of the certificate. The majority selected Sanskrit or Persian as an optional, a few only appearing in other subjects.

"8. With regard to the result of allowing candidates to answer in the vernacular questions on History, Geography and the Classical Language the examiners at the Bombay Centre recommend that the piece set for translation into Sanskrit should be given in the vernacular. The examiners at Ahmedabad say nothing. The examiner at the Poona Centre remarks that few availed themselves of the concession and finds the reason in the candidates' consciousness of their ignorance of the vernacular and in the impression that the study of History from an English text-book is a great help to their English. The examiner at the Dharwar Centre remarks that 13 out of 147 candidates used the vernacular in History and Geography, their answers being remarkably free from the numerous bad faults so common in the answer papers written in English so that they fared distinctly better.

"9. The examiners at all the centres, except Karachi, are loud in their complaints of the slovenliness of the candidates' handwriting and work generally. There was this year a special reason for this in the inferior quality of the paper in the answer books supplied to candidates, for which the contractor was penalised by a reduction in the amount of the bill presented. So far no complaints of this nature have arisen with regard to the Supplementary Examination of 1915. But it appears that the ultimate cause of this slovenly work is to be found in the absence of systematic and intelligent teaching of handwriting in the schools especially in the higher standards, and the neglect of teachers to insist on neat, precise and careful work in the daily exercises of their pupils. The standard in this respect demanded by managers of Anglo-Vernacular schools appears to be far below that which it has been found possible to exact

in European, and even in the better English-teaching schools. In an examination of the character of the School Final, which aims at certifying to the fitness of boys for the work of Government service and business in general, it is essential to insist on a high standard of neatness and accuracy, and the best means to remove the general defect in this respect revealed by this year's examination will be carefully reconsidered.

"The question of assimilating the School Final Examination with the University Matriculation Examination is still under consideration. A conference between representatives of Government and the University to consider the formation of a Joint Board for both examinations is still sitting.

"10. The financial result of the examination is as follows:—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Receipts	20,160	0	0
Expenditure	*17,724	7	5
	2,435	8	7

* The details of the expenditure are given in the subjoined table:—

Item.	Amount.
	Rs. a. p.
Remuneration to Superintendents	2,000 0 0
Remuneration to Examiners	11,448 5 0
Remuneration to Supervisors	1,250 0 0
Remuneration to clerks	*382 5 2
Charges on account of printing	976 12 0
Stationery	207 8 2
Answer books	510 0 0
Postage charges	15 0 0
Miscellaneous	724 7 6
Travelling allowance	210 1 0
Total	17,724 7 5

* Includes Rs. 22 5-2 paid to clerk at Poona Centre for Supplementary Examination.

"11. This report, if approved, may be published and 500 copies supplied to me for distribution."

ORDER.—The number of candidates registered for the examination was 1,680 against 1,603 of the previous year, but 47 candidates did not appear. The number actually examined was therefore 1,633, of whom 771

passed, giving a percentage of 47 against 48 for the preceding year and 43 for the examination of 1912, which was the first examination held in accordance with the revised curriculum.

2. From the examiners' reports it appears that everywhere the standard of English attained by the candidates for this examination is low. Government trust that the schools concerned will take steps to remedy the defects in the teaching of this subject noticed in paragraph 6 of the Director's report.

3. Government concur generally in the remarks made in paragraph 9 of the Director's report. Special importance must necessarily attach to neatness and good handwriting in an examination which is recognized by Government as qualifying for admission to the lower grades of the public service and which aims at certifying to the fitness of successful candidates for business in general. But apart from this, it has to be recognized that the toleration of slovenly and untidy work and bad and careless handwriting is calculated to exercise an altogether undesirable influence on the characters of the pupils and their general outlook on life. It is necessary, therefore, to warn headmasters of schools that a higher standard in these matters will be insisted on in future examinations and that deficiencies will be penalized to a greater extent than heretofore.

4. Of the schools which sent up six or more candidates the following failed to pass 33 per cent. of their candidates:—

- (1) Karwar High School,
- (2) Native Institution, Poona,
- (3) A. M. High School, Nagar,
- (4) Union High School, Broach,
- (5) Sardars' High School, Belgaum,
- (6) Mission High School, Dharwar,
- (7) Lamington High School, Hubli,
- (8) Nutan Maharashtra Vidyalaya, Kolhapur,
- (9) Private English High School, Kolhapur,
- (10) N. H. Academy, Hyderabad,
- (11) Nava Vidyalaya High School, Hyderabad.

5. The Honourable Mr. Sharp's report should be printed for distribution as proposed by him.

(Sd.) J. L. RIEU,
Secretary to Government.

Accompaniment to Government Order, Educational Department,
No. 1874, dated the 28th June, 1915.

SCHOOL FINAL EXAMINATION, 1914.
Classification of results according to schools.

No.	Name of School.	No. of regular students.		No. of ex-students.	
		Presented.	Passed	Presented.	Passed.
Bombay Centre.					
1	Elphinstone High School, Bombay ..	13	7	1	1
2	B. J. High School, Thana ...	7	6	3	2
3	Karwar High School, Karwar ...	19	2	9	4
4	Ratnagiri High School, Ratnagiri ...	17	13	2	2
5	Esraelite High School, Mazgaon, Bombay ...	3	3	...	...
6	Wilson High School, Bombay ...	17	10	1	1
7	Robert Money School, Bombay ...	2	1	...	...
8	Anjuman-i-Islam High School, Bombay ...	...	...	1	...
9	B. J. Parsi Charitable Institution, Bombay ...	6	2	1	...
10	St. John Night High School, Bombay ...	2	1	1	...
11	General Education Institute, Dadar, Bombay ...	2	1	...	..
12	Maratha High School, Bombay ...	7	4	2	...
13	St. Xavier's High School, Bombay ...	5	4	1	1
14	S. P. G. Mission High School, Dapoli ...	6	1	...	...
15	John Elphinstone High School, Alibag ...	6	3	4	1
16	Gibb High School, Kumta ...	4	2	5	3
17	Aryan Education Society's High School, Bombay.	11	4	6	2
18	Babu Panalal Jain High School, Bombay ...	...	...	1	1
19	Bhandari High School, Malwan ...	...	...	3	3
20	A. S. Desai High School, Malwan ...	3	1	...	...
21	Private A.-V. School, Rajapur ...	5	2	...	...
22	Sir Sidi Ahmedkhan High School, Murud ...	...	...	3	3
23	Sawantwadi English School, Sawantwadi ...	3	2	...	...
24	American Mission High School, Ahmednagar ...	...	...	1	1
25	American Mission High School, Byculia, Bombay.	1	...	...	...
26	Basel Mission High School, Honavar ...	4	2	...	...
27	New Night High School, Bombay ...	1	...	...	...
28	A. da Silva High School, Dadar, Bombay ...	2	1	...	...
29	Victoria High School, Dharwar ...	...	...	1	1
30	Native Institution, Poona ...	...	...	1	...
31	High School, Nasik ...	...	...	1	...

No.	Name of School.	No. of regular students.		No. of ex-students.	
		Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
Poona Centre.					
32	High School, Poona	18	13	1	1
33	High School, Satara	13	7	4	1
34	Northcote High School, Sholapur	18	6	4	3
35	High School, Nasik	41	14	13	6
36	Garud High School, Dhulia	14	12	2	1
37	New English School, Poona	81	44	10	5
38	New English School, Satara	24	12	1	...
39	Nutan Marathi Vidyalaya, Poona	49	33	8	6
40	Poona Native Institution, Poona	38	6	15	8
41	A. E. Society's High School, Nagar	40	14	5	1
42	A. M. High School, Nagar	11	2	4	1
43	St. John's High School, Panch Howds, Poona	3	1	...	...
44	P. E. High School, Junnar	8	6	3	1
45	St. Vincent's High School, Poona	6	4	1	1
46	Union High School, Poona	1	1	...	...
47	S. P. G. M. High School, Dapoli	3	2	...	...
48	V. J. High School, Pandharpur	6	4	3	1
49	S. S. High School, Aundh	8	7	...	...
50	Mudhoji High School, Phaltan	7	3	...	...
51	High School, Dharwar	...	...	1	1
52	S. P. G. M. High School, Nagar	5	...	...	...
53	Aryan Education Society's High School, Bombay.	...	...	1	...
54	A.-V. School, Akalkot	...	...	1	...
Ahmedabad Centre.					
55	R. C. High School, Ahmedabad	16	11	2	2
56	Nadiad High School	30	15	...	...
57	Telang High School, Godhra	11	9	...	...
58	R. S. Dalal High School, Broach	35	12	1	1
59	Sorabji J. J. High School, Surat	26	19	2	1
60	Sir C. J. N. Z. Madressa, Navsari	16	12	6	2
61	Union High School, Surat	12	4	4	2
62	New English School, Nadiad	28	14	1	1
63	Proprietary High School, Ahmedabad	18	15	...	...
64	Avabai High School, Bulsar	21	20	1	...
65	Nandod High School	13	7	...	...
66	Baroda High School	9	4	6	5
67	New English School, Ahmedabad	8	5	...	...
68	Patan High School	14	7	...	...
69	Sarvajaniik High School, Surat	11	6	...	...
70	Alfred High School, Rajkot	...	...	1	1
71	I. P. Mission High School, Ahmedabad	6	3	2	1

No.	Name of School.	No. of regular students.		[No. of ex-students.]	
		Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
72	Petlad High School ...	4	4	1	1
73	Sir Ajitsinhji High School, Dhragandhra ...	1	1	...	...
74	I. P. Mission High School, Surat ...	2	2	...	...
75	Wankaner High School ...	5	1	...	...
76	Edward Memorial High School, Kaira ...	6	2	...	...
77	Umreth Jubilee Institution ...	3	3	...	...
78	Alfred High School, Bhuj ...	1	...	...	...
79	Talukdari Girassia School, Wadhwan ...	4	1	...	...
80	Coronation High School, Nadiad ...	5	2	...	...
81	Bhadran High School ...	2	1	...	...
82	Cambay High School ...	1	...	1	...
83	Harris High School, Palitana ...	3	...	...	...
84	Saurashtra High School, Rajkot ...	...	...	1	1
85	Mohandevji High School, Dharampur ...	2	1	...	...
86	Union High School, Broach ...	8	2	...	...
87	Rajkumar College, Rajkot ...	1	...	...	...
88	New English School, Poona ...	1	...	...	...
<i>Dharwar Centre.</i>					
89	Dharwar High School ...	41	15	24	10
90	Sardars' High School, Belgaum ...	31	7	22	7
91	Bijapur High School ...	28	12	10	3
92	Karwar High School ...	4	1	4	1
93	Victoria High School, Dharwar ...	15	5	10	4
94	Mission High School, Dharwar ...	7	2	3	1
95	Lamington High School, Hubli ...	10	2	4	1
96	Mission High School, Belgaum ...	12	6	3	1
97	Gibb High School, Kumta ...	...	...	1	1
98	Rajaram High School, Kolhapur ...	9	6	...	...
99	Nutan Maharashtra Vidyalaya, Kolhapur ...	8	1	1	...
100	Private English High School, Kolhapur ...	23	5	7	2
101	High School, Sangli ...	15	7	1	...
102	Union High School, Poona ...	1	...	...	...
<i>Karachi Centre.</i>					
103	N. J. High School, Karachi ...	42	25	2	1
104	Hyderabad High School ...	17	8	7	4
105	Shikarpur High School ...	52	24	7	2
106	Sukkur High School ...	20	11	2	1
107	St. Patrick's High School ...	20	16	...	...
108	Church Mission S. High School ...	4	4	...	...
109	Sind Madressah ...	35	18	6	...
110	New High School, Karachi ...	6	4	1	...
111	N. H. Academy, Hyderabad ...	50	13	8	1
112	Nava Vidyalaya High School, Hyderabad ...	23	6	2	1
113	Hopeful Academy, Shikarpur ...	17	6	1	...

BOMBAY CASTLE,

24th July, 1915.

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

No. 2146.

NOTICE.

1. His Excellency the Governor has decided to offer the following prizes for the best essays on the subject mentioned below :—

Two prizes of Rs. 100 each.

Four prizes of Rs. 50 „

Four prizes of Rs. 25 „

Subject.—“The world war: what are we learning from it, and what do we hope from it?”

2. The competition is open to undergraduates who are *bonâ fide* students of the following Colleges affiliated to the University of Bombay:—Elphinstone, Deccan, Gujarat, Wilson, St. Xavier's, Fergusson, D. J. Sind, Bahauddin and Samaldas.

3. The essays must be in English, and may be either typed or written, on one side of the paper only. Neatness of work will be taken into consideration. Diagrams or sketch maps should be added if the treatment of the subject is such as to require them.

4. The length of an essay should not exceed 25 foolscap pages.

5. The names of the books, etc., consulted should be stated at the beginning of the essay. All quotations should be marked by inverted commas, and the reference should be given in a footnote.

6. Each essay must be designated by a motto, and not by the writer's name, and must be accompanied by a sealed cover bearing the same motto, and containing the name and address of the writer and a declaration that the essay is his own composition.

7. The essays must be submitted to the Principal of the College within one month from the date on which this notice is posted in the College. Not more than seven entries will be accepted from each College, and if the number submitted exceeds this, the Principal

will arrange to have them scrutinized, and those which are considered to be the best seven will be entered for the final competition.

8. As soon as possible after the receipt of the competing essays, the Principal will send them to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction, Poona.

9. The following gentlemen will act as judges :—

Sir Narayan Ganesh Chandavarkar, Kt., B.A., LL.B.

J. Crerar, Esq., M.A., I.C.S., Private Secretary to His Excellency the Governor.

J. N. Fraser, Esq., M.A., Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay.

(Sd.) J. L. RIEU.

Secy. to Govt.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Lord Carmichael on “University Education.”

His Excellency Lord Carmichael spoke as follows during his recent address at the Calcutta University Institute :—

An institution like this, in a city like Calcutta with a University system such as we have is to my mind absolutely necessary if we are to attain in any way to what I understand by University education. The essentials of University education were clearly defined not long ago by Lord Haldane's Committee in London. I do not know if many of you read their report; if you did you may remember what the members of that Committee said about the necessity for intercourse between students and teachers. They put it in the very fore front of their report that they thought it essential that the regular students of a University should be able to work in intimate and constant association with their fellow-students and also in close contact with their teachers. They quoted Newman who, writing in 1852, went so far as to say that “If he had to choose between a so-called University which dispensed with residence and tutorial superintendence and which gave its degrees to any person who passed an examination in a wide range of subjects, and a University which had no professors or examinations at all, but merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years and

then sent them away as the University of Oxford is said to have done at one time." If I were asked, he said, "which of these two methods was the better discipline of the intellect; which of the two courses was the more successful in training, moulding and enlarging the mind; which sent out men more fitted for their secular duties; which produced better public men, and men of the world, men whose names would descend to posterity, I would have no hesitation in giving preference to the University which did nothing over that which exacted of its members an acquaintance with every science under the sun."

This is, of course, only one side of the question. But it is a most important side. Your University will, in any case do something to bring together the students of the different faculties and the students and their teachers; but your University Institute will be the complement of the residential system in making that Association more intimate and more personal.

And I look forward to your Institute having an effect even more far-reaching. I hope it will bring the University itself into closer contact with other interests and other forces in Calcutta, and will widen the outlook of all its members.

What is the highest desire in your minds to-day? Is it not to be worthy of your motherland? I do not know in detail what the future of India will be, none of us know that; but I believe that her future will be great; and for my own part I believe that it will be all the greater through her association with Great Britain and the countries which make up the British Empire. If that is to be so, we must all of us learn to know and to appreciate each other; we must study the history and the wonderful literature of India, and we must study the history of England and the history of the British Empire. In this way we shall, I hope, attain to a true sympathy with each other, based on a common feeling, and the result of accurate knowledge. Our two races—British and Indian—have been brought together we trust in the providence of God for some wise purpose; but it is only by the perfect understanding of each other that we can make ourselves fit instrument to carry out that purpose.

In college days these matters appeal to us keenly, and I hope that this institution will help to develop that understanding by bringing the University, both teachers and students, into touch with other interests, and will give opportunities for co-operation in a sphere wider than the purely academic one. I hope this institution will be a

powerful force in helping us to attain a sympathy free from any idea of tolerance, free from any feeling of condescension, a sympathy which denotes unity of feeling founded on a perfect knowledge of each other, and which will lead to a wider conception of the motherland, wider than "the land of the seven rivers" wider than the India we know to-day—a motherland as wide as the British Empire itself. If we can only attain to that, most of the causes of friction between our races will be gone. There will be no question then as to the true meaning of *swaraj*. There will be but one feeling, that all must be free and equal citizens of one great Empire whose aim and object is to fit each individual to do his best for the benefit of his fellow-citizens. No doubt, we are far from that ideal, but we must always keep it before us if we are ever to attain to it, and we must prepare ourselves by our education to appreciate the goal.

Provident Fund Scheme for Teachers, by Mr. S. G. Subramaniam, Shiyali.

Mr. S. G. Subramaniam writes in the *Hindu*: The teacher, by no means, occupies an inconspicuous place in the school, though his status in society has to be considerably improved, seeing that there are members of society who will still follow the strange logic that the teacher's work is purely a labour of love and as such he can have no claims to high remuneration. This was the line of argument once pursued by one of the most respectable citizens of Madras, in a meeting held a year back, at the Pachaiyappa's College.

But times are changing and we are glad to find the dawn of a new era and the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, has just now addressed all heads of Secondary Schools on the subject of a Provident Scheme and has also furnished them for their guidance with a copy of the draft rules for the working out of the Fund in their various schools. No doubt, it augurs well for the teacher, who is at present, passing rich with 40£ a year, but who is required to be a labelled commodity holding two degrees and sometimes three, but drawing only between Rs. 2 and Rs. 3 per diem on an average taking his whole service into consideration. The Director's communication on the subject surely promises some relief to the poor Secondary School teacher who wants it badly and thereby efficiency is secured. Underfeeding a teacher and leaving him in hopeless destitution when he retires after 20 or 25 years of strenuous service are touching very nearly the morality of the

school and can only be appealing to managers who want to run their schools on mercantile lines and who deal in the education of the country as a business or trade.

From the point of view of the management, the scheme may not be so very popular and may even fall hard upon some; but the other view also has to be taken into consideration, namely, that the institution of a fund like that, is sure to remove some of the standing evils which have become patent and chronic with most of our schools. Apart from securing good efficiency and from avoiding too many changes in the staff, the teacher begins to take a permanent interest in the work and in the school to which he becomes much attached and in short, he begins to feel what he once felt to be a curse, a blessing now. Really, the Director's communication fill us with hopes; but we also feel strongly that nothing, but a mere copy of the draft rules, has been at present sent, and to that extent we are not sure if anything will be promptly done in the matter by the managers. This is one of the concerns in which managers will never take the initiative; but fortunately the Government has taken it though from the communication sent, it does not appear that managers should necessarily in the first place institute a fund in their respective schools. In an affair like this, the Government, if it once takes the initiative should see, in the best interests of education, without assuming anything, that something definite and substantial is attempted in that direction in each and every school.

We understand from the nature of the communication that the Government does not want to be explicit and definite in the matter and does not want to dictate anything to the managers towards starting it, as any pressure in that direction will effect some schools, which have been dragging on a mushroom existence. But if there are some schools struggling for existence, receiving a new lease every year from the Inspector and incapable of independent action, and if certain schools are in such a deplorable condition, the state of teachers in such schools must be still more deplorable and in their interests, we earnestly pray the Government to definitely lay down, in continuation of what it has done already, a ruling to the effect that every school should start a Provident Fund at once, which will be governed by rules which will be framed by the respective schools in accordance with their own local conditions and needs.

Some Educational Ideals, by the Hon. Mr. B. N. Sarma.

The inaugural address of the Pachaiyappa's High School Literary Union was delivered recently by the Hon'ble Mr. B. N. Sarma on "Some Educational Ideals" in the Pachaiyappa Hall, Mr. J. C. Rollo presiding.

The learned lecturer began by saying that they were passing through a crisis in matters educational at the present time. The educational policy, he thought, would have to undergo some changes at an early date. Some educational problems were considered as having gone beyond the region of discussion and their importance had been fully recognised. In former days education was not the privilege of the well-to-do people. Brilliant men were found among the poorer classes. Certain classes were considered to have special aptitude for particular work. The Brahmins formed the intellectual class and though they were poor every privilege was given to them to prosecute their studies. It was believed that it would be impossible for the State to undertake the higher education of all classes of the community. Even at the present day it was believed that it would be the duty of the people to co-operate with the Government to spread higher education in the land. The importance of Elementary Education was well recognised in Europe, as well as in India. The Government of India had no quarrel with that matter but it was the question of finance that made them hesitate. In ancient India it was recognised by the State that it was one of its duties to give education to all classes of people in the country. The Brahmins formed the brain of the community. They had the best education available in the country at that time. They were generally poor and their chief duty was to teach and to preach. The ancient thinkers and statesmen had recognised that the brain power of the Brahmins should be patronised and that they should be given all facilities to be well educated so that they might become good teachers. The health and comfort of the children of the Brahmins were carefully looked after as they were considered the future ecclesiastics and teachers in the land. The ancient students were not allowed to marry before they were proficient in some branch of knowledge. The brain power of the Brahmins was utilised for the benefit of the society. "Agraharams" were given to the Pandits and provision was made for the education of their children. University chairs should be founded by which the educated intellect of the land might be provided for. People

should do this. The policy of the University at the present time did not seem to be well-directed because it required a minimum of knowledge in some subjects before the students could be allowed to specialise in any particular subject. It was the duty of the State and also of the people to get the high class knowledge contained in foreign literature translated into the Vernacular languages, so that all might be profited. Time had come when that important question had to be taken up by the people themselves and settled finally. The ideal of education in this country was bound up with the State policy relating to educational matters. The lecturer said he was one of those that believed that the salvation of India depended upon the spread of English education in the land. He also thought that the educational policy of the Government need not be the ideal of the University. Spread of education in the country ought to be the sole aim of the University education.

Mrs. Sarojani Devi on Female Education.

Mrs. Sarojani Devi in replying to the address of the people of Guntur in the A.E.L.M. College Hall, on the 6th instant, said:—I can hardly tell you how deeply honoured I am to-day by the heartfelt and truly fraternal welcome you have accorded to me. I have learnt to feel that this generous and spontaneous welcome that awaits me wherever I go is not at all a personal tribute but stands as a symbol of what the womanhood of India represents when the men of India give them the same chances as I have had. Go to Bengal and there you see the women with their great spiritual ideals, are like water lilies in their ponds. Go to Bombay or to any other part of India, do you think there is a single house where it does not survive in the richest vitality, all those living ideals that make the names of the women of our country and literature so immortal. There is not a single home in the length and breadth of India, no matter rich or poor, that womanhood is not as great to-day as in the days of Sita and Savitri, greater perhaps in potential powers because we have gathered a great deal of world experience of high civilization and growing responsibility. The whole world spirit is richer by so many centuries of experience. It is your duty which you have not recognised to fulfil the task of giving the women those very opportunities which you yourselves had, which are necessary for their equipment, to fully realise all these hidden virtues that lie within their souls. The power of Rome has been quenched. That is because

the underlying conditions animating their ideals and their civilisation were not of the spirit but of the intellect. The glory of the Greeks and the grandeur of Rome could not be re-vitalised after centuries because they were not spiritual. All their greatness died and became merely historic memories, things that we try to reconstruct from a broken stove in a foreign museum.

But believe me when I say that those who kept alive that fire are not the men who go to earn money, the men who become a little blurred, as it were, in the clearness of vision for mere existence but rather it is their spiritual entity that they kept at home, that spiritual comradeship that stands at home and tends the family fire. And so it is to them that you must give the opportunity of so equipping themselves and make themselves capable of realising their higher ideas and then it will certainly be never said that our women are backward. They are backward because they have not the lamps to light, not a flame to kindle because you will not give them what is called the daily oil—the opportunity that brings that flame to the lamp. There are many little books with beautiful titles. But I do not know of any that is more symbolic than the Seven Lamps of Architecture of Ruskin. But we have seven hundred thousands of lamps in the architecture unlighted because you have refused to give them the things that kindle the flame. If the Seven Lamps of Architecture illumine the whole civilization of the West, friends, think of the dazzling illumination that shall light the whole world with a conflagration and radiance that cannot be quenched when the 700,000 lamps in our national structures are lit for the glory of humanity. I am only a little lamp of clay. But there are thousands of lamps of gold hidden away for want of opportunity. Instead of thanking you for this I should reproach you for being content with lamps of clay when there are lamps of gold. Let me beseech you not to be content with such small ideals as are represented by any successes that I may have achieved. India will not be great with her ancient greatness. It is only in your hands to give the illumination and it is only by that illumination that we can wake up our sleeping Mother.

Education in Baroda.

Remarkable results have been achieved in Baroda in the field of education, and the report for the year ending 1st July recording this development has just been received. The statistics collected by Mr. A. M. Masani, Minister of Edu-

cation, tell a tale of very satisfactory progress during the year under report. The total number of institutions increased from 3,045 to 3,088 and the number of pupils from 207,913 to 229,903, and every stage of education shares this gratifying increase. The College had a strength of 550, against 410 in the previous year, and the strength in the four High Schools, including one Girls' School rose by more than 150. There was satisfactory rise in the strength of Anglo-Vernacular Schools owing to the increased demand for English education of absorbing interest. On the 31st July 1914, there were 2,966 Government, 3 Funded, 19 Aided, and 22 Un-aided Primary Schools, 15 Special Institutions, 4 Sanskrit Schools and 1 Orphanage, making a total of 3,030 Institutions in comparison with 2,991 of the preceding year, showing a net increase of 39. The total number of pupils enrolled in the abovementioned 3,030 schools was 2,21,274 against 1,99,594, learning in 2,991 schools the last year. The figures tell a tale of steady and substantial progress. The satisfactory increase of about 21,680 pupils in these schools is due to various causes, the principal of them being the systematic enforcement of the Compulsory Education Act and the raising of the compulsory age and standard. The total number of villages in the State is 3,095, of which 2,171 now possess primary schools and it is possible to start schools in 124 more villages. The year under report saw the raising of the statutory standard limit for compulsory education to the fifth standard, the age limit being raised to 14 for boys and to 12 for girls. A very satisfactory feature is the rise in the number of children in the higher classes. The insistent demand for English education in primary schools is found to be difficult to discourage in Baroda as elsewhere. Other important changes were effected in the department of primary education. As His Highness found that the present system of collecting of fines imposed under the Compulsory Education Act did not work well, he has now entrusted Local Boards with powers of enforcing the compulsory measure. It has now been laid down further that 5 per cent. of the fines recovered within the same month of their imposition, should be given to Patel Talatis as their reward as an incentive to prompt collection. Five more inspecting officers were appointed to cope with the growing work of inspection and examination, and 60 per cent. of the fines are now being set apart for the erection of village school buildings and 35 per cent. for providing relief to very poor and necessitous parents who have to send their wage-

earning children to schools. In Baroda, the percentage of boys taught in schools to total males of school-going age, is 85.3, the figure for Bombay being 40.0 per cent.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

M. B. & B. S. Degree Examination.

The following candidates who underwent a Special Examination on board the Hospital Ship "Madras", have passed the Final M. B. & B. S. Degree Examination of 1915.

FIRST CLASS.—Muttukumaru, Kadirvelu, Sundararajao, Huggaballi.

SECOND CLASS.—Paul, Gilbert.

The following candidates who underwent a Special Examination on board the Hospital Ship "Madras", who appeared for the Final M. B. & B. S. Degree Examination have qualified for the L. M. & S. Degree under Regulation 256:—

Satakopan, Tindivanam; Kannan Nambiyar, Kiyatle.

The following candidates who underwent a Special Examination on board the Hospital Ship "Madras", have passed the Final L. M. & S. Degree Examination of 1915.

Narayanan, R.; Loganathan, Arcot D.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

University Lecturers.

A meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held recently at the Senate House, College Square. There was a large attendance. The Vice-Chancellor presided. A number of more or less formal matters were disposed of and the discussion on the six items relating to the finances of the University lasted over three hours.

On the recommendation of the Syndicate to the Senate it was resolved that the undermentioned gentlemen be re-appointed University Lecturers, for a term of two years with effect from the session 1915-16, in the subjects stated against their names:—Mahamahopadhyaya Gurucharan Tarkadarsantirtha—Sanskrit; Mahamahopadhyaya Kaliprasanna Bhattacharyya, M.A.—Sanskrit; Mahamahopadhyaya Lakshman Sastri—Sanskrit; Pandit Babuballabh Sastri—Sanskrit; Pandit Bhagabatkumar Sastri, M.A.—Sanskrit; Dr. E. R. Watson, M.A., D.Sc. and Rai B. N. Das, Bahadur, M.A., D.Sc. Dacca—Chemistry; and Babu Hemchandra Dasgupta, M.A.—Geology.

The Hindu University.

The Syndicate next considered the report of the Committee appointed by the Senate on June 19th, 1915, to consider the Bill to establish and incorporate a teaching and residential Hindu University at Benares.

After a short discussion the report was adopted.

The Finances of the University.

On the motion of Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee it was decided to take the items connected with the finances of the University first.

The Registrar placed before the Senate the proceedings of the Board of Accounts, dated March 27th and April 14th, 1915, and the reports of the Accounts Sub-Committee, dated May 5th and June 29th, 1915, together with the resolutions of the Syndicate thereon.

Babu Satish Chandra Ray then moved: "That the Senate approve the recommendation of the Board of Accounts, first made on the 10th September, 1914, repeated on March 27th, 1915, and re-affirmed on April 14th, 1915, to the effect, that the Budget for any financial year (July to June) be framed three months before the commencement of the year and submitted to the Syndicate and as passed or modified by the Syndicate be placed before the Senate for final orders, but not later than July 15th."

In the course of a long discussion it was pointed out that it had been reported that the financial position of the University was deplorable and that it was on the brink of bankruptcy. The fact that for the last 50 years the budget had never come up before the Senate should not be taken into consideration. It was very desirable that the Senate should have control of the University finances.

Ultimately the motion was carried and it was then agreed that the Budget for 1915-16 be taken into consideration on August 14th next.

The next motion which followed in consequence of the Budget being finally approved by the Senate was the following: "That the Board of Accounts be directed to draft detailed rules for the preparation of the Budget, its submission to the Syndicate and Senate and its discussion by the Senate."

Babu Satish Chandra Ray in moving it said that these rules could scarcely be prepared in time to regulate their discussions on the present Budget. The rules would have to be settled finally by the Senate.

The motion was carried.

It was then decided to postpone till January 14th, the consideration of the motion that the proposed expenditure of Rs. 48,000 on extension of University buildings be not incurred during the financial year 1915-16 and that the sum of Rs. 20,000 be set apart for the purpose of equipping the college of science sufficiently to render it possible to commence work in August 1915.

Mr. E. E. Biss moved the following resolution:—"That for 1914-15 and annually for succeeding years there should be printed and published details of the University disbursements to individuals in fees for examination and other work and that there should be published under a separate heading details of allowances paid by the University for travelling expenses." After a long discussion the motion was negatived, the voting being 16 for and 27 against it.

Hindu University Bill.

At a meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University held on the 10th instant, the report of the Committee on the Hindu University Bill was considered. The Committee recommended eight modifications. In clause 3, their recommendation is made with a view to include specifically the promotion of the study of oriental learning, among the objects of the Hindu University. In clause 6, sub-clause 2, referring to the power of the Visitor to annul the proceedings of the University Committee, the Committee thought that provision should be made that before annulling any proceedings the Visitor should call upon the University to offer such explanation as it might think proper. They thought it desirable that in clause 19 vague and indefinite words should be left out with a view to remove unnecessary doubts and difficulties which vagueness in law might lead to.

They also recommended to add "Agriculture" after "Law" in clause 22, so that the Hindu University might include the Faculty of Agriculture at once, without waiting until the Visitor was satisfied that sufficient funds were available. They add:—"We make this suggestion in the first place because the work of the Faculty of Agriculture will not require any large outlay such as technology does, plenty of land at a trifling cost being available near the site selected for the University, and the recurring expenditure not being likely to be large, and in the second place because India being pre-eminently an agricultural country with plenty of cultivable waste land still available, and agricultural pursuits not

requiring the investment of large capital, the training of Indian youths in agriculture and their taking to agricultural pursuits will furnish a real solution of the bread problem, and will relieve the public service and the learned professions of their present unhealthy congestion. On the motion of Sir Gurudas Banerjee, the Report was adopted.

Affiliation of Colleges.

A meeting of the Senate was held recently in the Senate House, College Square. The Hon'ble Dr. Deba Prasad Sarbadhikari, Vice-Chancellor, presided and there was a fair attendance of Fellows. The meeting lasted nearly four hours.

Chittagong College.

Mahomahopadhyaya Dr. Satish Chandra Vidyabushan moved for the confirmation of the following recommendation of the Syndicate: "That in extension of the affiliation already granted to the Chittagong College, it be further affiliated in Sanskrit and Pali to the B. A. Honours standard, with effect from the commencement of the session 1915-16."

Sir Asutosh Mookerjee asked for permission of the Senate to move an amendment to the effect that the words "1916-17" be substituted for the words "1915-16."

The Senate permitted but there was a strong opposition against the amendment. It was then put to the vote and lost, 14 voting for and 17 against it. Sir Asutosh Mookerjee then moved that under Section 7, chapter 1, the matter be referred back to the Syndicate for further consideration. He said that he wanted to find out whether the question had been discussed by the Syndicate in the light of his observations. The amendment was then put to the vote and lost, 16 voting for and 17 against it. The original motion of Mahomahopadhyaya Dr. Satish Chandra Vidyabushan was then put to the vote and carried. Sir Asutosh Mookerjee entered his protest under Section 65 of the Act and said that the resolution be not forwarded to the Government of India till he had entered his protest. At the conclusion of the meeting it was resolved that all the discussions on this subject be expunged from the record.

Baptist College, Rangoon.

The next item was to consider the following recommendation of the Syndicate:—"That in extension of the affiliation already granted to the Baptist College, Rangoon, it be further affiliated in Mathematics in the B. A. Pass standard with effect from the session 1915-16."

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Sir Asutosh Mookerjee moved that the matter be referred back to the Syndicate to see if the college was in a fit condition for affiliation before they send up their recommendation to the Government of India.

The amendment was put to the vote and carried, 19 voting for and 16 against it.

Braja Mohan College, Barisal.

The Senate was then asked to confirm the following recommendation of the Syndicate:—"That in extension of the affiliation already granted to the Brajamohan College, Barisal, it be further affiliated in History to the B. A. Pass standard and in Philosophy to the B. A. Honours standard, with effect from the session 1915-16."

Sir Asutosh Mookerjee moved that this matter be referred back to the Syndicate for further enquiry. He said that they wanted to know more about the present condition of the college and its immediate future prospects before they send up their recommendation to the Government of India.

The amendment was carried.

Wesleyan College, Bankura.

It was then resolved that in extension of the affiliation already granted to the Wesleyan College, Bankura, it be further affiliated in Philosophy to the B. A. Pass standard, with effect from the commencement of the session 1915-16.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.**Honorary Degrees.**

At the next meeting of the Bombay University Senate on the 6th August, Dr. Harold Mann, Principal of the Agricultural College, will move that the Senate approve of the conferment of the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws on Mr. Dada-bhai Naoroji "on the ground that he is, in their opinion, by reason of his eminent position and attainments, a fit and proper person to receive such a degree," and Sir Narayan Chandavarkar will move the Senate's approval of a similar degree being conferred on Sir Pherozeshah Mehta "in consideration of his scholarship and his eminent public services ranging over a period of nearly 50 years, especially in respect of the measures affecting the cause of Local Self-Government, Sanitation and Education."

The School Final in Bombay.

An official report shows that the number of candidates registered for the School Final examination last year was 1,680 against 1603 in the previous year. The number actually examined was 1,633, of whom 771 passed. It appears that everywhere the standard of English attained was low, and the Government are directing steps to be taken to remedy this feature. The Government also call attention to the need for greater neatness in writing to which special importance must attach, seeing that good writing is necessary for admission to the lower grades of the public service.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.**Commercial Certificate Examination.**

The Registrar, University of Allahabad, has informed the Principals of Colleges affiliated in Commerce that the Syndicate of the University has accepted the view of the Faculty of Commerce, that greater stress should be laid on accuracy rather than on speed in Shorthand, and has, therefore, *resolved*—

(i) that the passage and business letter referred to in clauses 1 and 2 under the heading 'Shorthand' in the prospectus of the Commercial Certificate Examination be dictated at the rate of 100 words per minute instead of at the rate of 110 words per minute;

(ii) that clause 4 of that same section be made to read as follows:—

In judging of the candidate's performance, special importance will be attached to spelling, punctuation, neatness of writing in transcription, proper arrangement into paragraphs, and general business-like appearance;

(iii) that these suggested changes come into force in the 1916 examination.

School Leaving Certificate Examination, 1915.

Out of 1971 candidates who appeared at the School Leaving Certificate Examination (1915) of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, 962 candidates passed of whom 48 were placed in the First Division and 914 in the Second Division.

Reviews and Notices.

HEFFER'S PHONETIC SERIES: (W. HEFFER & SON, LTD., CAMBRIDGE). 1s. 3d. each.

The value of Phonetics in teaching the correct English pronunciation is now recognised at least in Southern India. The notorious anomalies of

English spelling stand in the way of the teacher who tries to give children lessons in correct pronunciation. But if the phonetic script is adopted and the children taught to use it so as to visualise their pronunciation, errors are easily detected and can be set right by the teacher. Very often the Indian teacher finds a page printed in phonetic script an eye-opener to himself. He finds out at a glance what words he has been mispronouncing. If in all our schools small hand-books printed in phonetic script are employed in the lower classes the right accent and the correct values of the various vowels and consonants will be fixed once for all in the minds of the children. After all when we have to learn a foreign language it is worth learning it well—with the proper accent and intonation. These things can be taught effectively only in the early stages. If they are neglected in the school they cannot be set right later with the result that it is painful to hear the pronunciation of some of our College students. For an effective teaching of phonetics in the lower classes Heffer's Phonetic Series is admirably fitted. The books are cheap (1s. 3d. each) and give a number of short humorous stories or well-known school poems both in the ordinary spelling and phonetic script. They are provided with a short introduction which explains the values of the symbols employed by means of key-words. The symbols used are those of the International Phonetic Association. In the body of the text accents are marked and there are foot-notes which indicate variations from the standard pronunciation. The series is very useful and we recommend it to the teachers of Phonetics in Secondary Schools.

STUDIES INTRODUCTORY TO A THEORY OF EDUCATION: E. T. CAMPAÑAC. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS.) 3s. 6d. net.

Books on theories of education are generally either trite and commonplace or pedantic and abstruse. This book belongs to the latter class. The author is so fond of going to the first principles that the reader is vexed to find that the reading of the book involves a mental strain and that the reward is not worth the trouble. We have failed to detect here anything strikingly original on such well-worn themes as the Province of Education and the Business of the Teacher.

GEOGRAPHY OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY, IN TAMIL AND TELUGU. (MACMILLAN & Co.) Price 5 As.

We are now suffering from a plethora of good small books on Geography written in English for school-children; but we rarely come across a good book written in the vernaculars on the subject. It is therefore with great pleasure that we welcome this small book, which, though only professing to be a revised edition of Mr. Marsden's old book, is entirely new in its plan and arrangement. We see evidently the hand of an expert in this revision and we shall not be surprised if we learn that the Educational Adviser of the Firm had a great deal to do with this edition. We note that the book has several commendable features, the most prominent among them being the fact that the notions of Elementary Physiography are not separated into a distinct compartment, but are given out with reference to the geographical phenomena of the Presidency. Another special feature of the book is that the various districts are described in detail after a full treatment of the Presidency as a whole. The description of the geographical features throughout is based on the natural or regional divisions.

The book has a number of excellent up-to-date maps; but we should like to see it printed on better paper and equipped with a few better illustrations. It will then take its place with such books as the 'Madras Presidency' by Thurston, published by the Cambridge University Press. If only the exhortations by way of suggestions in teaching, which are given in the preface, are closely followed, we have no doubt that Geography instruction will become a factor of great mental discipline to the children.

THE PUPILS' CLASS-BOOK OF ENGLISH HISTORY, BY E. J. S. LAY. BOOK I: FROM EARLY TIMES TO 1485; BOOK II: THE TUDORS; BOOK III: THE STUARTS. (MACMILLAN & Co.) Price 6d. each.

A series of three simple text-books written in plain and simple language, in such a way that the story can be easily grasped by school-children, is now brought out in the abovementioned books. In one part the events are treated in the chronological order, and in the second a continuous narrative is presented of Church events, social events, State events, etc.; and at the end is included a brief description of the lives of the most famous people. As the preface aptly says, the pupils are led to appreciate the gradual development and growth of the nation; and at the

same time the events being written round the chief men, the human interest is sustained. The influence of the geographical features of the country on historical aspects has also been carefully brought out from time to time; while every chapter has a useful appendix of short exercises and things to do, which are suitable for both oral and written answers. Such composition exercises, date charts, lists of writers, poets and their works, and numerous instructive poetical extracts are certain to induce the boys to think and to do more for themselves. The book is of suggestive and illustrating power and increases the value of the series.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE, BY SIR CHARLES LUCAS. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 2s. net.

Sir Charles Lucas, in bringing out this short and handy book, has done a great service to the Empire and all its citizens, in affording them clear instruction on what Empire means, how the British Empire combines in an eminent degree local independence with Imperial solidarity and explains the motives and causes which brought the Empire into existence. Enterprise and the commercial desire for gain, desire for political and religious liberty and missionary influence, the yearning after a new home and the necessity for national expansion—these were among some of the factors that have raised this huge structure of our world-wide Empire. He lays stress on the idea that the Empire has not been made so much as it has grown, and that while it is futile to pretend that expansion has always been actuated by disinterested motives, it is equally futile to portray it as the result of greed. That the non-British peoples in the Empire have benefited by English control, cannot be cited as a justification for English dominion over them, because all material benefits would flow in a greater or less degree from the establishment of any strong Government which maintains law and order. Administration on European lines is not any very special merit of the British Empire. It is rather the British policy which gives full play to the customs and traditions of the peoples, which tends to encourage what is called nationalism that has bred at once the content of the masses and the discontent of their leaders. The latter discontent abhors change of overlordship, and only clamours for increase in privileges.

Sir Charles also estimates the English working man's gains from the Dominions and Tropical Dependencies and concludes with stressing upon England still remaining four-square and the corner-stone of the Empire.

MYSORE ECONOMIC JOURNAL

We have before us a few issues of the "Artha-sādhaka Patrike" (the Economic Journal) published in Kannada under the auspices of the Mysore Economic Association. As the Journal is mainly intended for the use of Potails, Shanbhogues and others belonging to the agricultural class, the various contributions are written in popular language, at the same time, idiom and purity of diction not being sacrificed. The articles are of varied interest and on subjects of vital importance, such as Education, Industries, Agriculture, Commerce, Co-operation, &c.

Education.—Among the articles on Education we may mention "Compulsory Education in Mysore," "Advantages of Schools to Villagers," by Mr. C. Krishna Row, B.A., "School of Arts for Women" and "Free Public Libraries," by Mr. C. Nagappa, B.A.

Industries.—In his article on "The Manufacture of Cement," Mr. Marker says that cement is much cheaper than wood in building houses and that it can be manufactured at a considerably low cost in Mysore. The author of the article on "The Match Factory in Mysore" thinks that a match factory would thrive very well in the Shimoga District inasmuch as the forests of that district contain trees which are very well-suited for the making of matches. There are other articles of interest on industries, such as "Silk Manufacture," "Industrial Possibilities in Mysore," "Manufacture of Paper," by Mr. R. Raghunatha Row, B.A. and "Soap Manufacture in Calcutta," by Mr. C. Ranganatha Rao Sahib, B.A., B.L.

Agriculture.—In "the Society for the cultivation of Potatoes," Mr. A. K. Yejnaranayana Aiyar, M.A., says that the ignorance of the cultivators of potatoes in Mysore is deplorable and suggests the establishment of a society for guarding the interests of such cultivators. Mr. Dash-mukh Ramachandra Row in his article on "the cultivation of lime trees" gives us the benefit of his 35 years' experience in their cultivation. The following articles also will be read with interest:—

"The importance of cultivation of bamboos," by Mr. M. G. Venkata Row, B.A.

"Ploughmen," by Mr. R. M. Tata, M.A.

"Gardening," by Mr. M. Subbaiyya, B.A.

Co-operation.—Mr. K. Subba Row in his article on "Co-operative Societies" gives a short account of "Cattle Insurance" in Europe and impresses upon villagers the necessity of forming societies for marriage insurance, &c. Mr. R. Ranga Row has contributed an interesting

article on "Agricultural Co-operation in Europe."

Commerce.—In his article on "Agriculture and Commerce," the author invites the attention of agriculturists and merchants to the necessity of mutual co-operation.

Civics.—The two articles: "The Improvement of Local Fund Unions and Villages," by Mr. D. Sitaramaiyya, B.A., and "The Methods of Improvement of Villages" deserve to be read, especially by people living in villages and Unions. Mr. D. B. Ramachandra Mudaliar has contributed a short article on "Mysore and Town-planning," in which he has summarised the lectures delivered by Prof. Geddes in Bangalore.

The number for March contains two very interesting and able contributions, one on "the Rise of Prices," by Y. K. Ramachandra Row, B.A., L.C.E. and the other on "Water-falls in the Mysore Province," by Mr. V. S. Sambasiva Aiyar, B.Sc., L.C.E.

The Journal is, in our opinion, very ably conducted and reflects great credit on the editorial management.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS

REPORTS ON THE WORKING OF COLLEGES DURING 1914-15.

The Presidency College, Madras.—The Acting Director has perused with pleasure Mr. Allen's exhaustive and interesting report. There were several important changes in the staff the notable among them being the retirement of Rao Bahadur M. R. Rv. M. Rameschariyar Avargal, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology, after a long and meritorious service in the department, the retransfer to the Geological Department of Dr. Murray Stuart and the transfer of Mr. E. W. Green towards the close of year to the Inspectorate. The Acting Director takes this opportunity of placing on record the great loss sustained by the unexpected and untimely death in February last of Mr. J. H. Mackintosh, Additional Professor of English, who, within a short period of four years, during almost the whole of which he was connected with the college, had endeared himself to the students as well as to his colleagues by his sterling worth and genial personality. Proposals regarding the strengthening of the staff in view to the affiliation of the college in Group VI and Branch VI of the B.A. Honours Courses are under the consideration of Government. The slight decrease in strength is attributed to the absence of M.A. students. The results of the University Examinations held in 1914 were satisfactory except in the B.A. (Honours) Preliminary English Examination. The Principal, the Professors and their Assistants are to be congratulated on the continued efficiency of the college during the year.

Law College, Madras.—There was an increase in the strength of the B.L. class and a corresponding decrease in that of the F.L. class with the result that the total strength of these classes was about the same as that of the previous year. The strength of the Pleaders' class also declined. The results of the B.L. and F.L. examinations held in April 1914 compared favourably with those of the previous year, but there was a drop in the percentage of passes in the Pleaders' examination. The Principal's explanation for the unsatisfactory results of the last examination is, however, noted. The chief features of the year were the opening of a First-Aid class in the college under the auspices of the St. John's Ambulance Association, the amendment of rule 10 of the Legal Practitioners' Act so as to allow failed B.L. candidates who have passed the F.L. examination to appear for the Pleaders' examination without undergoing the Pleaders' course and the amendment by the University of the regulation regarding the B.L. and F.L. term certificates which prescribed a minimum attendance of three-fourths of the lectures in individual subjects. Under the amended rule a student who has attended the college for three-fourths of the working days of an academical year is eligible to appear for the above examinations. The resolutions of the College Council passed in connection with the scheme of re-organization of the college and the Principal's comments thereon are under the Director's consideration. The whole matter will be laid before Government shortly. The Principal and the Professors are to be congratulated on the efficient working of the college during the year.

Teachers' College, Saidapet.—The report which was due in this office by the 15th April was received here only on the 4th instant. There was an increase in the strength of both the training and model school sections. The results of the L. T. Degree examination and of the Preliminary examination for Teachers' Certificates held in 1914 were good. A new feature was the opening on the 1st February last of a manual training class with ten students under the charge of Mr. C. R. Porrett. In their order No. 198, Educational, dated 23rd February 1915, Government approved the proposal to construct departmentally at a cost of about Rs. 5,000 a manual training workshop in connection with the institution. It has not, however, been possible to commence the work as yet for want of revised plans and estimates about which the Superintending Engineer, V Circle, has been addressed. The thanks of the Acting Director are due to the Acting Principal and the members of the staff for the zealous performance of their duties during the year.

Government College, Rajahmundry.—There was a further increase in strength which was contributed by the second, third and fourth year classes. The first year class did not participate in the increase. The results of the Intermediate Examination held in April 1914 were far from satisfactory. The Acting

Director is glad to note that the general condition of the college continued to be satisfactory.

Government College, Kumbakonam.—Notwithstanding a further increase in the strength of the college, which was shared by all the classes, the B.A. classes were still weak. The great disparity between the numbers of students attending the Senior Intermediate and the Junior B.A. classes is attributed by the Principal to the fact that the best students of the former class are either attracted to the B.A. classes in the colleges in Madras or receive scholarships or similar inducements to enter other model colleges. It is hoped that the introduction of Physics as a subject for the B.A. Pass course at the beginning of the next term will improve the strength of the B.A. classes. The bulk of the students were natives of the Tanjore district, and of the other districts represented in the college, South Arcot contributed the largest number. The results of the University examinations except in the Logic and Mathematics divisions of the B.A. Pass course were rather disappointing. Government have in their Order No. 488, Educational, dated 5th May 1915 sanctioned the employment with effect from 1st July 1915 of an additional lecturer in Physics on a salary of Rs. 200 per mensem outside the cadre of the Provincial Educational Service and of a laboratory peon and a gas master on Rs. 9 and 12 per mensem, respectively, with a view to the introduction of Physics in connection with the B.A. Pass course. The general condition of the institution was well maintained under the careful supervision of the Principal and the staff of lecturers and their assistants.

Engineering College, Madras.—Tentative arrangements for the appointment of a Professor of Electrical Engineering and an Assistant are under consideration pending the sanction of the Secretary of State to the creation of a permanent professorship of Electrical Engineering. The Acting Director has perused with satisfaction the Principal's exhaustive report on the working of the college during the past year. The college had a further accession to its strength, all the classes except the Engineering class having contributed to the increase. The average attendance of the students continued to be satisfactory. Among the salient features of the year may be mentioned the equipment of the Electrical Engineering Laboratory, the opening of a hostel in connection with the college in a rented building under the supervision of one of the members of the college staff whose salary as Deputy Warden is paid from Provincial funds, and the organization for the benefit of the students of a course of lectures on First Aid to the injured under the auspices of the St. John's Ambulance Association. Administrative approval has recently been accorded to an estimate for extensions and improvements to the college workshop including the construction of a temporary structure. It is hoped that the work will be completed before the re-opening of the college after the present summer vacation. The satisfactory working of the college during the year

was creditable to the Principal and the staff of Professors and their assistants.

Govt. Grants.—Subject to the conditions laid down in the Grant-in-Aid Code, the Government sanction a grant not exceeding Rs. 7,585 towards the cost of the building purchased for the Canadian Baptist Mission High school, Vizagapatam. The grant will be paid only when funds become available.

The maximum amount of the grant sanctioned in G. O. No. 48, Educational, dated the 12th January 1914, towards the cost of construction of additional building on which United Free Church Mission Board and P. J. J. School, Royapuram, Madras, will be raised from Rs. 27,275 to Rs. 29,925.

The Government, while approving the proposals for the establishment of a college in the Ceded districts, called for the views of the local bodies in those districts on the question whether the college should be placed at Bellary or at Anantapur. The opinions of these bodies have been received, a majority of them being in favour of Anantapur. The Government have also considered the claims put forward in support of other places and have now decided finally to place the college at Anantapur. The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to take steps to start it with effect from July 1916.

An inaugural meeting.—The inaugural meeting of the Debating and Literary Association of the C. M. S. College, Kottayam, was held in the School Hall on Friday, the 16th instant, under the presidency of the Rev. J. J. B. Palmer, M.A.

A fairly long programme was gone through. After music, prayer and welcome speech and other such minor items were over, the President of the day, made an introductory speech which was highly interesting. Then, Mr. P. S. Sankara Nambiar, B.A., delivered his lecture on "Pleasures in Literature." The lecture, no doubt, was a thrilling and brilliant production of his wonderful originality, profound knowledge and wide reading.

After a short speech from the chair, and the singing of the National Anthem, the proceedings of the inaugural meeting was brought to a successful close.

A new School Building.—A very pretty and impressive service in connection with the opening and dedication of the buildings to relieve the congestion of the main building of the St. John's Vestry European High School, Trichinopoly, was performed on the 6th instant. The clergy consisting of the Rev. F. W. Heycock, M.A., Chaplain, the Rev. Allen F. Gardiner, M.A., and the Rev. W. Lonsdale, M.A., with the choir of St. John's in their robes marched to the new buildings which was crowded with a large number of friends and sympathisers. Among others were:—Messrs. Shubrick and Caye Browne

(Trustees) Mrs. and Mr. Logan, Mrs. Newton, Mrs. Heycock, Deaconess Creighton, and Deaconess Tuke and the Rev. Mr. Schofield. The service which included an ancient and venerable prayer of the Rev. Mr. Schwartz was very heartily rendered. The Rev. Mr. Heycock took the first portion of the service and was followed by the Rev. Mr. Lonsdale. The Rev. Allen F. Gardiner, M.A., formally opened the building and dedicated it with prayer. From a brief statement read by Mr. Pothan, Headmaster, we learn that the school is over 150 years old and during the past few years has made rapid progress as testified by Inspecting Officers of the Educational Department. The strength of the school up by 140 and boards. The strength in 1900 when the Headmaster took charge was only 65, and now is over 140. The dormitories have been enlarged and iron bedsteads and mattresses have been provided for the boarders. There are now 26 orphans and 16 boarders, and there are a number of children waiting admission as boarders. The school is indeed making excellent progress and all connected with the institution deserve to be most heartily congratulated on the progress.

Opening of the new wing to the Bree's School, Ootacamund.—This function was performed on the 15th instant by His Excellency the Governor in the presence of a large gathering, Sir Harold and Lady Stuart, the Hon'ble Mr. and Mrs. Cardew, Major-General A. and Mrs. Phayre, Surgeon-General and the Misses Bannerman, and many members of the local society. After the inspection of the new wing the Principal read the report which showed continued progress and efficiency of the school. His Excellency after a long speech, formally declared the new buildings open. Mr. Robert Stanes in a few concluding remarks thanked Their Excellencies for their presence and the great interest they always took in this school. With the singing of the National Anthem the function closed.

Trichinopoly Teachers' Conference of April 1915 and the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate Scheme.—At the Educational Conference held on the 24th April, 1915 in Trichinopoly, under the auspices of the Trichinopoly Teachers' Association, a paper on the "School Final Scheme in Secondary Schools" was read by Mr. M. M. Balakrishna Aiyar of the Board High School, Kulitalai, and in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, it was generally agreed that the School Final Scheme, as worked at present, was not quite satisfactory for the following reasons:—1. The subjects of the B Group were neglected. 2. Sufficient importance was not attached to the study of Vernaculars. 3. The grouping of subjects required a re-arrangement. 4. Specialisation began too early. 5. Marking took up much of the teachers' time, which was, after all, neither uniform nor quite reliable. 6. The season at which the examination was held, was unsuitable for intellectual work, the weather being very hot at that part of the year.

The Conference, therefore, felt that some recommendations should be sent to the Government as well as to the S. S. L. C. Board, and passed the following resolution:—

Resolved that the following gentlemen do form themselves into a committee to consider the working of the S. S. L. C. Scheme and submit proposals to Government and the Department re the rearrangement of subjects in the three groups, the adequate representation of experienced Headmasters and Assistant Masters in the controlling and examining boards, the relaxations of the rules of admissions to Colleges for average students by alternative percentages and total number of marks, the desirability of maintaining the supplementary course as it is and the change of the dates of examination:—Messrs. S. K. Devasikhamani, B.A., L.T., (Convener), G. Seshu Aiyangar, M. C. Rajagopala Naidu, B.A., L.T., G. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., T. V. Swaminatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., S. S. Vyasa-Rao, B.A., L.T., M. M. Balakrishniar.

The Sub-Committee met in the afternoon of the following day in the National High School, Trichinopoly, with Mr. S. K. Devasikhamani in the chair, and resolved unanimously on the following recommendations:—

I. (a) That, in the IV and V Forms, the following five subjects be taught according to the outlines of a syllabus drawn up by the S. S. L. C. Board to be worked in detail by the Headmasters of High Schools to suit local conditions and requirements:—1. English. 2. A Second Language—Vernacular or Classical. 3. Elementary Mathematics. 4. History (England and India) and Geography. 5. Elementary Science.

(b) That, in the VI Form, subjects 3, 4 and 5 be dropped and in their place any one of the following groups of optional subjects be studied along with English and a Second Language:—

1. (a) Algebra and Geometry. (b) Physics and Chemistry.
2. (a) Botany. (b) Physics and Chemistry.
3. (a) History of England. (b) History of India.
4. Any two of the following groups of Commercial subjects, i.e., a & b or a & c, and so on. (a) Book-keeping and Commercial Arithmetic. (b) Commercial Practice and Geography. (c) Type-writing and Shorthand. (d) Indexing and Precising.

N.B.—1. The above arrangement of optional groups is intended to suit the grouping of subjects in the Intermediate and it is expected that there should be a considerable reduction in the extent and intensity of the present syllabus so that students in the Intermediate course may begin where they had stopped in the Sixth Form.

2. It also provides for a student who wants to enter life after the school course is over.

3. It also allows specialisation to begin in the VI Form which may in a way be regarded as a preparatory class for the Junior Intermediate.

4. It of course implies that satisfactory progress in subjects 3, 4 and 5 in the IV and V Forms is insisted on before granting promotions to boys.

II. That a public examination be held only in the following subjects once a year at the end of the VI Form course:—1. English. 2. Second Language (Text, Translation and Composition). 3. Subjects in any one of the Groups mentioned in I (b).

III. (a) That the strength of the S. S. L. C. Board be increased to twelve and (b) that not less than a third of the strength of the Board be chosen from among experienced Headmasters of the High Schools in the Presidency. (c) That the selection of Assistant Examiners be confined only to those that are actually engaged in teaching High School classes.

IV. That the Public Examination be held, not in March as at present, which is most unsuitable by reason of its heat, but in the month of November beginning on the last Monday of that month.

Madanapalle High School.—The prize-giving and sports in connection with the opening of the Madanapalle Theosophical College and the 27th anniversary of the Madanapalle High School were held on the 19th instant in the Annie Besant College Hall. Mrs. Besant presided.

Mr. Giri Row, read the report on the work and progress of the school since the celebration of the last anniversary and on the rapid rise of the buildings for the College department out of public donations. Prizes were then distributed.

Mrs. Besant delivered a lecture on Education. She congratulated Madanapalle on having secured a College which was a definite resort for those who for many years under heavy discouragement due to lack of means but with great self-sacrifice made it possible for the school in its early days to survive. She specially congratulated Mr. Giri Row who from 1885 had devoted himself to the building up of the school that has now become a College. The boys who gathered at Madanapalle College came to a place of health where natural beauty surrounded them and where the conditions were favourable for study and exercise. In this connection she dwelt at some length on the disadvantages of Madras College life. In Madras students were exposed to temptations. It was not so at Madanapalle. She hoped that this College would grow into a first-grade College soon with Honours course and then become a University. Until this became a first-grade College, the students of this College after passing the Intermediate Examination would be well advised to join the Pachaiyappa's College which would be located in the midst of a very large tract of land, which would become a residential College with sufficient hostel accommodation and which she hoped would also grow into a University, for Pachaiyappa's College was a national institution,

The object of schools and colleges was to educate the boys. The more the boys passed the more everybody felt satisfied. In the upside down system of education in India the fewer the boys passed the more satisfied were the educational authorities.

She was in favour of teaching subjects in the vernacular of the boys. In no other country were boys taught subjects in a foreign language. Boys' knowledge of English was deteriorating owing to the method of teaching which was at the root of the difficulty. The value of English education was to bring up the boys in the sense of the value of free institutions. That feeling could be instilled into the minds of boys only if they were made to read the inspiring verses of Shelley and other eminent authors. For commerce, agriculture and industry of all kinds University men were required. University education was necessary to make the country richer, and prosperous in every direction. India required civic Universities like Birmingham and Liege.

India required national education to make the nation prosperous. People should have control over education. Education should make boys earn their livelihood by their scientific and practical knowledge which would enable them to make the motherland rich and prosperous. Some form of manual training should be given to every boy in every class. He should be trained to use his hands, eyes and brain. She asked the boys to study history and law well.

In conclusion she exhorted the boys to consecrate study and play for the service of the motherland for they were going to be the first free citizens of a free motherland.

She then announced that a large number of telegrams had been received congratulating Madanapalle on the founding of the College.

His Excellency's visit to schools in Kurnool.—

On the 23rd instant, His Excellency visited the Municipal High School, where he was received by Rao Bahadur S. V. Narasimha Row, Municipal Chairman, and Mr. Srinivasamurti, Head Master. His Excellency after being garlanded was taken round the various classes and the laboratory and the library. A special feature of this school is that out of a total strength of 587 students, 176 are Mahomedans. About 160 students of this school and the Coles' Memorial High School are fed by the rich and philanthropic residents of the town. His Excellency was informed that a number of students from Adoni and other places in the Bellary District were reading in this school, for Bellary had been often visited by plague and scarcity of water was often keenly felt there. His Excellency entered the following remarks in the visitors' book:—"This school seems to be under energetic and careful management and its increasing attendance testifies to the public appreciation of its work. I am glad to have

seen it and I trust that it may continue to receive the support which it deserves." A few children of the school sang the National Anthem when His Excellency bade the school good-bye.

From the Municipal High School His Excellency proceeded to the American Baptist Mission High School, the total strength of which at this date is 424. There are 255 Hindus, 90 Christians, 74 Mahomedans, and 5 Panchamas. This school, it is stated, was originally planned to meet the demands of the Christian communities of the Ceded Districts, but it has steadily grown in favour with the non-Christian population. At the entrance of this school His Excellency was received by Rev. B. J. Rockwood, Principal, who introduced Dr. W. A. Stanton and N. Narasayya, Headmaster, to His Excellency. In the course of inspection of the various classes including the science laboratory and the reading room, His Excellency was shown an exhibition in drawing by the drawing-master who drew a beautiful sketch on the black board with both the hands for which he had won several gold medals and His Excellency was much delighted with it. Before leaving the school the boys of all classes assembled in large numbers and sang the National Anthem with all their enthusiasm. His Excellency shook hands with the Rev. Rockwood, Dr. Stanton and Mr. Narasayya and left the school.

His Excellency on the 24th instant laid the foundation-stone for the building of the Municipal Hindu Girls' School. A beautiful pandal was put up on the spot and very fine seating and other arrangements were made. The leading Indians of the town and a few European ladies and gentlemen were present. Among those present were Mr. H. A. B. and Mrs. Bardswell, Mr. and Mrs. A. C. Langston, Rao Bahadur L. D. Venkatarama Aiyar, Rao Bahadur S. Sesha Sastriar, Mr. L. Withinslaw, Rev. W. A. Stanton, Rev. B. J. Rockwood and the Raja of Jatprode.

On His Excellency's entering the premises of the school little girls of the school sang welcome songs in Telugu which were much appreciated. When His Excellency took his seat, Rao Bahadur S. V. Narasimha Row requested His Excellency to lay the foundation-stone of the school.

Before proceeding to lay the foundation-stone His Excellency made the following speech:—

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen.—I have accepted with special readiness your invitation to inaugurate the new buildings of this school for two reasons. In the first place, I welcome the opportunity thus afforded me of emphasising once again, if further emphasis is necessary, the sympathy of the Government with the cause of female education. It is a great satisfaction to me that we have found it possible out of the funds at our disposal, and these funds believe me are by no means unlimited, to make a substantial grant towards the initial cost of these buildings. But there is another reason, why I am glad to be present on this occa-

sion. The Chairman has told us in his opening remarks the history and growth of the school since it became a Municipal institution in 1909. Even before that date, however, I believe in 1907, the school had been started by certain of your townsmen as a private venture and had already by 1908 attained the strength of 86 pupils. Thus, when in 1909, it was taken over by the Municipal Council, most valuable building had already been made. The school has on its rolls, I am informed, about 250 pupils and its success not only has afforded justification of the progressive policy adopted by the Council, but bears testimony to the enterprise and public spirit of those whose liberality founded and launched it in the first instance upon its successful course. It is for this reason more especially, that I have had particular pleasure in being present to day at this interesting ceremony.

You ask, Mr. Chairman, that Government may favourably consider a proposal, which I understand the Council intend to put forward, that no fees should be charged in the school. I recognise the zeal for the cause of female education which prompts these suggestions and I cannot now undertake that it will be possible fully to adopt it. I may assure you that it will receive very careful consideration. It only remains for me, Gentlemen, to perform the pleasant duty of laying the foundation-stone and in doing so to express my most sincere good wishes for the continued prosperity of the school.

His Excellency then proceeded to the spot and spread the mortar with a silver trowel when the stone was lowered and adjusted. His Excellency declared it well and truly laid.

CALCUTTA.

School-masters and India's future.—H. E. Lord Carmichael visited the Chittagong Sanskrit Institution, and addressing the Pundits in the course of a speech said:—"It is not given to us all to serve the Empire in this great crisis with our lives, but of those whose service cannot take an active form in the face of danger, few can render a nobler or more practical service than the teachers of the youth and boys and girls, who are receiving instruction in our schools, for it lies with them to secure that as a result of their mutual labours, the rising generation of the subjects of H.M. the King, shall grow up worthy to carry on the great traditions of the British Empire. I feel confident that you, in this institution, will spare no effort to make your share in this great work a worthy one."

The Science Association.—The session of this Institution was opened for this year with a general introductory lecture on "Electric Discharge in High Vacuum," by Dr. D. N. Mallik, D.Sc., F.R.S.E., on the 17th instant. There were present many members of the Association, a large number of students and outsiders. The learned lecturer dwelt on his subject at considerable length and demonstrated it with various experiments and

projections of many lantern slides. The experiments performed were very successful and attractive. The lecturer in conclusion appealed to the young students to take advantage of the resources of the Science Association and benefit thereby their own selves and their country as the regeneration of India could only be brought about through a study of modern science. Sir Gooroodas Banerjee in proposing a vote of thanks to the lecturer said:—"The founder Secretary of this Institution had an earnest desire not to rise himself but to raise his inert countrymen with his great intellectual power. For this he sacrificed his interests both in making his own name famous in the world and in increasing his pecuniary statue. Dr. Mahendra Lal Sircar devoted all for his country and Sir Gooroodas Banerjee said that he could only echo the lecturer in appealing to the young students to take advantage of the resources of the Science Association established for the benefit of all Indians."

The Calcutta University.—The *Madras Times* writes that the Calcutta University is in serious financial difficulties. The Accounts Board have submitted a report, in which they write: "In our opinion the financial position of the University is deplorable. As it has no funds to meet current expenditure, we suggest that the matter be represented to the Government with a pressing request that they will be so good as to make a grant to cover the anticipated deficit of Rs. 2,28,746." A large expenditure on buildings seems to have been the chief cause of the difficulties. For example Rs. 1,13,000 has been used for a Science College, Rs. 98,000 for a University Hostel, Rs. 48,000 for the extension of the University buildings, and Rs. 20,000 for the laboratory. It is surely anomalous that a University should be in such a position that "it is impossible to meet certain heavy charges, as there are no funds." It would seem that the University have been guilty of the unwisdom of the "no man" in the gospel who buildeth a tower without first sitting down and calculating the cost.

The University Institute.—His Excellency Lord Carmichael was received recently at the Institute by the President, the Hon. Mr. P. C. Lyon, and the officers and members of the Institute. A procession was formed and the Governor was conducted to a *dais*.

In the course of a report on the movement which had resulted in the need for a more suitable Institute for students, the Hon. Secretary in charge of the Government Department said that more money was needed for the better organisation of the work, and the Committee appealed to all interested in the welfare of Calcutta students to assist by their subscriptions. H.E. Lord Carmichael's presence at the function was a sure proof of how closely he had at heart the success of the movement, and it would be a fitting acknowledgment of his kindness if the friends of the students of Bengal were to rally to their aid and ensure the financial stability of the Institute.

The Hon. Mr. P. C. Lyon, in asking the Governor to lay the foundation-stone, said that it was a happy augury for the success of the new Institute that they had the services of a Master Mason, in Lord Carmichael to assist in its building. The speaker also referred to the interest evinced by the Viceroy in the welfare of the students, and to the unremitting and unostentatious work done by the late President, Mr. Cumming, and the late Secretary.

The stone was laid by H.E. Lord Carmichael, who was presented with a mallet, trowel and level.

Female education on orthodox lines.—A Conference of Bengali ladies and gentlemen was held at the Hindu Public Hall on the 19th instant to discuss the subject of Hindu Female education on orthodox lines and consistently with the "Purdah" system, as proposed by the Government of Bengal in its Resolution No. 3498 of the 10th September, 1914. The Conference was called at the instance of Mrs. Kumudini Das of the Bengal Provincial Education Service who is the Secretary of the Committee appointed by Government in the matter. Rai Sarat Chandra Das Bahadur, C. I. E., took the chair. A local sub-committee consisting of Mrs. Kumudini Das and Mrs. M. M. Banerjee and some gentlemen with Babu Grijā Bhushan Mitra, M.A., as Secretary was formed further to deliberate on the subject with a view to submit a scheme as to how the objects of the Government might best be carried out.

BOMBAY.

The Deccan Education Society.—Speaking at the distribution of the New Vernacular School conducted by the Deccan Education Society having 2,215 boys on the rolls, His Excellency the Governor, Lord Willingdon, commended the work of the Society and said:—"One fact with regard to this institution to which I should like to draw attention is that it is in every sense an entirely indigenous enterprise. It has been started and carried on sound and satisfactory lines entirely by Indian gentlemen and its

success is a fine example of what can be done under good Swadeshi management. The cause of education is of the highest importance for the young people of the country but what is surely equally important is promotion on similar lines as this institution of various enterprises which will develop its commercial, industrial and agricultural possibilities. It is no good turning out a number of trained young men unless by development of our country we are able to give them opportunities of doing good work and showing enterprise in many professions. The Government is willing as far as it is possible to assist such enterprise, but the initiative must come from the people themselves."

MYSORE.

Sanskrit Academy.—At the Sanskrit Institute in the City, H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda on the 24th inst. opened the Mysore Sanskrit Academy. The proceedings were prefaced by an address on Philosophy, by Professor E. M. Ranade of the Fergusson College, Poona, after which H. H. the Gaekwar speaking at some length wished the Academy along life of usefulness. Approaching the subject of philosophy with diffidence, he said, it was of tremendous importance and world-wide interest. It started with wonderment which gave place stage by stage to materialism, idealism, mysticism, pantheism and scepticism. But after hearing Mr. Ranade it would be foolish of him to inflict himself on their patience. Indians were believed to be a spiritual people, and it was gratifying that their young men should devote their mental energies to the study of their ancient philosophy. He hoped that the result would not be to foster vanity in them, for if a country was to progress and hold its own, it must know its past, to appreciate its present, and to contemplate its future history in a narrow morbid way, or waste time in investigating matters beyond their ken. There was a limit even to knowledge, but it was the duty alike of the princes and well-to-do gentlemen to bring knowledge to their fellow men needing it. It was beneficial from the cottage to the palace.

SLOYD vs. MANUAL TRAINING.

THIS is a contention opened by Mr. Cecil R. Porrett, Lecturer in Art and Educational Handwork, Teachers' College, Saidapet, in his contribution to the February number of the *Educational Review*. Therein he exhibits SLOYD stripped of all its virtues and covers it with the well known faults of MANUAL TRAINING, decorating the latter with the spoils of the former. As a Sloyder, I feel it my duty to make this fact clear to the readers of the *Educational Review* and thereby try to remove the false impressions that the above article might have left on their minds.

He observes that Sloyd method allows no freedom for originality and that the finished product studied is the model and not the child. I venture to state that there is no truth in this statement and that it is quite contrary to Sloyd principles. Of course, model is the means by which the child is studied—studied more when he is making it than when he has finished it. That Mr. Porrett has no other means of studying the child is clear from his own statement* which says, "the boy shows us by his own work his conception of the lesson in acts, not words."

My next objection is to his statement that Sloyd is of small educational value owing to its tendency towards trade teaching, and mere mechanical repetition of exercises. This is often true of Manual Training and not at all of Sloyd. I am at a loss to understand how he could have made such a prejudiced statement when every educationist knows full well that the one purpose of Sloyd is education, and that all the centres of Educa-

* *Educational Review*, February 1915 number, p. 71, lines 10 to 12.

tional Handwork in the world have lived, and have been living with the impulses received every now and then from the Sloyd Seminarium at Naäs,† in Sweden. It is no wonder that a system which particularly sees at every step of its progression that the basis for methods employed are in harmony with the desires of the child so as to secure his spontaneous interest for the work, a work that is intended to make him an all round man and a noble citizen—has so great a recognition. A visit to any one of the Sloyd centres in Mysore or the one at Trichur will sufficiently prove the truth of the above statement.

He also adds that Manual Training or Educational Handwork is a method of training the mind and building up good habits in the child and that it is a subject to be taught by a teacher who has a good knowledge of Psychology. These are quite in accordance with the principles of Sloyd and form a part of those high ideals that emanate from the Seminarium at Naäs, the centre of Sloyd organisation. Though so very grand in theory, the practical side of his system, judged from the brief sketch of the course found in the body of the article, presents but poor education. I shall, however, reserve my further remarks on the system until I shall have seen the complete course of it which he has promised to contribute soon.

† It is certain that until the death of Herr Otto Solomon in 1907 batches of teachers from Europe—particularly from England—attended the Sloyd courses in more than one of its sessions given there every year, and introduced Handwork on these principles into their respective institutions, and were looking up to the mother centre for occasional help and guidance. There is nothing to show the change of things during these few years.

Let me now give hereunder the generally accepted view on the subject.

It is well known that the idea of giving work to children has been recognised, in theory at least, by the educational reformers of all times. For some centuries much was being done in the name of "Manual Labour" or "Manual Work" but this was mainly of an industrial character. The idea of giving work to children, however, gained predominance during the times of Pestalozzi and Froebel when Handwork was given an educational turn.

Since this change, *Manual Training* has been the general name given to all kinds of work provided in schools of general education for the harmonious development of all the faculties of children. In its broadest sense, it includes the various activities and occupations of children in the infant grades of our schools guided by the Kindergarten principles, such as Paper-folding, Paper-cutting, Clay-modelling, etc., in the secondary grades, it provides work in Paper-weaving, Parquetry, Cardboard construction, etc., and in the upper secondary and high school grades it provides mainly Bench-work, i.e., Woodwork with Drawing as its auxiliary. These various occupations give scope for a variety of accurate movements*, which movements are mostly guided and controlled by tool exercises.†

Then exercises with different kinds of tools form the working basis of the system. These

* Skilled work demands fine co-ordinations of muscular movements and so develops accurate motor sensations and motor ideas which form the fountainhead of all knowledge.

† Tools hold the very same place in Manual Training as clubs and dumb-bells do in gymnastics. These are the means by which accurate movements are combined and controlled. Just as Jiu-Jitsu dispenses with all kinds of gymnastic apparatus, Manual Training may some day be possible without the aid of tools. This establishes the educational value of the system.

exercises are graded in such easy sequence as to be in conformity with the principles of general education.

In the working of these exercises the methods of procedure are three, viz., (1) The Abstract Exercise Method, (2) The Preparatory Exercise Method, and (3) The Educational Method.

The Abstract Exercise Method insists upon the working of the fundamental exercises, individually, in order, and consists almost entirely of complex exercises known as joints. This is known as the Russian system of Manual Training.

The Preparatory Exercise Method recommends the working of the exercises first, and after practising a few of these, to apply them in the construction of some object and to repeat the process until all are learned. This is known as the English system.

These names denote the countries in which they were practised first to a great extent. These two systems are evidently against the general educational method which requires the teaching to proceed from the concrete to the abstract; for, the exercise is simply an abstraction and it is the model that embodies the concrete idea. So, these abstract and preparatory exercises cannot sustain the child's interest for the work and are in consequence detrimental to the formation of the habit of continued attention. Accuracy in thought and in work, patience and perseverance form no part of the habits of a boy who is forced to do such meaningless and tiring exercises. With these he gets fatigued very soon, and fatigue makes progress impossible. Do such systems of Manual Training deserve the name of "Educational Handwork"?

In the educational method of Manual Training, on the other hand, exercises are embodied from the very commencement in a well chosen

and carefully graded series of models, and the performance of these exercises as they occur in models give the worker the needful dexterity of hand—the channel through which the development of the various powers is effected. This is known as the Swedish system.

For shortness of expressions, the first two are denoted by the common name *Manual Training*, and the third—the Swedish system—by *Sloyd*.

So, Sloyd is defined as a system of educational Handwork so arranged and carried out as to employ and direct the vigorous, intelligent self-activity of a child for a purpose which he recognises as good. It gives the worker dexterity of hand, general intelligence, sound health and a steady character.

The system was organised by Herr Otto Solomon, the Director of the Seminarium at Naäs, in Sweden, with the help of the then well-known educational reformer, Uno Cygnaeus of Finland. For a work to be truly educational, he thought, it should satisfy the following conditions:—

1. It must accord with the child's capability.
2. It must excite and sustain the child's interest.
3. The objects made must be useful.
4. It must create respect for rough work.
5. It must give scope for the training of order and exactness.
6. It must allow of cleanliness and neatness.
7. It must cultivate the sense of form.
8. It must be beneficial from the hygienic point of view.
9. It must allow of methodical arrangement.
10. It must teach dexterity of hand.

He put about a dozen kinds of handworks to the above tests and found that WOOD suited

the purpose best. So he devoted the whole of his life for the evolution of a system of woodwork based on scientific principles of education.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF SLOYD.

1. The teacher of Sloyd must be a professional teacher and not merely an artisan.
2. The teaching must be systematic, progressive, and with the exception of certain class demonstrations, as far as possible, be individual in character.
3. Such work should be selected as will give the best physical development through free, vigorous movement.
4. The visible or material results should, in every respect, represent the worker's own effort. Generally speaking, this should mean no division of labour, and practically the exclusion of machinery as a labour-saving device.
5. The models should show a high standard of excellence in all matters of neatness, accuracy and finish, and should serve to create a love of good work for its own sake.
6. The habit of careful and independent thinking should be developed through the personal estimate of his own work which each pupil is called upon to make.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING A COURSE OF SLOYD

MODELS.

1. There must be no preparatory exercises as such.
2. Every model must be a complete object in itself, and not merely a part of something.
3. There must be a fair proportion of models containing surfaces whose outlines are free curves.*
4. Models must be objects of utility, whose uses the child may appreciate. Each object

* A free curve is one whose form, symmetry and accuracy can only be judged by the eye and the sense of touch and cannot be tested by any mechanical aid.

should be simple and of good form and proportion.

5. In the production of early models only a few tools and manipulations should be required, new ones being introduced gradually as the series progresses.

6. Every model shall be so placed in the series that the necessary qualifications for doing it well, in its order, entirely by himself, are found in the child.

7. The series should contain all the exercises chosen and should contain them in due proportions.

These fundamental principles remain the same whatever the kind of material chosen for the work; but experience points to wood, as already stated, as being the material most suitable for educational purposes.

The chief object in Sloyd is to educate the mind through the medium of hand and eye. So the production of objects and designs of beautiful form and colour is subordinated to the intelligent and accurate performance of each step in the exercise. There is consequently very little show work produced though quite sufficient in the way of construction of simple objects and designs to maintain the interests of children. These exercises have the effect of brightening and quickening the intelligence of the children as well as developing their powers of observation and training the fingers. The work will have its full educational value only when each step in the process involves the action of the mind as well as of the hand. This establishes the futility of the first two methods of Manual Training, and the utility of the third, *i.e.*, SLOYD.

I believe I have in these few columns made it clear that Sloyd has no other object but education, while Manual Training seeks for technical rather than cultural ends.

A. TIRUMALACHAR.

MANUAL TRAINING—A REJOINDER.

YOUR Indian correspondent has separated Sloyd and Manual Training as two separate subjects, whereas the Woodwork portion of Manual Training includes all the virtues of "Sloyd" which are many, but leaves the Swedish Models for models suitable to the country in which the subject is taught. His remarks appeal to me; as he is talking of "Sloyd" to one, who studied Sloyd in Europe before ever it was introduced into India, and who have seen the system at work in its native home, and not only Sloyd but other European methods of Manual Training and have come to the conclusion after some years that one "course" as such for all countries is not a reasonable idea.

For instance he says of Sloyd in No. 2 and No. 3 that the models must interest the child and be of some utility; now there are some models in the Naäs course that would not interest the Indian boy, therefore how much better it is to allow a boy to design some of the models himself, than to blindly follow a scheme in which some of the models are of little interest beyond Sweden. Otherwise there is little difference between Sloyd and Manual Training, but that we claim that our schemes allow for more self-reliance and originality than the Sloyd scheme.

Regarding the statement of English teachers going to Sweden, that is quite true, as there is each year a holiday course at Naäs in Sweden, but on the other hand there are six holiday courses in England where various nations are represented by teachers including Swedes, indeed it was my pleasure to again meet some of my Swedish friends who had come to England to study our methods.

As for looking to Naäs for guidance that statement is quite wrong. The Naäs Diploma is not recognised in England as a teacher's certificate; and the English teacher has enough self-reliance to form his own schemes which are not limited to wood only.

But I am very pleased to see that your correspondent has the true high ideas and ideals of Manual Training and I am quite sure that the work he is doing is excellent, yet I would like him to see the true English method of Manual Training which is very far removed from the Manual Training which he calls English. As for instance the Preparatory exercises which do not exist, except in isolated cases, where the teacher firmly believes they are necessary. Let me quote an example; after visiting over twenty centres in one county in England, only two worked Preparatory exercises.

One or two other remarks your correspondent made I have to put down to his enthusiasm for "Sloyd" and his lack of knowledge of the other forms of Manual Training, as for instance, his remarks on concrete and abstract methods, our leader Pestalozzi sacrificed all method when it checked the progress of the child, and so must we, if it should ever be necessary as the child is human so must our methods be human and there are times when such words as concrete and abstract must be treated with discrimination.

In conclusion let me remark that I am very pleased that Manual Training or Sloyd call it as you will, has proved its worth in Cochin and I am sure it is only a matter of time when your correspondent will talk of his Indian course instead of his Swedish course shewing thereby that the Indian has originality and self-reliance and is able to adapt European

schemes to his own country; modifying and glorifying the schemes, so that in the end the schemes stand as representatives of Indian and Indian work instead of a foreign country, far, far, away.

This was the aim of my remarks in the February number of the *Educational Review* when I mentioned Sloyd; not to belittle it (as I have a warm place for it in my heart and pleasant memories) but to point out that each and every country should have its own scheme of Manual Training as it has its own Arts and Music and so help to preserve its own originality instead of sinking it and accepting a substitute when its own resources are unlimitable.

Teach "Sloyd" by all means but do not accept the course as the one and only course, that was the aim of that great teacher Solomon and if we wish to progress in Educational Handwork it must be ours as well.

I have met cases where the Sloyd courses have been so studied for the finished products, that the boy was not thought of, and it was against that I warned your readers, but as your correspondent has shown that he has the true conception of Manual Training I am sure in his case that the finished product studied is the boy and not the model. If your correspondent is passing through Madras at any time, I should be delighted to meet him and have a talk on the subject that is dear to us both.

C. R. PORRETT.

The Educational Review.

The Government of Madras and the Madras University Syndicate have given absolutely no heed to the numerous protests against the severity of the Examiners for the Intermediate examination. This is because they have a profound belief in the immaculate efficiency of the Examiners and accept their finding that the majority of the candidates were far below the mark. This official view is propounded and attempted to be proved by Prof. Mark Hunter, who is Chairman of a Board of Examiners and a well-informed and authoritative representative of the views of the Syndicate. Prof. Mark Hunter, in the columns of the *Madras Mail*, maintains that the extraordinary failure in the Intermediate Examination is solely and entirely due to the laxity of Principals in the matter of admitting to a college course large numbers of pupils absolutely unfit for it and attempts to prove this opinion by a seemingly alarming set of figures. He takes the number of pupils in a dozen colleges in 1913 and shows that it exceeds the number of pupils in the same colleges in 1909 by several hundreds per cent. It is worth while considering why he takes the strength in 1909 as the standard. Does 1909 represent in Prof. Mark Hunter's opinion a year when the strength of colleges was normal? No, 1909 was the year of the greatest Matriculation failure on record and the pitiable figures 3, 5, 9

that he gives represent the lowest level the strength of colleges fell down to, thanks to the immaculate efficiency of the Matriculation Examiners. Is it fair on Prof. Mark Hunter's part to take these figures to represent the normal, standard strength by which is to be measured the rate of increase of pupils in colleges? We are certain the mean strength of Prof. Mark Hunter's Colleges A, B, C were 20, 30, 40 respectively.

Now as the figures furnished are useless for purposes of measuring the actual rate of increase in the strength of colleges, we shall next discuss the question whether a rise, even a great rise in the strength of colleges, *ipso facto*, proves laxity in the matter of admission and a lower average efficiency of pupils and *vice versa*. In the year 1909, rendered so prominent by Prof. Mark Hunter's choice, the Matriculation passes were deplorably low; hence according to the official point of view, the cream of the students of the Matriculation classes was alone admitted into colleges. One would think that when these extraordinarily talented pupils were presented for the next higher examination all of them would have passed. But we find that when these brilliant pupils went up for the Intermediate nearly 60 per cent. of them failed. At the Matriculation Examination of December 1910, only 18.6 per cent. of the candidates passed. This small band of extraordinary intellects studied for the Intermediate for two-and-a-half years like the previous batch, appeared for the Intermediate Examina-

tion of 1912 and 57 per cent. of them failed. This conclusively proves that extraordinary severity at Matriculation does not produce extraordinarily good results in the Intermediate Examination; and the official panacea of reducing by several hundred per cent. the number of admissions to the Intermediate classes will *not* necessarily lead to good results in the Intermediate Examination.

What are the causes, other than the laxity of Principals in the matter of admission, of the undoubted (though not as alarming as Prof. Mark Hunter's presentation of statistics suggests) rise in the strength of colleges? The chief cause, in our opinion, is the absence of mechanical rules of passing pupils like the rules of the University Matriculation Examination or the rules now proposed by the Syndicate. In the absence of such rules, students that got, say one mark less than the minimum, that failed perhaps badly in a subject unnecessary for their further progress, *e.g.*, Elementary Mathematics in the case of one who proposes to study History, History in the case of one who intends to become an Engineer, hundreds of whom would have been excluded under the mechanical rules, have obtained admission into colleges and what is more have done very well in the University Examinations—Intermediate, B.A., and B.A. Honours. Another cause is the great number of optional courses the Intermediate scheme presents. Pupils, who were deterred by the variety of the old F.A. subjects, find some of the Intermediate options not beyond their

capacity. The group of two languages and Logic or of History and the vernacular does not look so formidable to many young men as the old English, 2nd language, Algebra, Trigonometry, Geometry, Physiology and History combination.

To return to the laxity of Principals. We admit that it exists to a small extent though we deny that laxity is its proper name. It is not due to the weakness of Principals or their desire to increase their fee-income, but to the following fact. Every one who has carefully scrutinized the S.S.L.C. of hundreds of pupils meets with numbers of them about which he cannot come to an honest decision. Taking all the information contained in the S.S.L.C., one finds that in several cases one cannot honestly conclude that the holder is not wholly unfit for a College course. Under the circumstances it is but just to give the benefit of the doubt to the pupil and admit him tentatively as it were. In such cases Principals have counteracted the evils of their "laxity" first by refusing promotion at the end of the first year or by refusing sanction to appear for examination in the second year. This almost completely cancels the small lessening in the efficiency of the average pupil due to the admission of those who may not be quite fit for the College course. The question has been raised whether it is just to such students to admit them in Colleges and send them away after a year or two. From a wide experience we can testify that a year or so at a College is immensely beneficial

to such students though they leave it without a University certificate. Hence we hold that the "laxity" complained of has little to do with the severity of the Intermediate results but it is due to some defects in the conduct of the examination. This conclusion is confirmed by the fact that in the three years during which this laxity has existed, the percentage of passes had see-sawed from 33 to 39 and down to 27. This very going up and down of the results demands an enquiry which, we are certain, will prove that the average efficiency of Colleges has not gone down but that there is something not satisfactory in the conduct of the examination. The results of the S.S.L.C. public examination shows a similar erratic tendency and this further confirms the justice of our contention.

Another series of "unadorned facts" proves that there is something wrong with Madras examinations. We know that several pupils who have failed once, twice, thrice at the Madras Intermediate Examination, go on to Calcutta, straightway pass the Intermediate there without any difficulty, often in the first class and return to join our B.A. classes. Similarly there are several young men who fail miserably at Madras Examinations, go to England and return successes, whereas if they had stuck to Madras they would have been life-long failures. We know of a young man who twice failed in *English* in the Madras Intermediate Examination, went to England and within 50 days of landing passed

the London Matriculation examination whose English papers are in no way easier than our Intermediate English papers. We know of several young men who failed to pass our Madras Matriculation or F.A. but who went to Great Britain and returned in three years with a British degree. This year's Intermediate results, we fear, may drive a number of young men to North India and to England. Hence the educationist, the parent and the pupil have lost their faith in the justice of the way examinations are worked in Madras.

Prof. Mark Hunter claims that the University aims at making the Madras degree as good as an English degree. Incidentally we may remark that a Madras degree as good as an English degree is absolutely worthless to an Indian young man so long as the University cannot induce the Government to give the man that holds that as good as an English degree even half the salary of one who holds an English degree. But there is no good in mixing up the question of the facilities for an Honours degree with the difficulties of the man fit only for a pass degree. All our criticism has been made in the interests of the Pass man whose path is beset so often with the thorns of failure, both because the course of studies devised for him are much more difficult and because the examinations he has to undergo are very much stiffer than at the sister Universities. The prevalent opinion at Madras is that Calcutta examinations are easier than Madras

ones, that therefore the Madras University is a more efficient one than the Calcutta University. Yet it is Calcutta and not Madras that has developed a school of physics and a school of chemistry, both of which have now secured a world-wide fame and recognition.

In Calcutta, Dr. C. R. Watson of the Dacca College is alarmed at the increase in the percentage of passes in the University examinations. Like Prof. Mark Hunter he takes "the year of the massacre of the Innocents" which in Calcutta happens to be 1906 and makes it the standard of comparison. He attributes the increase of passes which disturbs his night's rest first to the fact that "the new regulations have made the syllabuses easier." Dr. Watson's ideal is that educational work should be so organized that a large majority of those that seek education ought to leave schools and colleges as failures. We used to read in books on pedagogy that schools ought to be so organized that every pupil ought to leave them as a success, each in the thing he is fit to do well. Dr. Watson would abolish all this. The next reason to which he attributes Calcutta successes is the fact that a larger number of Indian Examiners than before takes part in conducting them. Dr. Watson frankly admits that the Indian Examiners are more sympathetic to candidates and can realize their difficulties better than the European Exa-

miners. The Indian Examiner can, hence, more efficiently measure the amount of honest effort put forth by the candidate. Incidentally Dr. Watson says, "I am sure that every one who has experience of examination work will admit that a very great deal depends on an examiner and his mental attitude to his task: and that two different Examiners independently marking the same set of papers would offer very different marks, the one being more lenient than the other. Even the same man would allot substantially different marks according as he approached his task with the idea of being strict or lenient." Now who can say that the Madras Examiners last year did not approach their task with the idea that the Principals being lax in admission, examiners ought to make it up being strict? In the face of this remark of Dr. Watson's, is it right to place implicit faith on the marks awarded by a dozen Examiners assisted by a crowd of Assistant Examiners? To return to Dr. Watson. If it is right that in European Universities every one but a downright duffer or shameless slacker gets a degree, honours or Pass, is it wrong that in Indian Universities 50 per cent. should get degrees?

Elasticity has been recently introduced in school teaching in the United Provinces. Syllabuses have been provided in each school-subject and permission provided to be given "in the class-wise distribution of the work in any subject." Re-grouping

of scholars in the High School classes by their progress subject by subject (other than English) is permitted and what is above all, "English is no longer to be used as the medium of instruction in classes up to and inclusive of class VIII; History, Geography, Science and Mathematics are to be taught in the students' own language." We are glad to notice these attempts at modernization of teaching methods in Upper India. But we notice that though observation-lessons and nature study have been provided in some of the lower classes they are but optional courses and "should not be introduced into any school without the permission of the Inspector, who should satisfy himself that trained teachers are available and can be spared for teaching them." The same is the fate of rational methods of teaching English. "The teaching of English by the direct method should not be attempted except by specially trained teachers." This lack of trained teachers thus frequently alluded to in the Memorandum prefatory to the Departmental Notification containing the curriculum of studies prescribed for Anglo-Vernacular schools indicates the urgent need for increasing the provision for the training of teachers, especially the kind of training which can be given by arranging for vacation courses in special subjects for the benefit of men who are already in the profession. With regard to the direct method of teaching English, we read that where trained teachers "are not available in sufficient numbers for all classes, a

teacher or teachers, qualified to give such instruction, might be employed to supplement the ordinary class teaching by taking classes separately for an hour or so a week." We presume the "hour or so a week" will be devoted to a training in the making of English speech sounds to prevent the formation of bad phonetic habits; otherwise an hour of direct method will be entirely futile.

The Report on the School Final Examination held in November 1914, presents excellent features which Madras may very well

copy. First the names of the Examiners who set the several papers and of those "appointed to correct the papers, where different from the above" are published station by station. The publication of the names of the Examiners is an excellent corrective for the constant tendency to idiosyncracies which is exhibited by Madras Examiners. The results of the examination are fairly satisfactory. 1,633 candidates were presented and 771, i.e., 47 per cent. of them passed. What a contrast to the 8 per cent. of Madras, estimating the Madras marks as the Syndicate will have us do! Evidently the Bombay Examiners do not believe in keeping out of Colleges a very large percentage of pupils, so that the lucky few may secure a degree equal in value to an English degree. The average marks in each subject are not published. But we notice that 64 per cent. passed in English, so we guess that the average mark was

much more than the miserable 31 per cent. awarded by the Madras Examiners of last year. Another excellent thing we notice in the Bombay report is the absence of secretiveness which characterizes the Madras Examiner. Each examiner sends a report where he tells the teachers what he wants and what faults he expects to be avoided in future work. The examiners' criticisms are quite candid. The English Examiner finds "the great defect of all essays was want of arrangement. Punctuation was exceedingly bad not only in the essay but everywhere.....Hardly any candidate had any idea how to write a paraphrase." And yet the Examiners passed 64 per cent. of the candidates. The Government in its order on the report remarks "that everywhere the standard of English attained is very low. Government trusts that the schools concerned will take steps to remedy the defects, etc." This shows that there are milder ways of improving school teaching than "failing" 75 per cent. of candidates that appear for examinations.

(The full official Report is reproduced elsewhere in this number for the perusal of our readers.)

From a Press Note published by the Bombay Educational Department we learn that a Special Committee considered the question of the education of factory children. The question of free and compulsory education of such children was rejected

because "to apply legislation in this matter specially to factory children would involve an unfair and invidious discrimination to the disadvantage of this class." We understand that it would be unfair to other children if factory children alone were given free and compulsory education but cannot guess how education of any kind would be unfair to factory children. The Committee recommended that the half-timer's six hour period of work be "divided into two periods of three hours each with a considerable interval between them, which might be utilized for the instruction of the children." The Government has accepted the suggestion and is taking action to amend the Factory Act accordingly. The question of asking mill-owners to pay a bonus to factory children to induce them to attend schools was considered but was given up as it was thought that this would raise the price of child-labour all round. We think that child-labour in India is so very cheap that a slight rise in its price will not prove detrimental to Indian industrial development and we are sorry that the interests of capital secured the abandonment of this very good suggestion. The only inducement to children to attend schools which the Government has finally resolved to be feasible is the drawing up of a suitable practical school curriculum. We do not believe that children are capable of discriminating between curricula and that the mere fact of devising an attractive syllabus will not improve school attendance

among factory children and we therefore cannot share the hope that "the result in due course will be a substantial advance from the general state of illiteracy now prevailing." (The full official report is reproduced elsewhere in this issue for the perusal of our readers).

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

BOOKS RECEIVED FROM MESSRS. HARRAP & Co.,
LONDON.

Ancient Greece, by H. B. Cotterill, M.A. 7s. 6d.
net.

Republican Rome, by H. L. Havell, B.A. 7s. 6d.
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A History of the Ancient World, by Hutton
Webster, Ph.D. 6s. net.

England before the Normans, by F. G. Snowball
M.A., F.R. Hist. S. and T. H. Bowtell, M.A.
1s. 6d.

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John. 1s.; Vol. II, from Henry III to
Edward IV. 1s.; Vol. III, from Richard III
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to Victoria. 1s.

Our Country's Industrial History, by Wm. J.
Claxton. 1s. 6d.

The Use of Globes in Elementary Schools, by
Leon O. Wiswell. 1s. 6d. net.

The Girlhood of Famous Women, by J. Snell. 1s.

Cowper and his Poetry, by James A. Roy, M.A.
1s. net.

Marlow and his Poetry, by John H. Ingram, 1s.
net.

Tales and Legends of Scotland, by Dorothy
King. 6d.

Heath's Shakespeare: The Winter's Tale, by
H. B. Charlton, London: Heath. 1s. 6d.

Causeries en France, by E. E. Patton, London.:
Heath. 1s. 6d.

The above books are available from the
P. T. I. Book Depôt, Bangalore, who are the
wholesale Indian Agents for the publications of
Messrs Harrap & Co., London and Messrs.
Heath & Co., of Boston.

The Reformed Series of Oxford Readers, by
R. W. Ross: Book I, 4 as.; Book II, 8 as.
Teachers' Book for Nos. 1 and 2. 12. as.
Bombay: Oxford University Press.

Kindergarten Subjects and Methods, by Rebekah
McLeod. Madras: C. L. S. Re. 1/12.

Then and Now Stories. Senior, No. 15. The
British Empire, by J. H. Roberts. London:
MacMillan. 5d.

Arithmetic, by O. Godfrey, M. V. O., M.A., & E.A.
Price, B.A. Cambridge: University Press. 4s.

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THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCHES.

V

FOREIGN INDUSTRIAL ART PRODUCTS IN INDIA.

Col. T. H. Hendley, C.I.E., contributes in No. 129 (Jan. 1915) of the *Journal of Indian Art and Industry* an informing article on industrial art products imported by India from foreign lands. The most important of these, he points out, are the carvings in soft stone and celadon ware, got from China and other parts of the East. From time to time the figures cut in stone, either in groups or as individuals, find their way from Western China into India by way of Assam or Burma, and spread themselves throughout India.

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These figures represent animals or sages, foliage or rocks sometimes in the background, vases and pagodas, flowers and fruits, and so on. Col. Hendley discusses the materials from which these carvings are made, but they are more interesting to the mineralogist than to the historian. It is enough for us to note that the importations of these works of arts have formed a common trade feature from very early times. Objects carved in jade, for instance, were, as Dr. Bushell says, very much appreciated by the Moghul Emperors. Dark or willow-green porcelain or celadon works were even more popular. "In old Moghul towns in India, untillately, a good many specimens of celadon plates or vases might be purchased. It is said that this ware was in great demand even so far back as the Sung Dynasty—that is, from the 10th to the 13th centuries. The want was more largely met with, however, in the days of the East India Company by importation from China. It was thought that it possessed, in common with rhinoceros horn, the quality of splitting or breaking when brought into contact with poisoned food; hence the value attributed to it by the Mohammedans, and especially by the Moghuls. Dr. Bushell informs us that the presence of poison was said to be revealed by the exudation of a white humour from the cup or from the sur-

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face of a rod of rhinoceros horn put into the liquid to test it. The belief was prevalent from very early times in China and Sumatra." Porcelain vessels of different sorts and colours were got by Indians not only from China but from Persia and Arabia, and they were made by the Indians themselves, whose imitative skill was in those days even more conspicuous than in the present age. The semi-translucent ware of Jaipur and Delhi, for example, and the glazed pottery of Multan are the results of Indian imitative skill and enterprise. An even earlier example of the introduction of foreign art is the red pottery of the ancient city of Patan in the Baroda State. From the 8th century to the 15th, when it was superseded by Ahmadabad, Patan was a chief city in this part of India, and had extensive trade with the West, and the result of it was its own acquisition of industrial importance. The richly glazed clay ware of Peshawur, says Hendley, are after the models of European domestic vessels. The tea-sets sold in the bazaars of the great frontier city are of Russian introduction. The Kacoh ornament applied to silver ware is, according to Birdwood, of Dutch origin. "The Dutch influence in the West of India was very great at the time when their factory at Surat was flourishing. It is shewn, for example, by Dutch tiles let into the walls of one of the palaces at Udaipur, and by pictures at the Indian museum at South Kensington." The silver filigree work, again, of Cuttack, Dacca and Murshidabad is believed to owe much to European influence,—the countries about the Mediterranean having been the main centres of such work. On the whole, India received much of Persian and Chinese ideas of art in the middle ages. European trade was, as Hendley says, more destructive to Indian art than

constructive, as is seen in the ruin of national indigenous jewellery. At present Japanese ideas are being freely borrowed.

SECTARIAL SEALS IN INDIA.

The same author notes in the same No. the features of some of the sacred seals prevalent in India. These seals are chiefly in brass and sometimes of excellent, though conventional, workmanship. They are either generally dipped in sandalpaste and impressed on the forehead, arms, chest, and even the cheeks of devotees, or made red-hot and so applied. The different sects have different seals of course; and it is believed that the wearing of the marks made by them is not only a symbol of orthodoxy in this world, but a passport to heaven. Some seals represent the *Padma* or lotus; others the *S'ankha* or shell; the *Chakra* or quoit; the *Gada* or mace of Krishna; the foot marks (*Charana paduka*) of God; and so on. At the famous temple of Dvāraka in Gujerat, "pilgrims have a heated lotus stamp put on so as to leave a permanent mark on the arm." The *Journal* gives illustrations of all these symbols. "Some of the sects wear brass armlets and bracelets with the figures of their Gods in relief. The Bairāgees, for instance, "wear copper bracelets and even rings, which bear in relief, or rising from their edge, representations of the God or his sons or their incarnations and emblems." Some seals contain inscriptions or figures used in necromancy. Copper bracelets and armlets are generally brought by pilgrims "from the temple of Pasharnāth in Nepal," in exchange for a sufficient payment made to the priest there. Bells and spoons are other religious objects, the former used in worship to call the attention of the deity and the latter for the illustration of images or the presentation of offerings to them. The

bells and spoons have sometimes got the relief of the particular images of deities on them; and the illustrations, which Col. Hendley gives are both interesting and instructive.

WAR IN INDIAN ART.

In No. 130, Col. Hendley traces the effect which war has produced on the artistic expression of the Indian people at different epochs, by taking into consideration the decorative carvings on their temples and other buildings, their paintings or pictures, and their architecture of towns, palaces and forts. Taking the primitive peoples, Col. Hendley points out that there "seems to be no trace in India of war carvings on ivory or bone by primitive man, nor of any such artistic efforts as have been found in caves in Europe." There is not much work of this kind, again, under the Dravidian and Vedic civilizations. Indra, the God of war, with his thunderbolt; his enemy Vritra with his bow and arrow, the *Maruts*, and other picturesque Gods or their enemies have not received much artistic attention. The bow was the chief arm in the Vedic age; but Col. Hendley notes the curious fact that the sword is "said to have been created in order to arm Rudra, the forerunner of the modern God S'iva or Mahādeo, with the king of weapons, so that he might overcome the demons who threatened the world with destruction." The triumphs of S'iva are still represented by Indian artists, but not those of the *Maruts*. The Vedic hymns address these in picturesque language: "Lances gleam upon your shoulders, anklets on your feet, golden cuirasses on your breasts, pure waters shine in your chariots; lightnings blazing with fire glow in your hands, and golden tiaras are towering on your heads." No painters, says Col. Hendley, except perhaps one or two of the latest

Neo-Indian school, have put these ideas on canvas.

The ancient Indian rules regarding towns and their fortifications have been, says Col. Hendley, not only followed in practice, but have been cleverly represented in canvas. The town, according to the ancient rules, should be built in a healthy position, and protected by a desert, or a fortress, or water, or hill-fort, with the palace in the centre. The Rajput cities have been built on picturesque and strategic rocks, and the examples of Amber, Jodhpur, Bandi, Kuchawan, Chitor, Ranthambhor, etc., are given in this valuable No. "In almost all cases these towns, with their crenellated walls and temples, and perhaps artificial lakes or rivers adjacent to them, are very picturesquely situated. Charming little glimpses of such towns are included in many of the Razmnama pictures. "The Indian, like the mediæval European artists, were specially skilful in such subjects."

The incidents narrated in the two great epics of Hinduism have always engaged the attention of artists on a large scale. In the time of Akbar both these works were translated into Persian and illustrated by the best artists of the age. The Emperor's own copy of this *Razmnama* is now in the possession of the Jaipur royal family. The copies of this treatise and the *Akbarnama* have "provided the most fertile fields for the display of the skill of the artists of the Emperor Akbar, and the best illustration of their ideas of war; moreover as they drew upon their experiences of the battles of their own age, we have the advantage of studying their conceptions of war in India at a most interesting period." Col. Hendley has reproduced in this No. the pictures of Bhishma on his Kus'a bed; of the labyrinth-arrangement of the Kaurava

army in the great war; the struggle between Arjuna and the king of Trigarta; the death of S'alya; the terrible scene of Bhima's drinking the blood of Duss'asana; the combat between Arjuna and the king of Sarasvatu in the air; and the general engagement of the two grand armies at the opening of the war. The cars and chariots, the maces and swords, the lances, the different positions of the forces, all these are represented with vigour and sometimes with an anachronism as in the appearance of a gun. From the *Akbarnama* Col. Hendley selects the pictures of the destruction of a tower during the siege of Chitor, the shooting of Jaimāl by Akbar, the scene of a *Johur* or self-immolation of Rajput women, and scenes from Akbar's attack on Rhamtambore. Col. Hendley next reproduces the picturesque forts of Rajputana, of the robes and arms of Moghul warriors, the portraits of the great generals of mediæval India, and of the two famous guns of Gulburga and Bijapur. The collection gives a highly realistic view of Indian ideas and ideals of warfare in mediæval times.

The most famous of the mediæval artists were Daswanth and Basawan. Abul Fazl refers to Daswanth as the best artist of his day, but Mr. V. A. Smith prefers Basawan. Both were distinguished, says Col. Hendley, "for their skill in design and composition. The former was a master of detail." Two other artists, Tulsi by name, were good colourists, while one of them was also an excellent outliner. A painter famous in the treatment of animals was one Lal, who contributed as many as 29 plates to the *Razm-nama* and 15 to the *Akbarnama*. Another artist, Muskina, coloured 9 plates in the *Akbarnama* and designed 19 in the same

treatise. Paras, Banwari, Bhagwan and Madhu were other good painters. The illustrations which have been already enumerated were made by these men. The great *Chakravartya* of the Kauravas, for instance, was outlined by Daswanth and coloured by Tulsi. Speaking of this work, Col. Hendley says: "This illumination, for such it really is, was marvellously drawn and painted, and in the original the colours seem as bright and harmonious as on the day the work was done. In the interior of the maze are stationed kings with golden flags, with red clothes, wreaths of flowers and magnificent ornaments such as golden necklaces, and they were anointed with sandal and aloë-wood paste."

In the ancient period, the Gāndhāra sculpture has left a few representations of war-scenes. Sculptural representations of boys with Greek costumes and Indian broad swords have been discovered. The sculptures of Sanchi and Bharhut have also been instructive. The broad, straight sword, suspended from the left shoulder, which the later Rajputs wielded and which the soldiers of Chandragupta also seem to have worn, is seen at Bharhut. Sanchi is richer in battle-scenes, in arms and armed men. The departure of the Buddha, for example, with a retinue of elephants, chariots, horse and foot, is a striking work. Curious shields and spears are seen therein. "There are also elephants carrying men with bows and arrows, and there are others in chariots. Spears and swords are seen, and the bows are long and not of the double-curved type." The Ajanta frescoes contain war scenes of the next age, — of the early centuries of the Christian era. "The most famous painting of all these is supposed to represent the conquest or landing in Ceylon and the coronation of Sinhala or

Vijaya, the founder (about 543 B. C.) of the Sinhalese dynasty. Some see in it a personification of Aryan invaders, others that Sinhala was Buddha. The picture has also been referred to as the conquest of the Iron City defended by female demons..... This most interesting picture represents elephants and horses carrying soldiers armed with spears, long shields, bows, arrows and quivers, and broad-bladed swords. There are also banners and, in the rear, even umbrellas as symbols perhaps of sovereignty. Three elephants stand in one boat which has an elephant's head at the prow, and there are four in another, besides many persons and animals on land. The army on the water is opposed by female demons similarly armed in a fort or walled town. Sinhala (or Vijaya) is seated in one of the top corners of the picture, which is supposed to represent at this point his coronation, because there are attendants engaged in pouring water over his head, a custom which dates from remote antiquity and still exists. It is not easy to explain why the demons are females; but Amazons headed by their queen are represented in the *Mahābhārata* as having resisted Arjuna in one of his battles. That polite warrior, we are informed, averted a struggle, which was clearly unpleasant to the courteous soldiers of his time, by offering to marry the leader — and his proposal was accepted." Coming to still later times, the walls of temples contain illustrations of all ancient stories; but their artistic value has been depreciated by their mixture with mythological and fabulous creatures. They however inform us about the dresses and arms of the ages during which the sculptors lived.

Regarding the post-Moghul paintings of war subjects, Col. Hendley observes the fact that

they have changed little in character. "Most of those of the 18th century represent masses of infantry and cavalry with rows of guns in what appears to be the utmost confusion, with here and there leaders of rank mounted on elephants, round whom the chief struggles are concentrated. The names of the generals are usually written close to them either in Persian or Hindi. In some cases minor incidents of the battle, such as burning of houses, robbery and assaults on defenceless men, women and children, are shown. The object clearly was to indicate, as far as possible, the leading incidents of the war, and especially to impress upon all the horrors attending it and the valour or otherwise of the combatants. Scenes of this kind are still painted, not only on cards, rolls of paper, and as illustrations to books, but on a very large scale on the walls of public buildings and of private houses especially in Rajputana. In many places we find the early struggles with the British are depicted in the midst of steam engines, ships, and mythological subjects without much regard to congruity or to history or to time. The aim is to impress the imagination of the spectator, and as such one may suppose the painter of these scenes is a true artist."

Col. Hendley concludes his monumental contribution with a detailed bibliography of the art of ornamenting the various weapons of war both in North India and South India, and a monograph putting the information in all these together, will supply a real want.

HINDU AND BUDDHIST MONUMENTS, NORTHERN CIRCLE, 1913-14.

The Report of Mr. H. Hargreaves who became, on account of Dr. Vogel's appointment as Professor of Sanskrit and Indian Archaeol-

ogy, Leiden, the Superintendent of Hindu and Buddhist Monuments, Northern Circle, in March 1914, is just to hand, and on the whole, a poor record of works done and achieved. In the year under review, less than Rs. 4,000 were spent on the preservation of Hindu and Buddhist monuments in the Punjab, and one-fourth of this amount on those of the United Provinces. The extraordinary smallness of the expenditure is attributed, among other reasons, to the absence of an adequate list of such monuments. The list is now being made, and the proposals for conservation will then become larger and more respectable. Only 10 monuments were declared "Protected." The monuments of the Manvakala and Balar topes, of Hasan Abdal, and 'the interesting, and unique brick shrine at Kalar da Sassi' were inspected, and materials of a historic nature were gathered about them. Impressions of about 60 inscriptions (which Mr. Hargreaves calls 'numerous') were obtained at Dwarahat, Jageswar, Champawat, Muttra, Masrur, and Baijnath. Two copper plates were discovered at Taleswar in the Almora district, but remain to be investigated in detail. Arrangements were made for the publication of Mr. Hargreaves' translation of Foucher's treatise on the *Ancient Geography of Gāndhāra* and of a lecture he delivered at the Lahore Museum on Græco-Buddhist sculptures under the title of the *Buddha Story in Stones*.

The inscriptions copied during the year were at Dwarahat, Jāgēs'war, Champawat, Masrur and Baijnath. The vast majority of them are in Sanskrit or Hindi, in Prakrit and Nāgari. An inscription of 1183 A.D. mentions "Halaka, Papaka and Jaju"; another of 1143 records the erection at Dwarahat of a temple by Galana, son of the architect

Kinara. Teja is another architect mentioned. Among the figures of the mediæval period we find the names of Sri Kahathakala, Sri Gramaheri, Sri Netriharila, "the illustrious Vala (Bala) Kadamva (Kadamba) who is brave like a buffalo on the battle-field," Sri Chalakigraba, Hetugaraga, the ascetic Vijendri, Sankaragana, Ranavigraba, and so on. Two inscriptions of Jageswar record the erection of a Kirtisthamba by Abhayachandra in 1361 and of a temple by Gnānachandra in 1390. Champawat inscriptions refer to Rudrachandra, Lakshanachandra, Nitachandra, etc., of the Chandra dynasty and record the gift of provisions, etc. to religious institutions at Kumaon, or Kūrmāchala as it is called by the orthodox. Two copper-plates belonging respectively to Balēs'var and Nāgānāth temples of Champawat and dated 1796 A.D. and 1717 A.D., refer to respectively to the Purāṇa of the former and the gift of certain materials of worship by Jagat-chandra of the Chand dynasty. A copper-plate inscription in the possession of the *Pujari* of Jāgēs'war temple records a gift of land in 1690 A.D. by Mahārājādhirāja, the illustrious Dyōtachandra, to Bhagivaduja on an occasion of a lunar eclipse. Masrur inscriptions refer to the local ruler Lakshmanachandra (S. 1126), vassal of Jayachandra.

The comments regarding the preservation of monuments form the most valuable part of the report. Mr. Hargreaves brings to notice the existence of certain unique rock-cut Brahmanical temples at Masrur, Kangra district. These are, he says, "unique in the Himalayan region and of a type rare in Hindustan." Their remote situation and general inaccessibility saved them from Mussalman vandalism, while their monolithic character enabled them to survive the devastation of

1905. "Rock-cut temples are by no means uncommon in other parts of India, but the monument in question presents a number of unique features. Its shrines are exact representations of structural *Sikhara*s of the so-called Indo-Aryan type and being carved from the crowning ridge of the hill occupy, unlike the Damnar and other Brahmanical monolithic temples, a position of peculiar architectural advantage." Mr. Hargreaves gives a very vivid and picturesque description of the numerous shrines forming the series—the main shrine, the roof-shrines, the angle shrines, the cruciform temples, and so on—and of their architectural features. Speaking of the *Sikhara* of the shrines on either side of the main temple, for example, he points out how, with its oblong face, it resembles a Dravidian *gōpuram* rather than the Indo-Aryan. The spire over the stairway to the roof of the shrine, again, "is not of the usual curvilinear type, but star-shaped in plan and when complete must.....have resembled the pointed spires of Europe rather than the Indian *Sikhara*." As regards the date of the monument, Mr. Hargreaves points out that tradition assigns it to the Pāṇḍavas, but that the style, being a reproduction of structural shrines, must necessarily be later than the earliest structural monuments of similar type, and that, though the columns are of classical form, "the beautiful pot and foliage capitals are of an elaborate type unlikely to have been evolved at any early date, and the monument was most probably excavated about the 8th century." The whole shrine is locally named *Thakurdvāra*, the sanctuary of Vishnu, and the minor shrines are counted as ten to denote the ten *Avatārās*; but from the iconographical data available in the temple, from the prominence in which

S'iva and his following figure, Mr. Hargreaves concludes that in spite of the occasional presence of Vishnu and of the popular identification of three stone images with Rāma, Lakshmaṇa and Sita, the temple must have been originally a S'aivite one. Were the cella excavated, he says, it is not improbable traces of a *Līṅga* would be found. "Moreover in the adjoining tract of Kulu the introduction of Krishna and Rāma worship can be referred to the 16th century."

Mr. Hargreaves then gives an account of the temples at Jageswar, one of the most famous *Tīrthas* in Kumaon, celebrated in the *Skandhapurāṇa* as the place where, in consequence of the curse of the *Seven Rishis*, the *Līṅga* of S'iva fell to the earth and became the object of worship. "The site is undoubtedly of great antiquity and local legends attribute to Visvakarman, the architect of Gods, the erection of the principal shrines, while the great Vikramaditya is reputed to have visited the spot and restored the temple of Mrityunjaya, the repair of the Jageswar shrine being ascribed to his no less famous rival Salivahana. What is certain, however, is that inscriptions testify to the presence of shrines here in the 8th century and these were, in all probability, not the first erected at this spot. A remodelling of the entire institution is, perhaps with some truth, attributed to the reformer Sankaracharya. The Katyuri Rajas are stated to have restored the shrines and records still extant testify to the numerous grants by various members of the Chand dynasty in favour of this foundation which still possesses the largest endowment of any shrine in the district." The priests of the shrines are called *Baroras*, "a term also applied to the offspring of a *Sanyasi* who has broken the vow of celibacy." The tradition

is that S'ankara made one Kumār Svami, a Jangam from the Dakhan, the priest, and that with him "was a Dakhani Bhat who, marrying the daughter of a hill Brahman, gave rise to the Baroras, the present *Pandas* of Jageswar." Mr. Hargreaves describes in detail the Yagrês'vara temple, the principal edifice in Jagês'var, and then the shrines of Mrityunjaya, Nava-dêvi, Sûrya and of Dandês'var. All these are of course in the Indo-Aryan type. The Yagrês'vara shrine has got the three images of Paundā Rāja, Rāja Dip Chand and Rāja Trimul Chand, the first two made of an alloy of eight metals, and the last of silver. The Mrityunjaya temple is considered to be earlier than the Jagês'vara one, but Mr. Hargreaves doubts it. On palæographic grounds he assigns the earliest parts of the former to the 8th or 9th century. The Nava-dêvi shrine is so called because of the presence in its walls of a number of images of the *S'aktis*; but "the reliefs are not all forms of the consort of Siva, neither are they nine in number." The Sûrya temple is dedicated, as its name implies, to the Sun-God. The image of the deity, Mr. Hargreaves points out, is a good specimen of mediæval art. "It is in three pieces and does not originally seem to have occupied its present position. The central and main portion of the relief which contains the principal figure is excellently preserved, but the side-pieces are fragmentary. The deity is represented as standing on a lotus and standing on seven horses depicted *en face*, the charioteer, Arjuna, astride the central one. A diminutive female figure (Chhaya?) stands between the feet of the deity who bears in either hand a lotus stalk with a full-blown flower raised above the shoulder. A short sword hangs by the right side of Surya's

garment which is represented conventionally. Behind the high head-dress is a decorative pierced halo resembling a full-blown lotus. A small seated divine figure is found in each of the upper corners of the slab; a squatting adoring figure level with the thighs and below these and on either side near the feet a standing made figure and a horse-faced Kinnara. The edge of the slab which supports the image, but which is not an integral part of it, nor necessarily coeval, bears an inscription in one line in characters which may be assigned to the 14th century." The descriptions of the minor shrines of Kutera, Chandika, Navagraha, etc., are interesting. Mr. Hargreaves assigns the inscriptions found in these edifices to between the 8th and the 14th centuries. Prinsep says that the S'ênas of Magadha left an inscription at the great temple of Jagês'var which, though imperfect, allows the name Mgdhava Sêna to be read; but Mr. Hargreaves was not able to discover this.

The description of the temples at Dwarahat, Almora District, is very informing. These comprise no less than 35 shrines and fall naturally into eight distinct groups. "They are all of the Northern or Indo-Aryan type while the most interesting one, that known locally as Gujar Deo, is of particular interest resembling a type of mediæval temple of the 11th-12th centuries common in Rajputana and Gujarat, but not frequently met with in the Himalayan region. The others, less ornate but better preserved, are not earlier than the 14th century." The Gujar Deo shrine is well carved and attributed to the Katyuri Râjas. But its designation, says Mr. Hargreaves, "may be an echo of the name of one of that race who may have held this corner of the District to a late period, but, on the other

hand, it is not improbably a vulgarization of Gujar *devalaya*." One group of shrines, the Ratan Deo group, Mr. Hargreaves assigns to a period not anterior to the 14th century. The Badrinath group, dedicated to Vishnû, but suspected by Mr. Hargreaves on iconographical grounds to Surya, contains a Sanskrit Nagari inscription of A. D. 1185. The Mrityunjaya group is dedicated to S'iva. The *Syalde Pokhar* is a ruined tank south-east of the Gujar Deo temple and is "said to have derived its name from the Syalde clan of Rajputs, who assemble here in the month of Baisakh to indulge in the mimic warfare of the *bagwali*. On the south side of the tank is a shrine of no artistic merit dedicated to Sitala Devi and on the north one to Kula (2) Devi. The latter is the special shrine of the Chandhries of this District, descendants of certain immigrants from Nagar Kot in Kangra, who settled here in the time of the Chand Rajas." The last of the Dwarahat antiquities which Mr. Hargreaves describes is the *Thalkurka Naula*, one of those covered springs which form a characteristic feature of the Almora District. In a niche on the west wall of the *Naula* is a relief depicting Vishnû. He sleeps on the S'êsha, Lakshmi holds his right foot, and Brahma is seated on a lotus rising from his navel. The relief contains an obscure epigraph of A. D. 1214, but Mr. Hargreaves doubts its authenticity on the ground that the relief appears to date rather from the 16th than the 13th century. A damaged image of S'iva and Pârvati, however, found on this site, bears a partially defaced inscription which gives a date 1065 (Saka era?) and records the construction of an edifice by one Gulana, son of the architect Sûtradhâra Kinara (or Chhinara).

ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA ANNUAL REPORT 1911-1912.

This *Report* which was published a few days back opens with an excellent historical account of Shah Jahan's fort at Delhi by Mr. G. Sanderson. This is followed by a luminous description of the excavations at Bhita and the numerous historical finds discovered therein, contributed by Dr. Marshall himself. The excavations and antiquities at Sahri-Bahlol are the theme of the next article, contributed by Aurel Stein. Dr. Vogel then follows with the results of the explorations at Mathura, and Hirananda Sastri with those at Kasia. Prof. Duroiselle's descriptions of the excavations at Hmawza, Prome, and of the Hledank pagoda (Mandalay District) illustrate the religious and artistic labours of the Burmese. Dr. Spooner then gives the iconography of the Vishnu images found at Rangpur. A rock-cut tomb near Calicut is next briefly noticed by Mr. A. H. Langhurst. Mr. R. D. Banerji, with his usual scholarship, gives the epigraphical lessons of some sculptures found at Chandiman in the Patna District (of old Bengal), and of three coins discovered at Pândua in the Maldah District. He shows from the examination of the latter the existence of two kings of Bengal who have been hitherto unknown to the historians. The last two articles, a discussion of Rajêndrachôla's conquests by the late Rao Bahadur Venkayyah and a sketch of the Viceroys of the so-called third Vijayanagar dynasty by Mr. Krishna Sastri, are notable contributions to South Indian History.

SHAH JAHAN'S FORT AT DELHI.

Mr. Sanderson has depended in this article on the unpublished evidences culled by his assistant, Maulvi Muhammad Shusib. The

transference of the capital from Agra to Delhi was due to the unsatisfactory condition of the former, its broken ravines and inequalities, its small space in the fort, and the narrowness of its streets which caused much inconvenience to the people and to the immense retinue of the Emperor and his amirs, which included large crowds of troops and elephants. An order was promptly issued by Shah Jahan for the preparation of designs for a palace similar to those of Agra and Lahore, and the foundation-stones were laid in A. D. 1638, under the superintendence of Ghairat Khan, the Governor of Delhi. Ali Yardi Khan succeeded this man as the Superintendent of Works, and he in turn by Makrumat Khan, in whose time, in A. D. 1647, the palace was completed. Ahmad and Hamid, alleged to be the two great architects and master-builders of the day, were responsible for the new edifice, while the taste and liberality of Shah Jahan were of no mean assistance. Skilled artisans from all quarters of the Empire were summoned and worked, and in A. H. 1058, Shah Jahan was able to occupy the new city. Historians are not agreed as to where he received the news of the completion of the fort and buildings and wherefrom he set out on his mission of occupying the new city: some say that he was then at Agra and others say that he was at Kabul. The former view is more probable. However it was, the inauguration was a grand and gorgeous affair. A retinue of great splendour accompanied the emperor on his arrival at the city. Dara Shikoh scattered gold and silver over his father's head till he reached the gates. "The palaces had been already decorated, courtyards and buildings covered with gorgeous carpets and hangings, while 'deep red Kashmir shawls

covered each seat.' 'The buildings became the envy of the art galleries of China.' The roofs, walls and colonnades, *aiwāns* of the Diwan-i-Amm, were hung with brocaded velvet from Turkey, silk from China and *Khata*, while a gorgeous canopy (*Aspak Dal-padal*) specially prepared for the occasion in the factory at Amadābad, measuring 70 *gaz* by 45 *gaz*, and costing a *lac* of rupees, was raised by '8000 active *farashes*.' The canopy was supported by silver columns and surrounded by a silver railing. The hall of the Diwan-i-Amm was surrounded on this occasion with a golden railing, while the throne was provided with a special canopy, fringed with pearls, and supported by golden pillars, wreathed with bands of studded gems. Small subsidiary thrones, set with gems, were also placed before the royal throne. The Emperor signalled the occasion still further by the distribution of lavish gifts, and 'the honours' list' was a full one. The Begum Sahibah received 4 *lacs* of rupees; Prince Dara, a special robe of honour and jewelled weapons, an increase from the rank of ten to twenty thousand horse, a caparisoned elephant and two *lacs* of rupees. The Princes Sulaiman Shikoh and Sipehr Shikoh received respectively allowances of rupees 500 and rupees 800 in addition to their original pay. The Prime Minister, Sa'dullah Khan, a robe of honour, a *Nādiri*, and the rank of 7000 horse, while Raja Bithal Das was presented with a rank of 5000 foot and 4000 horse." Makrumat Khan received the rank of *Panj Hazari*.

The new fort had four gates, two wickets and 21 bastions, seven of which were round and the other 14 octagonal. The fort was octagonal in shape, 1000 *gaz* long, 800 broad and 25 *gaz* in height, the area of the whole being 600000 sq. *gaz* and the circumference 8800 *gaz*.

The wall and the towers, from pinnacle to foundation, were built of pure red sandstone and marble, provided by the local Rajas and Governors whose resources enabled them to do so. The whole cost of the fort, says Muhamad Sahib, was about 50 *lacs*, and an equal amount was spent on the buildings inside. A historian of the time of Aurangazeb, on the other hand, estimates the cost of buildings of the forts at 60 *lacs*, the royal mansions at 28 *lacs*, the Diwan-i-Khāss at 14 *lacs*, the *Rangmahal* at 5½ *lacs*, the palaces of the Begam Sahib at 7 *lacs* and the Bazaars and squares for imperial work-shops at four *lacs*. The workmen's wages amounted to one crore of rupees.

The *Report* gives briefly the chequered history of the fort in the troublous days of the later Moghul Empire. An earthquake damaged both the fort walls and the buildings in 1719. The invasion of Nadir Shah resulted in the removal of the peacock throne and of the palace treasure. The bombardments of the Mahrattas after 1754 damaged many of the royal edifices, while their avarice removed the silver ceiling of the Diwan-i-Khāss and robbed the marble walls of their precious stones. Thirty years elapsed and the grim human monster, Ghulam Qadir, carried ruin into many edifices by his search for buried treasure. He was about to blow up a powder magazine on his leaving the fort, but the Mahrattas extinguished the conflagration before much damage was done. The East India Company now appeared on the scene and took hold of Delhi in 1803. It was followed by the bombardment of Jaswant Rao Holkar, under which the palace buildings suffered considerable damage. The mutiny and the subsequent occupation of the city by the British troops completed the work of spolia-

tion. "The sheets of copper from the Kiosks of the Diwan-i-Khāss were taken by a prize agent on the plea of being a movable property, while eleven black marble plaques were taken from the recess at the back of the throne in the Diwan-i-Amm and set in a marble table top. The figure of Orpheus was also removed and all twelve pieces sold to the British Government. With the exception of the more important buildings on the east front of the Fort, and the Diwan-i-Amm and the Naubatkhana, a clean sweep was made of the rest of the palace buildings, so as to give the accommodation and space necessary to a garrison."

Mr. Sanderson describes in the space of 19 pages the details of the conservation and restoration work of the Archaeological Department from 1883 to 1911-2. Year after year the programme of rescue and repair had been going on till the Coronation Darbar of 1911 gave the opportunity to bring the work to a speedy and successful finish. The description is not a mere catalogue of the works of repair, but an erudite and well-informed series of historical notices of the various buildings, and the student of History will feel highly indebted to Mr. Sanderson for his article. Ample information, based on the writings of original historians are given about the Hayat Baksh Garden, the Zafar Mahal, the Moti Mahal, the Shah Burj, the Moti Masjid, the Rang Mahal, the Diwan-i-Khāss, the Diwan-i-Amm, the Lahore Gate, the water installations of Shah Jahan and so on, and furnish a highly valuable historical and archaeological record of the great imperial city.

TWO NEW KINGS OF BENGAL.

Mr. R. D. Banerji's notice of the existence of two new Kings of Bengal, is due to the

acquisition of two old coins, made of silver and with legends in Bengali characters, in a field about four miles off Pāṇḍua (Maldah District). The first of these coins, which is 170 grains in weight, bears the legend *S'ri-Srīman-Mahēndradēvasya* in the obverse and *S'ri-Chandi-Charaṇa-Parāyaṇa* in the reverse, with the date S. 336 and the name of the minting place, *Pāṇḍu-Nagara*, in the margin. The second coin exactly resembles the first, except that the name of the king is *S'ri Danujamardhana-Dēva* and the date S. 339 or 239, as a scholar takes it. Mr. Banerji was naturally struck with these curious coins. He saw that they closely resembled the silver coins of the independent Sultans of Bengal in the 15th century (except in regard to the legend in Bengali), but that the dates S. 336 and 339 were inconsistent with the mention of Bengali as a separate language. The coins, in other words, had the 15th century characteristics, but dates of the 4th century. Mr. Banerji was perplexed at this inconsistency, but the discovery of a third coin in the name of Danujamardhana Deva and with the date S. 1339 clearly marked, settled the question, and shewed unmistakably that Mahēndra Deva and Danujamardhana Deva were kings of Bengal in the 15th century. The latter was evidently the successor of the former, but he had, for some reason or other, Chandradvīpa on the coast and not Pāṇḍunagara in N. Bengal for his minting place. *Pāṇḍunagara* has been identified with Pāṇḍua, and *Chandradvīpa* with Bakla, the Bacola of early European travellers, the Bogla of the *Ain-Akhbari*, and the name of a Perganah in the Backerganj District of Bengal. These kings, says Mr. Banerji, must have been, if we are to judge from their power to issue coins of their own and from the extension of

their lands from Pāṇḍua in N. Bengal to Chandradvīpa on the coast, of a far higher status than "the rebel Zamindars of Bengal such as *Pratāpādityarāya* of Jessore, *Sitārāmarāya* of Bhushna, and *Chandrāya* and *Kedārarāya* of Eastern Bengal." As regards the relation between the contemporary Sultan of Firuzabad (i.e., Pāṇḍua) and these kings, Mr. Banerji feels unable to make a definite statement. Bayazid Shah, we know, issued coins of his own from Firuzabad. Could he have allowed a subordinate king to issue coins from the same place? Mr. Banerji believes that either the identification of Pāṇḍua with Firuzabad is not correct, or that the Mahomedan ruler, "though dispossessed of Pāṇḍua, still continued to issue coins from other places in the name of the mint of Firuzabad."

V. RANGACHARIAR.

THE ENGLISH DRAMA.*

By PRINCIPAL P. SESHADRI, M.A.

WITH the publication of the third volume of his *Representative English Comedies*, Dr. Gayley has brought the account of the evolution of the English Drama to the end of the later contemporaries of Shakespeare and who will venture to say that the period represented by Dekker and Middleton, Fletcher and Massinger is of lesser interest than either that of the beginnings of the English Drama, or that of the first group of Shakespeare's later contemporaries, Ben Jonson and others?

* (1) *Representative English Comedies*, Vol. III, edited by Dr. Charles Gayley (Macmillan & Co., Ltd. 8s. 6d. net.)

(2) *The Growth of English Drama*, by A. Wynne. (Oxford: Clarendon Press. 3s. 6d. net).

See the *Educational Review* for May 1914 for a notice of the first two volumes.

The period has sometimes been stigmatised as one of decadence, but we have the high authority of Professor Saintsbury for saying that we are "still in the creative period," and the authors of comedies like *Rule a Wife and Have a Wife* or *A New Way to Pay Old Debts* will not remain literary curiosities, though the days of their undisputed sovereignty over the English stage seem to have passed away for ever.

Reviewing the first two volumes of the series, we had occasion to quote Sir Sidney Lee's opinion of the value of a scholarly text in literary study and say that Dr. Gayley's edition of the comedies satisfied the ideal to a very eminent degree. The same thoroughness, accuracy and grasp characterise the third volume and we should have no hesitation in saying that it will stand the test of the most searching criticism. Dr. Gayley continues his able essay on the later contemporaries of Shakespeare in this volume and it is followed by a presentation, with all the apparatus of textual, biographical and literary criticism, that scholarship and research could supply, of specimens from Dekker, Middleton, Fletcher, Massinger, Brome and Shirley, the pieces themselves being, *The Shoemaker's Holiday*, *The Spanish Gipsie*, *Rule a Wife and Have a Wife*, *A New Way to Pay Old Debts*, *The Antipodes* and *The Rogall Master*. Each play is prefaced with a critical essay, among the scholars who have contributed being Sir W. Ward, and Professors Saintsbury and Brander Matthews.

We admit it is not possible to satisfy all tastes in the matter of such selection of representative pieces, but we are afraid a large number of readers will have reason to complain that Beaumont and Fletcher have not

been given any adequate attention—Fletcher's *Have a Wife and Rule a Wife* being the only play represented out of the extensive range of their works. Dr. Gayley is evidently among those who are inclined to deny any claim of an active share of work on the part of Beaumont in his partnership with Fletcher. But even making allowance for that position, there is not adequate justice done, especially in view of the fact that Ben Jonson occupies an unduly large part of Volume II and is represented by several plays.

There is an aspect of the critical introductions in Dr. Gayley's *Representative Comedies* which deserves special praise. There is nothing of the ill-balanced and boisterous eulogy which is fashionable with the majority of the students of Elizabethan drama. The castigation administered to such blind enthusiasts by William Watson in one of his excellent essays in his *Excursions in Criticism* will not apply to any of the contributors to this series. Here is, for instance, what Professor Saintsbury says about the heroine of Fletcher's *Have a Wife and Rule a Wife*: "As for Margarite, one may have an almost sinful tenderness for feminine frailty from Helen of Troy to her own contemporary and namesake Valois, and further still, and yet have none for her. At first she is merely impudent—impudent without passion, without loveableness, without grace, without any quality more engaging than that which makes a hungry dog growl and whine for loaves. Even what Johnson said to Boswell, 'This lady of yours, sir, is very fit for a brothel' is too good for her." If other writers in the volume do not rise to such downright sincerity and sanity of judgment, they are not far below it. The Editor has an extensive field for the exercise of his faculties in the *Restoration Period* and it is

encouraging to know that the volume relating to it "is well under way."

A book of equal value and interest and one bound to attain a even wider popularity by its being a handy manual is the study of the *Growth of English Drama* by Mr. A. Wynne, published by the Clarendon Press. A volume of this description has long been a desideratum, Ward's monumental history of the English Drama being too unwieldy for general purposes and books like the small primer on the subject in *Temple Classics* being too inadequate. There is, it is true, an excellent treatment of the subject in books like Courthope's *History of English Poetry*, but for obvious reasons it cannot be as effective as studies professedly written on the subject of the English Drama. Mr. Wynne combines an accurate and thorough treatment of details with a capacity to run them into very readable narration and will thus satisfy the general reader as well as the specialist. Mr. Wynne has done well in giving as far as possible summaries of the plots dealt with as such knowledge cannot be presumed even in the fairly advanced student of literature. The quotations are sufficiently numerous without giving the book the appearance of patch-work. But it is curious there should have been dropped from the pages on *Tamburlaine*, the well-known passage in the *Prologue* which gives incidentally, such a fine description of the genius of Marlowe:

From jiggling veins of rhyming mother wits,
And such conceit as clownage keeps in pay,
We'll lead you to the stately tent of war,
Where you shall hear the Scythian Tamburlaine
Threatening the world with high astounding terms,
And scourging kingdoms with his conquering
sword.*

We trust the two volumes will furnish useful guidance to all students of the English Drama.

* Marlowe's Works, (Dyce) p. 5.

PEEPS INTO BLACKMORE'S 'LORNA DOONE'.

OF all forms of literature a romantic work in prose holds an important place, deserving of all attention to it and romance is the medium through which its author seeks to inculcate some lessons of life. The feeling of weariness caused by a series of disconnected facts in a narrative, or of high imaginative thoughts of sublime poems keeping our minds under undisturbed tension, is absent in romantic novels, and the voluminous nature of such works is not at all felt. The amount of interest, curiosity, and instruction imparted is out of all proportion to the exertion we make, and the memory is not at all taxed. There is nothing in such a work that we cannot be in agreement with, and while reading it we feel as though we are actually watching the movements of the characters and feel with them as well. The hold on our memory which it grasps is due to the interesting connection and sequence of events there and to the stirring circumstances operating upon the characters introduced, and to the essential elements of human nature as love, passion, jealousy and hatred. There is hardly a romance in which stirring adventures involving the above feelings and the 'love' do not form marked traits there.

In every sense Blackmore's "Lorna Doone" is a romantic novel in which love bulks largely and all the other characters, incidents and circumstances contribute to the love affair of John Ridd and Lorna. Love is a very strong human feeling before which every other consideration will melt down and the conflict of love with other feelings such as social inferiority, rank, wealth and dignity is the substratum of all romantic works. In certain novels love does not gain any material happi-

ness and looks as though it reaches its end in the world after death; this is not due to the sudden death of the love-makers, but earthly considerations are pressed on them to separate from each other and the whole thing ends in a tragedy to them. It is out of place in a romantic novel, that the 'love' can be transferred from one to another object, and that all efforts against it will either fail or cause a tragedy and in no case, such counter-forces can achieve their pursued ends. 'The Bride of Lammer Moor' of Sir Walter Scott is also a romantic novel, but unlike 'Lorna Doone', the mutual love between the hero and the heroine, not reaching fruition on this earth being faced by considerations pressed from outside and the last stage is murder, death and broken-heartedness because of Lady Ashton's unnatural attempt and preparation to turn away her daughter's love on a person against the choosing of the heroine. The land of Scott's Bride is one in which the evil counter-force to love seems to have had a temporary success in that it prevented the marriage of Lucy Ashton and Ravenswood by death; but the hero and the heroine seem to prefer death to breaking their strong mutual tie and when they pass out of the stage they appear to say: "You have attempted to break our love and though you can glory in bringing death between us, be certain that our love is still unbroken and succeeds in the world after death."

But the land of Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone' is very favourable to the achievement of the lovers and love scornfully smiles upon attempts made against its progress and success, like a giant upon a pigmy. Circumstances conduce to the love affair and all the barriers are readily overcome. The existence of love and its relations to other feelings are very

apparent from a cursory glance at the book. Is any further evidence necessary to prove 'Lorna Doone' a romantic work? The chief characters Lorna and Ridd tower above all the other characters in the qualities of mind and body, and the ideal seems to have been reached in them. Ridd is the most physically developed and this immensity of physical strength makes him a terror to all the evil-doers there. It is this terrorizing element that makes his efforts a success in his attacks against the Doones and in his bringing Lorna to Plover's Barrows amidst so many difficulties. He puts to noble uses his physical strength without which he could not have punished the evil-doers of the time. A man of less strength is not the one who would, with any boldness, venture into the Doone glen, at all risks and times, and this consciousness of his ability drives him more into adventures than his feet. We travel with him with pleasure, and hope to see all the places he visits, at the same time, feeling anxious for his success. It is possible for a man to be in possession of gigantic strength, but it is very rare that exceptional good qualities exist there. Ordinarily fine feelings and qualities are impossible in such a man whose natural propensity is to pick up quarrels, to oppress people and to turn the strength, to his personal advantage and satisfaction of his bodily excellence. Massed with flesh his inclinations will be brutal and he satisfies them by whatever means he can command; the feelings of gratitude for benefactors, of love and fear of God, obedience and affection to parents; of excessive grief at the suffering, and unbounded joy at the success of good persons; and lastly of an everlasting, deep and sincere love rising clean above the earthly, impulsive, brutal and

temporary love are unknown to him. This is the figure of an unromantic and every-day love-maker gifted with good strength of body and whose mental side is partially or fully dark. But John Ridd seems to be a Hercules on the physical side, and he has attained almost the height of mental perfection. It is this rare and healthy combination of strength of mind and body that strikes the keynote of the romantic phase of Ridd. It is an easy thing to grant the possession of Ridd's mental qualities; but under his circumstances the mind without that body cannot shine and succeed. A weakling with a mind as gifted as Ridd's will find it impossible to go to the Doone valley, with any confidence, under all conditions of weather and through rocky ascents and he is certain to have been killed in one of the many chances to death before he takes Lorna home. A man with little bodily strength is not the one who could ever liberate Lorna Doone from the attacks of Charleworth Doone and Marwood De Wichelhalse, who entered her room, by force, fully drunk, meaning to force their suit upon her. Nor would uncle Reuben have invited Ridd to Wizard's slough but for the great physical power of Ridd with a view to break open, with a hammer, gold containing rocky blocks in the gold mines which he was secretly working at; this visit to uncle Reuben's gold mine brings Ridd into touch with Simon Carfax and this incident and the events following it place Simon Carfax under great obligation to Ridd. This obligation binds Simon Carfax to help him in contributing an important part towards the destruction of the Doones. The whole novel, as already said, hinges upon this romantic mixture of a great mind and a great body.

The heroine, another romantic character is

born at one place, brought up at another, and settled in a third place. The circumstances of her infancy are unknown to her and there are no parents to fondle her and keep her happy and peaceful. How her parents died before she ever came to know of them, her being carried with head downwards by the Doones, and her life amidst these violent people; her deep hatred for the violence and robbery in which she was brought up from her infancy and her power of discrimination between right and wrong though untutored; her feelings of communion with nature; these strike a note of romance in her. Her hatred of the Doones does not stand in her way of being grateful to Sir Ensor Doone for his special and tender care of her. His sanction is all that stands as an excuse for her not running away with Ridd and after Ensor's death, she succeeds to escape out of the Doone glen, which she styled as "the sanctuary of unholiness." She knows that attempts are being made to make her marry Carver Doone—a person whom she most hated for his wild character and horrible appearance. But from the very beginning she likes and loves John Ridd whom she met by accident. She continues loving and remembering him in spite of many obstacles, dangers and difficulties, forced on her to marry a Doone. The circumstances so happen that in the end they contribute to the attainment of her free choice. At Plover's Barrows, she enjoys a quiet family life which she had long awaited and she endears herself there by her good qualities. After she is taken to London to be kept under the guardianship of her great uncle Earl Brandir, the consciousness of her high rank as Lady Lorna Dugal, her company with the Queen and other Royal personages in London, her wealth and piercing beauty weigh

nothing in the balance against her deep and everlasting love for Ridd. When Ridd expresses his fears in claiming the hand of one almost a princess, she removes his anxiety by preaching to him that rank, dignity or wealth are temporary and should not interfere with the course of true love. This is borne testimony to by the fact that after the death of Earl Brandir, she manages to get the permission of the Lord High Chancellor to marry Ridd and leaves London for Ridd's home in Plover's Barrows.

The different incidents, scenes, places seem to contribute their respective parts in the romantic construction of the play. As to incidents: some time after John Ridd comes home from the Blundell school his mother suffers from illness and he remembers from a previous occasion that loaches did her good and sets out hunting for them. This loach-hunting drives him to Bagworthy waters and there he falls down on the grass immensely tired and sleeps. Lorna who is in the habit of daily resorting to that part of the Doone valley at that time, sees and nurses him. On waking up he finds her and from that day their mutual relationship begins. Subsequent visits to the Doone valley are prompted by his deep desire to see and talk to her and their happy meeting is unobserved by the Doones. Once finding Lorna absent at the expected place and time, he went up the Doone valley risking his life, and determining to see her at all costs. The two sentinels at the porch of the Doone-gate, getting drunk, pour wine on each other's head due to some differences of opinion in gambling, in the course of which the light is put out. Ridd by this time makes the sound of an owl and this causes one of them to drop down the tinder-box in the dark. This drove one of them to

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Carver Doone's house to fetch a light and Ridd followed him unobserved to learn at least by chance, Lorna's dwelling. At last when suspected by a sentinel as he stood down Lorna's room, he becomes desperate and tries his chance by a whistle which being like that of Carver, deceives the sentinel and saves his life. On a later occasion, he is taken by Gwenny and Lorna, to Sir Ensor's death-bed and this interview is very important as giving sanction for Lorna's marriage with Ridd which in Lorna's opinion was everything. Sir Ensor's approval was supremely necessary and no reader of the book would ever expect a favourable result out of an interview with a ferocious Captain of the Doones, whose interest should naturally discountenance any connection between Lorna and a yeoman, instead of one of his own clan.

At some other time when Ridd having made arrangements for Lorna's welcome at Plover's Barrows, returned to her room, fully prepared to take her, he found two villains forcing her to marry and but for the timely and the saving arrival of Ridd she would either have been killed or brutally treated. This is a turning point in the novel which ends in Ridd's favour. The narrow escape from Carver's bullet on some occasion, and Jeremy Stickle's timely arrival while about to be shot dead by Colonel Kirkee's men are a few of the many romantic incidents in the novel. Places like Plover's Barrows, Wizard's slough, Waterslide, Bagworthy waters, the Doone-gate are not in actual existence but romantic.

Coming to the unromantic aspect of this novel we have a picture of the farm life, the history of the times and certain observations of town life from the point of view of the rustic mind.

The picture of farm-life though mixed with adventure and romance, is clearly drawn. John Ridd is an honest farmer in Plover's Barrows leading a quiet life free from brawl and violence. He has a great interest in his land and in creatures useful for a farm-life such as horses, cattle, poultry, ducks, etc. His philosophy upon farm-life and his especial dislike of of mining the gold of which is in his opinion an "yellow root of evil" are characteristic; but he welcomes the toil of the hands. He wonders how time runs away when he is busily engaged in shooting, fishing, minding the farm or riding after some beast. He describes fully in the course of his narrative the harmless pleasures of a farm-life such as harvesting, reaping, fighting with the elements, the revelling after reaping, the timely hence tasteful dinners after reaping, drinking and singing. In a prosperous farm, the harmless people lead lives of quiet and happiness without luxury or care for elegance whatsoever; but caring only for solid comfort and contentment in their wants. Whatever is available, they eat heartily. They are healthy, happy and free attending the churches regularly and praying to God with innocent simplicity. They disbelieve no body but trust in one another even placing trust in the legends connected with their surroundings. John Ridd's home is an ideal peaceful and happy farm-house with all its blessings like pure water and fresh air.

The picture of town-life is depicted with characteristic clearness and accuracy. The townsmen fear and obey the law whereas the countrymen follow the traditional customs. The prevalence of deception in towns, their unhealthy atmosphere and costly life with a people having insatiable ambition unlike the country parts with contented

people; the liveried servants and such like paraphernalia of the nobility; the courts of justice with clever exacting and time-serving lawyers are well described.

The historical foundation upon which the novel is built consists of the many political disaffections in 1640 and their far reaching effects; the bloody assizes of Judge Jeffreys, England under Charles I, and Monmouth rebellions.

The most enduring qualities of the novel are the moral precepts and a careful reader will never fail to notice the following: 'Heaven brings retribution upon evil-doers' is clearly exemplified in the destruction of the Doones who were the cause of Ridd's father's death and unceasing troubles to their neighbourhood. The sheep and the goat fight led to the revenge on the strong foe the goat which was hurling its weak enemy down. Rich or noble people when driven to extremities seriously soured and impoverished, take to evil ways. The Doones were high and noble people who were at last driven to the lives of violence and robbery. Tom Faggus is another example wherein the highwaymanship is the result of excessive financial wreck and disappointment in love. Betty Muxworthy's existence, besides giving other things, shows to us that disappointment in love is a life-long curse or unhappiness. John Ridd reflects with pain that man destroys the creations of God and sarcastically remarks "Man's choice errand—destruction." Other feelings and ideas expressed in the novel serve as useful and lasting lessons of life:—

"Without hope human progress will be at stake." "Pity is a nobler thing than condemnation." "Man must be born with more head than body—is the worst thing that can befall a man."

"The greatest point in learning is to find that we must do it."

"There is no use of weeping at the memory of the dead." "Evil comes more readily than good to men." The wisest thing is to laugh at people when we cannot understand them." "There is comfort in all things in the world" "Love overleapeth rank and fortune and must still be the lord of all." All virtues are praised, all vices condemned. Though vice holds a temporary success, virtue is sure to win in the long run.

A novel overflowing with such moral truths will certainly defeat the objection that novels have nothing beyond an interesting story and that there is no moral motive underlying it. There are some novels from which nothing in the direction of moral teaching can be gained but Blackmore's Masterpiece, 'Lorna Doone' is of a type intended to please the taste and curiosity of the readers while at the same time giving an invaluable fund of moral truths.

K. RAMACHANDRACHAR.

THE DEFECTS OF OUR PRESENT SYSTEM OF EDUCATION AND THEIR REMEDIES.

THE object of rational education is the harmonious development of one's physical, mental and moral faculties. But how many of us think about it? We are notoriously negligent about physical training. Boys naturally imitate their parents and teachers who ought clearly to realise that without proper physical culture, mental faculties of young children can never be adequately developed. A pale-faced, emaciated, morose young lad with sunken eyes may be a good book-worm and pass the University examinations successfully but he has possibly no

brilliant future career in life. He is generally cut short in the prime of life for foolish carelessness about his body which gives him timely and repeated warnings in the shape of chronic indigestion, severe head-ache, weak eyesight, palpitation of the heart, stunted growth and various other ailments.

But what are all these due to? Several causes combine to produce them:—

1. The middle class people in general in our country are too poor to feed their little ones properly. There is a sad contrast between the children of Europeans and Indians. Pure milk, ghee or butter and unadulterated oil are gradually becoming, for the common Indians, matters of luxury but these are absolute necessities for good health and longevity.

2. The method of taking our meals is also defective. Our boys, in the full vigour of their youths, cannot realise that over-hasty swallowing leads ultimately to chronic indigestion and consequent weakness of the whole system. Under the present system of education they are compelled to spend a good deal of their morning hours in studies for fear of class teachers. Hence after hasty bathing and unduly rapid swallowing of solid food such as rice and bread they have to walk, sometimes to distant schools. What can be more unhealthy to proper digestion? The nation which cannot accommodate itself to circumstances is on the sure path to destruction. We must either feed our children early in the morning or we must have morning and afternoon classes in our schools. But the former is in our own hands, though the latter was our ancient and suitable custom.

3. During the hot summer months our boys have to wear shirts, coats wet with sweat and these are positively harmful. But our young

ones are not allowed, for school discipline, to take them off within the four walls of classrooms. Some of the higher schools make arrangements for pankahs, no doubt, but they are simply inadequate and almost wanting in primary schools. Excess of clothing like over-feeding is surely injurious to health.

4. Look at our private school-houses, especially in towns. They are a number of small, low, ill-ventilated, dimly-lighted rooms where boys are made to seat very close together for want of adequate space. Whenever one enters such an over-congested room, one is sure to get at once a very bad smell of vitiated air. Young children are compelled, in the name of rational education, to breathe in it for full five hours almost every day in the early part of their lives.

It is far better, I think, to have, whenever and wherever practicable, open air classes under big trees such as banyan, fig or mango close to the school compound or open verandahs of the school buildings. Pure and pleasant breeze, open sky and sufficient light of the sun conduce to a healthy state of mind which becomes fit for receiving impressions from without with great ease. We made the experiment and found it most efficacious. If boys are once accustomed to open-air-classes, they would hardly go into class-rooms except during the rains. It is surely less costly because we can conveniently do away with benches, chairs and tables and substitute small pieces of blankets in the old Indian fashion. Certainly benches and desks are not essentials to education in the proper sense of the word.

5. The intellect of our average students is rather keen and subtle but is almost of no use in the practical world on account of bodily weakness. Healthy mind in an un-

healthy body is a physical absurdity. Compulsory physical exercises after school hours, inter-school football and cricket matches and prizes to successful competitors are the best remedies. Physical labour is an effective antidote to various other bad habits attendant on youth.

6. If the fund permits, every school ought to have manual training classes. Carpentry is surely expensive but clay modelling is exceedingly cheap. Models of domestic animals, birds, fishes as well as their internal organs are most instructive and useful even to adults. They can very easily be prepared in schools by especially trained teachers with nominal costs. We have peculiar idea about manual labour which is not degrading in the least but is honourable, for India now wants trained youths for regenerating her various industries.

7. School gardens help self-activity in children, who become interested in vegetable life, watch their plants, water them and observe frequently their growth. Thus power of observation of nature is engendered in early age, which is so sadly wanting in us. But how many schools have such useful gardens attached to them?

8. We attach undue importance to books and neglect Nature Study. Every good school ought to provide for an aquarium where aquatic animals like fish and tadpoles can be watched and studied more easily. To study terrestrial life a terrarium can easily be made with a wooden box having a thin net cover on the lid and pieces of glass in the sides. Such a box will help children to observe the life-history of various insects, *e.g.*, ants, dragon-fly, silk worm, etc.

9. To teach self-reliance children should be made to help their servants in various

household duties such as cleaning and dusting one's own shoes and books. They must not be allowed to depend helplessly upon menial servants for mere trifles, otherwise manual labour would be considered degrading. If we really wish we can make our boarding-houses seminaries for teaching self-help and self-reliance which are sadly wanting in us. Boys getting such training will look to their servants in another light. Servants will no longer be regarded as menials but useful helpers and in time the sadly widening gulf between the so-called educated and illiterate classes will thereby be bridged greatly.

10. Education is gradually becoming too expensive to the lower as well as middle class people; whereas it ought to have been very cheap, if not free at all. Without mass education beneficial measures of Government and various other laws of public health are often looked upon with suspicion and distrust by our common people. During epidemics which carry off thousands of poor victims, we can do almost nothing to check their progress now. But with spread of mass education cholera, small-pox, malaria and many other diseases can more easily be checked as in the case of an advanced European country like Italy. Moreover our illiterate agriculturists derive practically no benefit from the useful experiments of Government farms like the people of the United States of America.

11. In the progressive countries of the West, Primary education has been made free and compulsory. It is gratifying to learn that this system of free education has been introduced into the backward province of Assam with necessary increase in the number of the schools and students. If this enlightened and beneficial policy of free and compulsory

education be followed in all the provinces of India, this ancient land of enlightenment and education will make wonderful progress in no time like Japan.

12. In our ancient society it was free but not compulsory. Even now Hindu Pandits, poor though they are, still impart free Sanskrit education in their private "tols." Instead of receiving any remuneration from the pupils they supply them with free board and lodging. Free education is now an impossibility without substantial help of the benign Government. However our wealthy men can help boys of poorer classes to get Primary education freely in ordinary schools with monthly stipends or scholarships. Can't we keep one or two poor children in our family and help them in getting elementary education at least?

13. Education to be effective must be through the vernacular of the place. Foreign language is rather a hindrance to mental development, especially in the case of boys of the lower classes. Even in the higher classes scientific subjects are better explained in the vernacular than in English. Foreign language like foreign clothes is rather inconvenient. Assimilation of knowledge, except through the mother-tongue, is very slow, difficult and less effective. In order to acquire scientific and higher knowledge of the world we must learn a foreign tongue and English is the best suited language to us for various reasons. For inter-communication and of interchange of ideas between the different parts of India, English is also necessary now. We cannot do without it. Hence fluency of speech in English with proper pronunciation and accent should be cultivated more by the direct method than that of mere translation and re-translation.

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14. We teach Sanskrit, geometry and geography to the exclusion of physiology, hygiene and first aid to the injured, though the latter are more useful. Are not pollution of drinking water in villages, prevention of cholera, small-pox and malaria subjects more important for the nation than the fictitious stories of Panchatantras, problems of geometry or the physical features of Africa and America? We seldom teach artificial respiration, though it is an absolute necessity in cases of accidental drowning which is not a rare calamity here. I do not deprecate the educative values of geometry and geography but I want to impress the importance of more necessary subjects on the minds of our readers.

15. Do our schools teach our children the dangers due to various kinds of flies, especially the commonest of them all, the house-flies, which convey as many diseases as all the rest together? We are profoundly ignorant about the superior purity of the free air out of doors at night and hence we close our doors and windows and thus arrest ventilation in our bed-rooms during hours of sleep and thus lose much of the refreshment that we ought to gain.

We find good many people of the lower classes, *e.g.*, cobblers, carpenters, petty shop-keepers and sweepers, sleeping at night on the open streets of Simla and enjoy sound health. But none of the higher class people would even venture the experiment with open windows at night. Thanks to their education.

16. Water-borne diseases carry off multitudes of our people annually; still the fouling of the sources of water-supply is a national custom, not only among the people of the illiterate classes but also among the so-called educated people—both male and female.

The remedy lies in educating the people about the laws of public health and raising their ideals of conduct and duty.

17. Though our students pass the University examinations very successfully still they do practically nothing in their after lives. It is due to want of regularity of habits in doing something with a special purpose. Our boys are generally seen to labour hard before the annual examination. This spasmodic labour is really detrimental to regularity of habits without which no man can succeed in after life. Class promotion ought to depend absolutely upon the average marks of weekly examinations. This creates regularity in study, engenders sustained labour and above all a habit of regularity in work which is so very useful in life.

18. It is needless now to dwell upon the importance of moral lessons. Examples are always better than precepts. In our schools every arrangement for imparting religious education is not possible but without regular practice of religious rites and studies of religious books of a catholic nature, the moral side of our minds can never be properly developed. Hence every attempt ought to be made to impart liberal religious education as far as practicable in every school, for formation of character in early life depends upon spiritual teachings and personal examples of parents and teachers.

JNANENDRANARAYAN ROY,

A POPULAR LIBRARY FOR MADRAS.

THE critics of the educated Indian, are many, and the most vigorous of them is the Anglo-Indian. Having it in his power to do much good to the people, he refrains from doing it, and he does not realise that when he stands up as a critic he pledges himself to the task of reformation. The charge that, for instance, is in season and out of it trumped up against those who have received the benefits of Western education is that they have shown themselves to be incapable of advanced intellectual work. There are among us some who allow themselves to be reasoned by words such as these into the belief that we are really lacking in those qualities which have made higher academical work possible in the West, but there are also to be found a few, who, believing in the possibilities of Indian intellect, seek to account for the absence of intellectual activities in a variety of ways,—very few of which, however, take them to the real underlying cause. Without attempting to lead us in the work of elevating ourselves, the Anglo-Indian, and especially the red-tape-bound Government official, does his daily duty, and turns critic,—even when the acts the results of which are subjected to criticism are his own. The Anglo-Indian manages to make Gothic a subject of very great importance, and then reproaches Indians with not being capable of doing high-class work, forgetting that he ought to have known that no one who has not received a sufficient grounding in a few of the European languages cannot be fit for even the assimilation of the researches made by competent scholars. There is indeed a good deal of truth in the remark that our Universities have not yet turned out men who have

distinguished themselves by eminence in scholarly pursuits. But the paucity of such men is due, in a large measure, directly or indirectly, to the fact that the Anglo-Indian,—who is influential for good or evil, being invested with power,—has not realised the need of methods suitable to the special conditions of our country. Knowing, as it ought to have known, how few collections of English books were in this country, Government failed to provide good libraries even in those Colleges which it started for the purpose of training up students for University degrees, and it was only in recent years that it thought of libraries in connection with even the Universities. Government, till within recent years, gave no facilities for the conversion of our Universities from examining into teaching bodies, and yet its Anglo-Indian officers were never slow to condemn our Universities for having been merely the organisers of examinations. But we, Indians, must realise that we have a duty that we owe to ourselves, and that we should ourselves find out remedies for our defects and apply them, whether the Anglo-Indian helps us or does not.

We cannot shut our eyes to the fact that there is not much of advanced intellectual activity in our country. It is really pitiable that in a vast country like ours,—a country which was once the world's laboratory of thought,—there are not to be found more than a mere handful,—granting that we do have a handful,—of scholars who can compare favourably with the scholars of the West. As we have remarked above, one potent cause is the absence of facilities for what may be called the intensive cultivation of the intellect. Another cause, which is of even greater importance, and which is worthy of study from other standpoints also, is that there is

not in the country the atmosphere that alone would make advanced intellectual pursuits possible. Even those who have won a University degree lose in a short time all that they gained by having gone through a University course, with the result that even in metropolitan cities real intellectual life is at a low ebb. The average standard of culture being therefore very low, it is not surprising that high-grade intellectual work does not find congenial elements in such arid surroundings. A young graduate full of zeal and interest, gets called to the bar, or secures a place in some educational institution, or a job in Government service, and settles in some mofussil town; though he finds his work pressing heavily on him, he manages to find some time to devote to books, but he finds in a short time that the books in his town are very few, and he is gradually compelled by force of circumstances to drift into the back-waters of intellectual life and to be content with his daily paper,—if he can afford it,—or an odd number of *Tit-Bits*. If this is the plight of a graduate who may be taken to be tolerably well-off, we may well conceive the state in which graduates on twenty or twenty-five a month, ever anxious about the continuance of their famine-allowance of three rupees, are likely to be; an old edition of the Revenue Board's 'Standing Orders' or a tattered copy of some guide to *Precis-writing* is all their wealth in the way of books. Diligent applications to school-boys for books may bear fruit in the shape of 'Nelson's Second Reader' or of some attenuated version of 'The Children of the New Forest.' Even if they are able to buy books, local book-sellers are not enterprising enough to procure books even to order, and 'V. P. P.' charges swallow up the small amounts

that the slender purses of these gentlemen would allow them to set apart for books. No wonder that gentlemen who have received inferior education do not generally trouble themselves about self-culture. Now and then we come across the pathetic spectacle of a man, who does want to improve himself, seriously fingering the musty pages of some antique copy of Bacon's 'Essays',—the only book in his house,—given as a prize to an uncle or a brother,—a prodigy of the fourth standard who however never darkened the threshold of any Secondary school. Need any further picture be drawn of the condition of our women, and need we speak in detail of the limited opportunities that our young ladies have of widening their intellectual horizon? Things are not much better in the metropolitan cities even. There has been in recent years much of improvement, but we cannot say that the improvement has been satisfactory. Schools for boys and girls have multiplied, and the proportion of literacy is gradually rising, but shrewd observers have not failed to note that the amount of reading after leaving school continues to be negligible. It would indeed be remarkable if in such surroundings, there flourished the instinct for intellectual work. The conditions that call into existence work of a high stamp being absent, it is not surprising that the charge of intellectual sterility cannot be easily rebutted.

We have to consider further in this connection one other question of great importance. Through the great endeavours of the greatest of our statesmen we have come to realise the importance of at least Primary education. But none of us have paid adequate attention to some allied problems. A knowledge of the three R's can be given, but

what can we do to keep those who would be educated at public expense from forgetting what they would learn? Should we make primary education compulsory for no other purpose than that ragged urchins may spell out scraps of ill-printed hand-bills about theatrical performances? If those who have conducted night-schools for the poor will only make enquiries about the state of the literacy in after life of those who were trained to read and write, with considerable trouble, they will find how bootless their endeavours have been. It may indeed be argued that the propagation of a knowledge of reading and writing will naturally create a craving for books, and that that craving will induce people to buy books. It must however be borne in mind that even in countries like England where only a microscopically small minority may be said to be illiterate, there is not much of desire in the lower strata of the population to buy books, or even to read them. Even those among us who are ardent social reformers and would agitate for advanced education for our young women are not often able to make provision for a good collection of books in our houses. The problem with us now is not only how to propagate knowledge of rudimentals but also how to keep the education imbibed by all classes of people from diminishing or deteriorating or even vanishing. This problem is of great importance on account of the social results of a policy of indifference. Our country has lost greatly by the failure to provide any remedy for these evils, and stands to lose in greater degree in the years to come if we do not grapple with the problem as soon as we may. The individual, it must have become evident to the reader, is powerless. It is found in England that even those whose

annual income may be estimated at about £100 have benefited greatly by the establishment in recent years of rate-supported free libraries. In India the average member of the classes which correspond to those which in England enjoy an income approximately of £100 a year is the person who stands in need of help, as his economic condition is such that he cannot help himself, either as an unrelated individual or as a member of an organised body of narrow scope. He thinks twice before buying books, for he is afraid that he would not be prudent in investing his spare coins in something which would lose its utility for him after three or four readings,—and while on the one hand he has lively apprehensions of white ants and little urchins, there are on the other the distant forebodings of a need arising of shelves and of house-rent for them. He is desirous, as indeed he ought to be, of his wife deriving the benefits of reading books, and wishes to buy books in English and in his vernacular but knows that he is too poor to buy books in even one of the two languages. Objection must also be taken to any suggestion that such persons should be content with the books that they may be able to borrow of their friends and acquaintances, for the suggestion loses sight of the importance of the elevation of the literate classes, of the pernicious moral effects of systematic borrowing and of the immensity of the waste of intellectual labour that is occasioned inevitably by the haphazard study of the books which can become at with ease. Even the cheap reprints that are now very common in the market are too costly for the men whom we have in view; an English labourer or clerk can spare six pence or a shilling with greater ease than an Indian,—the economic conditions of the two countries being such that six

pence or a shilling represents less of sacrifice on the Englishman's part than do six annas or twelve on the Indian's.

The problem, therefore, is how to provide facilities for the growth of enlightenment in the land. There has been in recent years a real recognition by our Government and by the public of the importance of the spread of education, but the need of making arrangements for the improvement in one's after-life of the education received during the school-going days has not been recognised, and is even denied. But as has been well remarked, the conceding of the position that education should be widespread and the denying of the necessity of the State providing for the subsequent spread of enlightenment, is like granting £97 and withholding the indispensable balance of £3. At least as much importance must be attached to the education of the adults of a community as is done to that of people of 'school-going age.' Progressive peoples in the West have realised this, and it is only the English who have not chosen to take effective steps in this direction, and we in India, being dominated by those who know, and probably care to know, none but English ways and methods, have also devoted very little of thought to the subject. It is some consolation, however, that a city like Bombay, a community like the Andhras, and a State like Baroda have moved in the matter. It would indeed be a matter for gratification if attempts are made by responsible bodies to supply reading 'matter' to all classes of people. The great Municipal Corporations of our country may well make a beginning; it is, in truth, one of the functions of such corporations. In England, for instance, municipalities and parishes have the power by general vote to levy a special rate

for the purpose of establishing public libraries. It is by Free Libraries, some of which are lending ones, and by public lectures that popular instruction is sought to be imparted in the West. Our corporations may at least start Free Lending Libraries for the benefit of their citizens.

The need of such is patent. Let us, for instance, take our own city. There is at present no institution that provides with any approach to either adequacy or accessibility the varied demands in the way of reading-matter in English and the Vernaculars which proceed from that class—a class quite naturally of great significance in the city,—which having passed the school-going age and being engaged in bread-winning pursuits, has but a few odd hours to spare for purposes of what may in the widest sense of the term be called literary activity. The Connemara and the Adyar libraries require their clientele to go to them, and are not easily accessible, situated as they are in places which are not connected by easy means of communication with all the populous portions of the city; the University Library is meant only for graduates, and the Madras Literary Society is too costly for the middle-class man who has but little to spare for these purposes. If therefore the means to knowledge can be made more easily available by being made free, or at least very cheap, and rendered accessible, some advance would be made towards wiping off the reproach that there is no intellectual activity in the land,—for such a state of things is in great part attributable to our people not having had the facilities in the way of books, etc., which alone can render that activity possible. Accessibility spells, however, much more

when we consider the special circumstances of Madras than in the case of other cities. Towns or parishes being generally compact areas a single centrally-placed library will satisfy the requirements of such localities. But a straggling city like Madras in which communications are by no means easy or quick, a single library will not ensure easy accessibility of books. The Connemara Library has amply proved the folly of an inconsiderate choice of a site for a consulting library. That another bad choice has been made in the case of the University Library must also make us draw pointed attention to the provision of suitable means for making books easily accessible to the readers,—for, only think of a person in search of information on some point having to start from the Literary Society's Library at Nungambakam and having to pass to the Library of the Registrar of Books, then to the Victoria Technical Institute's Library and to the Connemara Library, and then to the University Library at Chepauk, and afterwards to the Ranade Library at Mylapore, and on to the Theosophical Society's Library at Adyar, and determine if zeal in the cause of knowledge is likely to survive the thought of going on such a chase.

If the citizens are really to derive benefit, a central library feeding a number of branches is necessary. It is not impossible to provide in each division or ward a kind of reading-room,—just as in almost every division there is a special building for the Works department,—at which the citizens may on application receive, after the lapse of the necessary time, books which in response to their application will be supplied by the Central Library. An ample measure of precaution against the contingency of books not

being returned by those who avail themselves of the book-loans will be found in the insisting on every one anxious to participate finding a house-holder to stand surety for him. Of course, it is possible to devise expedients by which persons who can afford to pay for the services of the Library can be made to contribute towards the expenses of its upkeep and by which communities like the Eurasian or the Anglo-Indian, which on account of the heads of important departments coming from their ranks or being subject to their influence derive much more advantage than falls to the share of other communities, may be allowed to have no greater facilities than the other communities of the city.

Such a library is sure to be very popular. The Connemara Library has failed of its purpose owing, among other causes, to its being averse to 'catch' the general reader, to its specialisation in the field of Biology and its failure to be a guide to the reader. Its books do not appeal to the man who seeks innocent pleasure or relaxation being meant for the painstaking student; till recently the library had no subject-index worth the name, and even now, not many know that in the library are to be found 'Hansard' and the published papers of the Patent Office, and not even the staff can tell you if a certain important blue-book is in the library; and since owing to the absence of the 'open-access' system even dictionaries and other reference-books have to be supplied by the staff from different parts of the library, and since compassion is quickly roused on behalf of the two attenders who have to offer help and advice to the public, to receive and copy down the applications for books, and to go in search of books,—often in vain, when it is a blue-book or a

periodical,—go up and down rickety ladders, and to attend to the telephone, the man who goes to the library returns home without doing much work, and decides that the library is not suited for busy men. Its unpopularity is further due to the fact that it is the last place which offers any prospect of light-reading. No one can therefore draw an inference against the idea of the extension of Libraries from the failure of the Connemara Library to attract readers.

A popular library should consist of books chosen with a view to the tastes and the needs of those for whom it is intended. The Library, it would be agreed on all hands, should not consist of such books as are said to be purveyed by, say, Mudie, but it should aim at more serious purposes. No useful purpose can ever be served by making the library a receptacle for six-pence nostrums and penny dreadfuls, but the library must undertake the supply of works of authors of acknowledged merit like,—to name only contemporaries, and that in the field of literature alone,—Hardy, Bernard Shaw, Maeterlinck, Chesterton or Masfield, whose books rarely, if ever, get into the hands of the average man. The aim of the library must be educative, indirectly to a large, and directly to a limited, extent. Provision for the learning by our average man of the rudiments of all the sciences, especially of those which may with tolerable ease and profit be learned at home, will have to be made. Specialisation in an appropriate subject may also be encouraged by it,—say, problems of Local Self-Government. Aids to proper study in the shape of subject-indexes and guides to 'local-matter,' and aids to concretizing knowledge, in the way of appliances such as the stereoscope, which give embodiment to things which otherwise lose their signifi-

cance and leave behind in mental apprehension no more than a nebulous impression, may be provided, and they would contribute greatly to the popularising of knowledge. The library may, in short, have as its principal, though not the sole, object, the furnishing of the materials for the pursuit of self-culture. If such a popular and at the same time educative purpose is the aim of the library, no one need doubt that it will be able to attract a large proportion of those for whom it is intended, and it will be doing much towards the reclamation of intellect-out-of-school.

Our cities must not hesitate to take upon themselves the wider responsibilities of advanced communal life. Enlightened men should strive to induce our Government to permit our Municipalities to move in this direction. If the present Act regulating the powers of the Madras Corporation is not liberal enough, we should endeavour to procure insertion in the new Act which we are likely to have in the near future of a clause enabling it to raise a special rate for such purposes, similar to the enabling powers possessed by Municipal and other local bodies in England. The need of such a library is great, and it will not be difficult to make it a success. But, will we start one?

AN EDUCATIONIST.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE HIGHER FORMS OF OUR SCHOOLS.

ANY subject when it is not rationally and interestingly expounded is apt to create in the learner's mind a sort of aversion if not disgust. This is most true in regard to geography where the nature of the subject matter is such that a part of it is necessarily the study of isolated facts. If the study of geography meant solely the cramming of a great many place names there is sufficient reason for our boys hating it; but it is not so. The names not only form a small portion of geography but they are also the least important and the most transient study. Not that we should quite dispense with names, because that is impossible, but we could minimise them in order to supplant their place with sounder and more solid information. The teaching of geography is unfortunately a very dull business in most schools, but we must congratulate ourselves on having achieved such amount of improvement as has been possible. The days of "Where are the following and what are they noted for?" is irrevocably gone. Now-a-days we are steadily making an attempt to combine the "rational" part of geography with the "irrational." By rational geography is meant the study of the various phenomena of the earth as a concatenation of causes and effects. Thus for instance tides are caused by the attraction of the sun and the moon, water and air currents are set afoot owing to thermal difference in these elements, and so on.

It is a matter for regret that in many schools very little attention is paid to mathematical and physical geography. A continent is generally prescribed for study in the higher forms in schools. The usual way to set about it is

of course to describe the natural boundaries, capes at the cardinal points, mountains, rivers, lakes and other peculiarities, if any. Then come the political divisions, climate and vegetation, industry and commerce, capitals and towns otherwise important. These are roughly the general lines along which geography lessons are taught.

Now, there is nothing unsound in the nature of this scheme. Almost all geography text-books conform to this method more or less in the treatment of countries. But it is to be observed that they provide also mathematical and physical geography, which, by the way is the kernel that gives nutrition for further growth in the study of this branch of science. The general notions about the rotation and revolution of the earth; the inclination of the earth's axis towards the sun which is the cause of seasons, the determination of longitude and latitude, tides, water and air currents, classification of rocks and coral reefs, isotherms and isobars—these and other kindred subjects are usually dealt with in the first few pages of most geography text-books. It is only when we neglect these preliminaries and pass on to the study of continents that boys find the subject either dry and disgusting, or it loses its seriousness as science and passes into the region of mere play.

Geography teaching holds a unique place in our school curriculum. Other branches of knowledge such as English, Science, History, Botany and even Commerical subjects are taught by men who have either undergone a college course in them or have taken certificates at some public examination. The case is different with regard to the teaching of geography. Our study of the subject closes with the High School. Hence the History-graduate of the Madras University who gener-

ally gives geography lessons in the higher forms requires to be well-equipped through private study. When well informed on the subject one is enabled to draft one's own syllabus now that the Government does not issue any. The syllabuses for the High School classes may be arranged in three grades according to the difficulty of the matter. But when one is not prepared to read extensively, it is usual to follow the order of the text-book. Fortunately for such there are a good many well-written geography books in the field.

Still there are difficulties even in the use of the best text-book available. The teacher has yet to make a judicious selection as to what to teach in each of the three forms. He cannot follow the order in the book for in that case the mathematical and physical portions will have to be done in the IV Form and the continents in the next two Forms. This method is open to the objection that certain parts of "General Geography" which require the application of mathematical principles and scientific laws may not be intelligible to the pupils of that class. Thus for instance, the various projections in use for map construction are a little too high for them, but will be suitable to a higher class where something of mensuration is taught. Also a detailed knowledge of air and water currents and their deflection, according to Ferrel's Law may be reserved for a higher form. Thus even in following the order of a text-book a judicious selection has to be made; nay, we have further to determine how far to proceed in the subjects chosen.

The difficulty does not appear to be present in the teaching of "Regional Geography" which consists of a collection of detached facts easy enough to be understood by all. But

even here the memory may be less taxed by slight modification to suit the standard, such as the omission of details and passing mention of themes of scientific turn.

In order to minimise the difficulties above suggested and make the study of geography at once interesting and instructive, is it not better to follow a method which combines the theoretical and "factual" portions of the subject? Its advantages are apparent; on the one hand it avoids the series of dry scientific explanations at a stretch, and on the other, the continuous memorising of multifarious uninteresting names.

Let me illustrate it by an example. Three different continents are prescribed for study in the three classes of the High School. Proceed with each in the order furnished by the text-book; but as the lesson goes on, try to bring in as much of "General Geography" as the boys can grasp. Suppose it is the continent of Europe that is being taught. The usual way is to begin with the boundaries and general relief of the continent as a whole. Coming to the snow-covered mountains of the Alps and the Scandinavians in connection with the relief, an opportunity is afforded of explaining the snowline, glaciers, moraines, icebergs, and the classification of rocks. The teacher is of course to decide what to touch upon and what not, according to the difficulty of the phenomenon. Again, speaking about the rivers there is room to explain the phenomenon of the tides that rise to such great heights in the Seine and the Garonne. The mention of the Gulf Stream may bring in the whole matter of water currents. Or again, passing on to the study of countries, there are splendid opportunities to dilate upon the theory of volcanoes in connection with Etna and Hekla; upon the theory of mineral

springs of Germany and the Geysers of Iceland, and upon the principle of the Artesian well. Even some portions of mathematical geography can be brought in, as for example, when a lesson is given on map drawing, one may say a few words on the various projections and the longitudes and latitudes.

This method can thus be made to comprise under it almost everything of "General Geography" dealt with usually in the first few pages of geography text-books under the study of continents, when skilfully handled. I wish it to be given an honest trial by every one who wishes to improve geography teaching.

D. S. GORDON.

SYSTEM OF TEACHING DRAWING—ITS DEFECTS AND REMEDIES.

ACCORDING to the present system of Educational rules and regulations, all teachers must have some knowledge in drawing. It is a necessary qualification for a successful teacher. We all know that the black-board illustration, however rough and imperfect it may be, giving a clear idea of the object, saves a good deal of energy of the teacher. Therefore it is needless to emphasize that a knowledge of drawing is an essential qualification for a teacher. Some are of opinion that this taste in drawing comes down to them only as a gift. But it is entirely wrong to think so. Nothing is impossible to those who have a mind to work and learn. Therefore if proper training is given to those who study the art, they are sure to take interest in it and make good progress. But there are people who have a natural taste for some arts. If one has some taste in drawing, it is a bit easier for him to acquire that

art. But bad training may also spoil this taste in boys. In order that they may not lose their natural liking for the subject, a proper system of training boys is required. We know that a proper training in drawing is an advantageous thing for a student. The readiness with which the eye and the mind are made to observe things, the gradual progress with which the imaginative power is developed, the habit of neatness and cleanliness which one acquires by a good training in this subject, are, evidently, the outcome of a system of teaching drawing. In addition to these points it may also be borne in mind that it is of very great importance in connection with industrial and commercial pursuits. But the system which many teachers follow now-a-days of teaching the subject in schools, is not of much advantage to students.

Though the old system of giving out copies with printed figures to students invariably is now gone, yet it is followed in many institutions. They give these copies to all the students without any difference either in respect of age or class. After giving these copies, they ask the students to draw similar figures in their respective books without giving any explanation or instructions for drawing them. The students draw these figures, which is wrong according to the correct principles of teaching the subject. Again some teachers who seem to think they have left entirely the old system, often follow the same system in a different way. Instead of giving out copies of figures, they give to the class a written figure on the black-board. These teachers when they enter the class go straight on to the board and write there on a figure. They never care to see either to the discipline of the boys or to their readiness to feel the change of subject for which the whole institution takes only a very little care. Then they ask the boys to draw similar

figures without giving the necessary instructions for drawing them. After the students have done their duty of drawing the figure whether rightly or wrongly, the teachers collect these books and correct them by themselves, without making the students understand the principles of drawing the figure. So whenever the students are asked to draw the same figure a second time, say at the time of the inspection, the students failed to draw the same figure correctly and in the proper way. How can the teacher create interest in his boys with this method of teaching the subject? Therefore the system to be followed in teaching pupils must be one, that is, profitable as well as interesting to them. We know that little boys will not be able to receive so much instructions as slightly grown-up ones can do. Therefore the instruction to be given to boys must be different and at the same time it should be suitable to them.

In the Primary classes, a short lesson with plenty of illustrations must be taken. The teacher should make it interesting with the help of examples. He should not weary those little boys with too many of them. He should proceed bit by bit with his subject putting suitable and interesting questions to them. He should explain the various parts of the object chosen, in simple and clear language. He should show the construction of the figure only step by step. Therefore when he arrives at the intended figure in the end, the boys will feel very glad and consequently they will take much interest in the subject. They will listen to the teaching of their master very carefully. If on the other hand, he showed the figure at first to his students; then they will not take so much pains to attend to the instructions of the teacher, however valuable and important they may be in themselves; for it is a known fact that little boys are not capable of having as much power of concentration as grown-up students. Then what is the result?

They will not take interest in the subject. So the teaching must be done by starting from the first principle. Unless the teacher follow such a method of teaching the subject, he will not be able to make them understand what he is teaching. In the Lower Secondary classes, the figure to be drawn may be shown beforehand to the students and suitable questions may be put to them and the teacher may draw the figure bit by bit as he goes on eliciting answers. In the High School forms the same figure should be given to all students and they should be asked to draw the figure in the required size. The teacher should explain to them only those points which he thinks necessary for their right understanding of the subject. In these classes, the boys will be somewhat grown up and by this time they will be trained up to some extent to follow quickly the explanations of the teacher. Here the old system of giving out printed copies to every student may be followed.

For the normal students in the training institutions, and other teachers, a high degree of proficiency and accuracy in drawing is not essential. They are not required to have the same amount of accuracy as the drawing-teachers ought to have. They should possess a certain amount of practice in free-hand drawing so that they may be able to draw quickly on the blackboard the figure of the object which they are describing to their students. The figure need not be very exact. But it should approximately resemble the object. The object of learning drawing in the case of teachers is to enable them to draw figures by way of suitable and appropriate illustrations when necessary. This means the power of drawing a figure in a ready and off-hand manner. Therefore to gain this end, the drawing-master in the training institutions should impress clearly in the minds of his pupils, the proportion of the various parts of the object as a whole. With

this object in view instructions should be given during class hours.

In conclusion, the following general remarks may not be considered out of place here. It is generally known that the drawing period in schools is considered by pupils as practically a leisure hour, a fact for which the drawing-master is personally responsible. It is evidently due to the lack of energy, and enthusiasm on his part, sometimes also accompanied by insufficient preparation and bad methods. Another reason for this state of things should be I think, that the subject does not figure as a prominent one in the School Final Examination. The weakness of the pupils in this subjects is practically of no consequence to them, and so long as they are in the good books of the drawing-master, they are safe; hence the laxity.

A third reason suggests itself to me and it is the oft-experienced insufficiency of the teacher's attainments. Although an examination success is quite a desideratum for a teacher, there are other elements that should not be overlooked. The capacity to explain and to make others understand what he knows, is a more necessary qualification for a teacher without which anything like success is impossible. If these shortcomings are in a way remedied, and, if possible, altogether prevented, I am sure that this important subject will occupy the high place that it deserves and become one of the most interesting and best attended of the subjects taught in our schools.

A DRAWING-MASTER.

SCHOOLS UNDER PRIVATE MANAGEMENT.

SUPREME efforts are needed to raise the motherland to a high and respectable position among the nations of the world: the work to be done is immense; and it is a thousand pities that the educational institutions which are the organs that must do this work largely are being ill-managed.

In introducing the Elementary Education Bill the late Mr. Gokhale has rightly observed, "I think it is not unfair to say that one important test of the solicitude of a Government for the true well-being of its people is the extent to which, and the manner in which, it seeks to discharge its duty in the matter of education. As there has not risen among us as yet a sufficiently large number of men of true selflessness and genuine patriotism, it is the duty of the Government to see that the educational institutions under private management also are as well managed as they ought to.

True, the Government are doing something for bettering these institutions by offering liberal grants and promising support for the establishment of Provident Fund for teachers. But they have failed to secure to the school-master the one thing needed to make his condition easy, comfortable and cheerful—to suit his permanency in the institution in which he serves.

What is it, it may be asked, that makes his position insecure? As has been pointed out frequently by correspondents in the *Hindu*, the managers of several of these institutions interfere in the internal management of the school—in promoting boys from one class to another, in distributing work among the assistants, in exercising control over and exacting work from the servants of the school

and the like. If the headmaster or any of his assistants show the least sign of resentment, he is served with a notice to quit in a few months thereafter.

Again the managers of such institutions *are not at all doing their duty*, do not move their little finger in financially strengthening them with a view to improve the prospects of the teachers and to make them work with increased vigour and enthusiasm, and with a view to attract to the profession a larger number of conscientious workers. They are, most of them, men of self-seeking empty pride. They are running these institutions to gain their own objects. So they keep the entire staff of the school, even the headmaster, quite ignorant of the financial condition of the school,—what amount is actually collected, what amount is spent and how this is spent, though the whole amount, with which they pay themselves and the staff and purchase all the requisites for the school, is, as a matter of fact, earned by the over-worked poor class of school-masters. Why, even the school edifices which, these self-seeking managers try to make the public believe have been built at great sacrifice by themselves, are built "out of the blood shed by school-masters." In these institutions special fees are levied in these days when very high rates of school fees are collected; but they are not wholly spent for the purpose for which they are collected; nor are all possible facilities afforded to the students. Several of these institutions are, in these days of one Inspector to two districts and one Assistant Inspector to a district, without a decent library, a well-equipped laboratory and a good set of qualified teachers of abiding interest. Even the few that may be, these make it their first duty, on opening a daily newspaper packet,

to look into the advertisement columns. And if the headmaster or any of his assistants ask for anything that may be absolutely necessary for the school work, he is marked and served with a notice to quit when the services of one who will ponder to the wishes of the manager can be procured. And to strengthen the hands of the management in this, complaints are got from all possible quarters and preserved to be used when necessary.

Such institutions do not die a natural death as might be expected but thrice for a sufficiently long time. For parents are most of them, non-English-knowing men and do not know which school is well-managed and which not. Many of them are moreover apathetic and yield weakly to their boys and send them to the school which is liked by them for the simple reason that they are allowed to have their own ways there and are sometimes advised to prefer complaints to managers against the masters and even against the headmaster when they happen to be strict with them, as freely as some assistant-masters.

What is the kind of training that our future generation—the hope of our motherland, is getting in such institutions? What is the fate of the poor school-masters who are drawn in from far off places by the tempting grades of salaries, the second or third step in which they are not sure of reaching and by offering which the management is fully conscious it is not going to be the whit loser.

Have not the Government reserved to themselves the right of vetoing the resolutions of the Local Fund Boards and Municipalities? Are not these bodies to prepare and present to the Government for approval their annual budget? Are not these to elect or appoint at least their executive heads subject to the

approval of the Government? Are not the managers of schools and colleges collecting money from the public for set purposes? Are not the Government aiding these institutions with grants from the public funds? Are not therefore the Government bound to see that these monies are well spent and these institutions are well-managed; to safeguard the interests of thousands of school-going population; to protect the interests of hundreds of school-masters who have voluntarily or out of necessity taken to the profession of teaching which is ever and anon being praised both on the platform and in the press as the noblest of professions; and prevent the already sorriest of trades from becoming sorrier still.

A HEADMASTER.

SYLLABUS OF LECTURES ON THE EMPIRE OF VIJAYANAGAR

By PROF. S. KRISHNASWAMI Aiyangar,
University of Madras.

Lecture I.

Introductory remarks on the Geography of South India—The Tungabhadra Valley the cockpit of contending nations—The site of the city an ideal spot for the purpose for which the city came into being—Sources of information.

Lecture II.

Sketch of the history of South India leading up to this—The Hoysalas and the Pandyas, the only remaining powers of the South—Vijayanagar, founded as an offshoot of the former to meet a new emergency—The successful advance of the Muhammadans in the South.

Lecture III.

Mahammadans in South India—Allau-ud-din's invasions mere raids. Malik Kafur's, of a higher degree but no better in character—Some permanent conquest under Mubarak—Foundation of

the Viceroyalty of Deogiri—Character of the Muhammadan conquest.

Lecture IV.

Muhammad Tughlak—his invasions of the Dekhan—Position of Deogiri Viceroyalty—Attempt to make Deogiri the capital of the Empire—Failure of this project and its consequences—One of these a general intrigue of the Hindus in the South to throw off the Muhammadan yoke. Foundation of Vijayanagar Empire the culmination of this effort.

Lecture V.

Bahā-ud-din's rebellion—Attack and destruction of Kampli—Bahā-ud-din's flight to the Hoysala for asylum—Surrender and death of the rebel—Foundation of Vijayanagar, as a set off to the destruction of Kampli—Hoysala Bellala III, the founder—The coronation of the heir-apparent at Hampi—Concerted action on the part of the Hindu States—Disappearance of the Hoysalas.

Lecture VI.

Founders of Vijayanagar—Five brothers, Harihara, Bukka, &c., their probable origin—Vidyaranya's help—Usual tales of origin of the great city—its original name Hampi from the ancient village and temple—the city known Vidyānagara and Vijayanagar—the latter alternative due to Bukka's achievement.

Lecture VII.

Foundation of the Bahmani kingdom—its position at the commencement—Sultan Allau-ud-din. Husan Gangu—his conquests—extent of his territory at his death.—Contact with Vijayanagar impossible—Position of Warangal.

Lecture VIII.

The first wars chiefly against Warangal—Muhammad Shah—His wars against Warangal. Death of Vināyaka Dēva—Muhammad's position in relation to the Emperor at Delhi—Failure of the mission soliciting aid—Declaration of war against Vijayanagar—Battle of Adoni—Firishta's account of the achievements has largely to be discounted.

His account based on Tofat-us-Sultān of Mulla Davood Bidury.

Lecture IX

Harihara I. and Bukka, A.D. c. 1336?—1376—Their position as determined by inscriptions and those of their brothers and viceroys. Their character as feudatory to the Bellala—The general character of the movement they led—The achievement of Bukka—The Vijayanagar Empire long before his death in A.D. 1376—Firishta's account of Mujahid's conquests almost impossible.

Lecture X

Harihara II. A.D. 1376—1404—Firuz Shah of Kalburga—Assassination of a Vijayanagar Prince—Harihara's reign one of peace essentially—His assumption of the titles of Imperial dignity consequent on Firuz Tughlak's unwillingness to assert his authority or help the Muhammadan power in the Dekhan—Bukka II. and Virūpanna, A.D. 1404—1406.

Lecture XI

Deva Rāya I. 1406—1422—The damsel of the Doāb—The war between Deva Rāya and Firuz Shah consequent on Deva Rāya's infatuation with her—Combination against Sultan Firuz, between Gujarat and Malwa on the one side and Vijayanagar on the other. Firuz's embassy to Timur at Delhi—its favourable reception—Firuz's war against Vijayanagar—The marriage between the Vijayanagar Princess and the Sultan unlikely in the circumstances. The last war of Firuz—The success of Vijayanagar—Assassination of Firuz—The general character of the reign of Deva Rāya.

Lecture XII

Vijaya A.D. 1418—1424 and Deva Rāya II. 1422—1449—The war of Ahmad against Deva Rāya II—Siege of Vijayanagar ending in a treaty of peace—Allau-ud-din's accession—Complications with his Muhammadan neighbours of Khandesh, Guzerat and Malwa—Deva Rāya's military re-organisation. His wars against Allau-ud-din—Attempt on Deva Rāya's life. The end of his reign—Death, A.D. 1448-49.

Lecture XIII

Vijayanagar under Deva Rāya.—Nicolo-dei-Conti—Abdur Razak—His description of the city—The condition of the Empire. Deva Rāya II. the greatest monarch of this dynasty—Extent of the Empire.

Lecture XIV

A visit to the ruins of Vijayanagar, with lantern slides.

Lecture XV

Close of the first dynasty, A.D. 1449—c. 1490. Deva Rāya II.'s successor Mallikādjuna—Assumption of a Deva Rāya III. unnecessary—The rise of the Gajapatis of Orissa—Kapilesvara Gajapati A.D. 1435—1461. The accession of Virūpāksha—His relationship to his predecessor—The character of his accession to power.—Rajasekhara and Virūpāksha II.—Dismemberment of the Empire—Goa, Belgaum, Nuniz—account of the whole transaction. How this has to be explained.

Lecture XVI

The Saluvas—The origin of the name—No connection with Saluva Tikkama the general of the Yadavas. The Saluvas claim descent from the Chālukyas—Gunda I.—Saluva Mangu or Mangi—Gauta, Gunda III.—Tippa his brother, and brother-in-law of Deva Rāya II.—His services to the Empire.

Lecture XVII

Saluva Narasinga—His career upward to the usurpation. The character of his usurpation. His career as ruler—His death and his successor's war against Bijapur. The rise of the Portuguese power—Varthema's record. Albuquerque.

Lecture XVIII

The second usurpation—The Tuluva dynasty—Isvara Naika and Narasa—The character and actual date of this usurpation. Narasa's son Bujabalarāya Vira Narasimha the Busbal Rao of Nuniz who set aside Immadi Narasimha—Accession of Krishna Deva Rāya A.D. 1509.

Lecture XIX

Character and person of Krishna Deva—Bankāpur—Almeida and Fra. Luis' mission—Duarte Barbosa—His description of the city. The King's early wars—Saluva Narasinga's testament—Wars against the Gajapatis. Wars against the Kutb Shahs of Telingana.

Lecture XX

The Siege of Raichur—Its date—Portuguese evidence of the fight—Firishta's story—Presence of the Portuguese—Political results of the fall of Raichur—Krishna Deva's attempt to restore the Bahmani line of Sultans—The mainland of Goa.

Lecture XXI

The public works and benefactions of Krishna Deva.

Lecture XXII

Achyuta Rāya—Fall of Raichur and Mudkal—His conquests in the South—Asada Khan and Goa—Disturbances at Bijapur—Ibrahim Adil Shah in Vijayanagar—Achyuta's ministers—Rise of Rāma Raya and his brothers—Hoje Tirumala—Asada Khan and his defeat of Venkatadri at Adoni—Belgaum and Goa—Portuguese aggressions—Achyuta's benefactions.

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Lecture XXVII

Character and significance of the Empire of Vijayanagar.

THE LARGEST AND THE CHEAPEST HOUSE IN S. INDIA.

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EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Remuneration to Examiners and Examination Fees. by Mr. P. A. Subrahmaniam Aiyer, B. A., L. T.

Mr. P. A. Subrahmaniam Aiyer, Headmaster, Taluk High School, Tenali, writes:—In the middle of the last year the Registrar of the Madras University found, by a miscalculation as it afterwards turned out to be, that the finances of the University were in a bad way and that some means must be found to meet a huge deficit. A small committee of the Senate was appointed to go into the question and advise as to the ways and means of making up the apprehended shortage of income. This Committee made a thorough investigation of the whole case, called for statistics and returns from the sister Universities of Calcutta and Bombay and made some suggestions by way of retrenchment of expenditure. One result of this investigation was the rates of remuneration paid to examiners for setting papers and valuation of answers were 25 to 30 per cent. higher in Madras than in Bombay or Calcutta. It was also discovered that in the Universities of Calcutta and Bombay no travelling allowances of any description are paid to examiners who are nevertheless required to attend meetings and to conduct their ordinary duties irrespective of their residence, while the total amount paid to examiners in Madras under this head came to nearly Rs. 13,000. Having regard to these facts this retrenchment committee recommended that a sum of Rs. 27,500 might be reasonably cut off from the total amount hitherto paid to examiners by way of remuneration, fees and travelling allowance. Shortly after submission of this report, however, the Registrar found that he had made a mistake in the calculation of the University incomes and that there was no fear of any deficit, and so the question of retrenchment of expenditure was dropped. Any way it became perfectly clear that for the same work that is being done by examiners in Calcutta or Bombay those in Madras are paid Rs. 27,500 more than what is paid at either of the other Universities. Can any one in these circumstances contend that the Syndicate or the Senate is unduly partial to the examiners or press unduly hard on the examiners, many of whom happen to be members of either or both of these bodies?

I for one sincerely regret that the Senate did not act upon the suggestions of this retrenchment committee, and effect some reduction in the rates of examination fees. As it is, the average

rates of fees paid for the different University examinations in Madras are not much higher than those obtaining elsewhere, but it should also be noted that the Madras rates "are in no way lower" than at other Universities. I have already pointed out that the rates of fees in Madras colleges are much higher than at others and that no satisfactory provision for poor students by way of scholarships has been made by Government. One was entitled to believe under the circumstances that the Senate would try to remove a little of the burden that now presses very heavily on the parents of students of this admittedly poor province. As it is, they did not do so, and thus let slip an opportunity that they had of showing that they were genuinely solicitous about the expansion of higher education in this province. If the Madras examiners, many of whom as I have already said, are members of the Senate, had in a body declared that they would accept for their services no more than what their brethren at other Universities are paid, and voted in favour of a reduction in the rates of examination fees, the moral effect of it would have been grand and the Madras University would have been enabled to confront its critics with the statement that in the matter of examination fees at any rate, it was more generous than other Universities in India.

Western Poets and Liberty, by Mrs. Annie Besant.

Under the auspices of the Shakespeare Club, Madras, Mrs. Annie Besant recently delivered an interesting lecture on "Western Poets and Liberty" in the Pachaiyappa's Hall, before a large audience of students. Mr. C. P. Ramaswamy Iyer presided.

Mrs. Besant began by observing that genius was intelligence raised to its highest power and it was the creative intellectual power in man. A man of genius was the prophet of his country. Freedom of thought was absolutely necessary for intellectual progress and without the intellectual advancement, scientific, philosophic and other activities could not have made such rapid progress as they all saw in the civilised countries of the world at the present day. A poet was a genius and he was unfettered in the range of his imagination and freedom of expression. She observed that the British Liberty was the outcome of poetic inspiration and that was one of the factors that had made the British Nation so famed for their love of liberty and independence. She referred to the famous lines of Milton,

Shelley, Swinburne and other eminent poets and said that the inspiration for love of freedom in England came largely from poetic literature. Love of liberty was not to be confined to our particular country but it should permeate through every action of a nation in relation to its sister nations. Miltonic poets gave the readers a sublime idea of the love of liberty and Shelley was a genius preaching through his lines freedom of thought and action. Freedom of thought and action should not be the sole monopoly of the conquerors in a national struggle and even the conquered had an equal share in it. The University of freedom must be recognised by all people on earth. India formed a part of the great British Empire and India was in great need of the British inspiration for love of liberty. Such a blessing would come to a country only by her people reading the literature of other nations that taught that freedom of thought and action was the birthright of every individual in a country. She exhorted the audience to become quite familiar with the writings of those poets who had done great benefit to mankind by their writings that taught that no nation could become great without liberty of action.

Professor George Saintsbury, by Sir Robertson Nichol.

Sir Robertson Nichol has an interesting note in the *British Weekly* on Professor Saintsbury's retirement from the Chair of English Literature at Edinburgh. "Coming after Professor David Masson," he says, "he had a difficult task, but he has done his work with distinction and success. We may be sure that he will not be idle now that a time of comparative leisure has arrived for him. He has been, all through, the most indefatigable of workers, and I doubt whether any man in any period of the world ever read as much as he. In fact I have often wished to know the secret of his enormous acquaintance with books of all kinds. He has also written what amounts to a little library, and, whether any one agrees with him or not, one has never any difficulty in tracing a most individual and richly furnished mind in everything he has given us. If there is anything in which he excels, it is in telling the story of a novel expertly. This is one of the most difficult things a man can attempt, for the gift of good narrative criticism is extremely rare. I remember in particular a paper he wrote in the *Fortnightly Review* on Jules Sandan, which was the most perfect thing of its kind I have ever seen."

Professor Saintsbury's range in literature was encyclopædic, ranging from Old French Literature, and obscure critics of renaissance times to recipes for the cooking of 'a fat swan.' His name is better known among Indian students than that of any other modern English man of letters and there can be few living students of literature who are not in some way indebted to him. It is perhaps too early to prophesy concerning his successor but we would fain hope that his old colleague, Professor G. Gregory Smith, one of the most accomplished of living critics of our literature, will return to Edinburgh as successor to his friend and teacher.

The S. S. L. C. Scheme at the Madras Teachers' Guild.

The Madras Teachers' Guild met at Pachaiyappa's College recently under the presidency of Prof. P. Lakshminarasu, and discussed the scheme to find out what is wrong with it.

Mr. V. Venkatasubbya of the Pachaiyappa's College led the discussion. He said that five full years had elapsed since the introduction of the scheme, which was at first accepted as a good substitute for the old Matriculation Examination. The five years were enough to enable the teachers and others interested in education to take stock of merits and demerits of the scheme. There were two aspects of the question, external and internal. For four years the scheme seemed to work well, but last year the principle was departed from and colossal blunders had been committed, especially by the introduction of a moderation scheme. To pass a student to the College course, an average was fixed, but to suit the fancies of the Department of Education and the University, an average of averages was fixed, and the student, however efficient he might be, failed to achieve the ideal.

Then, again, the supplementary course, though conceived in a liberal and sympathetic spirit to alleviate the difficulties of an average student, proved a hardship to them. Every supplementary student was expected to attend all classes and study every subject. This ran counter to the spirit of the scheme. The student was compelled to study the subjects in which he had already passed, marks were entered in the regular course, and the marks in the final public examination were not added to the school marks in deciding the merits of the student. But each was separately taken into account, and an average of averages was fixed and many students were ploughed. Therefore, it would be unwise to compel

supplementary students to study B. Group subjects. They might be compelled to study only English and the optional. So much for the external aspect of the scheme.

With regard to the internal aspect of the scheme, the speaker, from the standpoint of view of a teacher, said that in olden days they had only two terminal examinations. Now there were weekly, monthly, quarterly and half-yearly examinations, which were a nuisance to the teacher who was fully engaged day and night; in the day he had to teach classes and in the night he had to value answer papers. However enthusiastic the teacher might be, his spirit was mercilessly tried and he hardly found time to equip himself with various things that would make him a modern teacher.

At the same time the numerous examinations that took place were a real hardship to the students. The speaker also referred to the marking system, which was indicated by a recent circular issued by the Education Department, and condemned the instruction contained therein. It demanded that the teacher should pay more attention to oral answers. This was unworkable, especially where the class contained full 40 pupils. The teacher could not teach impressively during the time at his disposal and at the same time frame forty questions of equal difficulty to the students. In addition to so many duties the teachers were compelled to do, the Headmaster's duty was not an easy one. In 1910 the fingerprints system was introduced. This work took most of the valuable time the Headmaster had at his disposal, and the little interest he had in education was lost. The schools in the Presidency worked on good, straight lines. Inspectors in their annual rounds certified that everything was satisfactory, but when the public examination was held, various processes were adopted to pass students, and it then became difficult to find where the fault actually lay.

In conclusion the speaker said that the whole scheme was a puzzle, and that some measures should be devised to make the working of the scheme simpler and advantageous to one and all.

A lively discussion then ensued, and, on the motion of Mr. Veeraraghavachariar, the Council was asked to form a committee, with power to add to their number, to frame issues arising out of the scheme and to submit the same before the Guild at an early date.

The meeting then terminated.

The Poetry of Wordsworth, by Mr. Whitaker.

At a meeting of the Shakespeare Club in the Y.M.C.A. Hall, Bangalore, a thoughtful paper on "Wordsworth's Canons of Poetry" was read by Mr. Whitaker, an Oxford under-graduate. After giving a brief account of the poet's life, the lecturer directed attention to the salient features of his poetry. He quoted Matthew Arnold's dictum that "Poetry is the criticism of life" and pointed out how fully Wordsworth satisfied this test. Firstly, Wordsworth was a great student of nature. He was in constant communion with rivers, lakes, mountains, woodland and rustic humanity. Naturally, he was a poet of the calmer and gentler phases of all forms of life. To him did not appeal the tremendousness of the world, — its larger events and sterner passions; and consequently there is nothing of the epic and the dramatic in what he wrote. Secondly, he undertook to write in the simple language which men ordinarily speak. He deviated from the literary artifices employed by his predecessors. He did not write poetry, as they did, to praise or amuse any individual or set of individuals. Poetry was to him, the most fitting vehicle of truth, — that truth which he had come to feel and know as a result of his deep, sincere thought on all the quieter aspects of things human and natural. Therefore he would speak only in the language which men spoke every day. These points were illustrated with apt quotations; and after alluding to Wordsworth's limitations such as his lack of the sense of humour and his futile attempts to interpret science in verse, the lecturer concluded that, excluding Shakespeare and Milton, Wordsworth was one of the greatest of the English poets.

Dr. Nair on Education.

At the concluding speech of the Coimbatore District Conference, Dr. Nair said:—When Mr Vythinathier got so eloquent at the S. S. L. C. and what the Senate had done about it, I thought that he was at every moment going to denounce me to this audience as one of the Fellows of the University who were responsible for the "Kasamusa" as he put it. Gentlemen, I assure you most solemnly that I had no hand whatever in it. It is true that I was present when the moderation rules were passed; but before the time came for voting, my poor head was so confused with mathematical calculations that were asked to make that I did not know what I was voting for. In the middle of the meeting one highly mathematical gentleman belong-

ing to the Educational Department started his speech in this manner: let X denote the Presidency average; let Y denote the school average, and Z some other average and this student ought not to be admitted unless he had $X + Y + Z$ add something else. That was the limit; and I was very nearly clearing out, when a friend of mine stopped me; and so under these circumstances I am not in a position to tell you what I voted for. But I may tell you at once what I am prepared to vote for. I have all along been wholly opposed to the S.S.L.C. scheme which was a new fangled scheme and a supporter of the old Matriculation. I thought that with all its faults we should have stuck to it instead of taking it away. We should have pruned the bad points from it. In this view I am glad to say that some of the veteran educationists in the Madras Presidency are with me. Therefore, gentlemen, if there is any proposal to get rid of the whole of the "Kasamusa" and get back to our old Matriculation my vote will certainly be for it. Speaking on the subject of education, pardon me if I am heterodox in my views, I may say that the whole difficulty about education in this country is that two things are somehow or other mixed up — qualifications for Government appointments and the possession of University Degrees. It is the rule here that if a man wants a Government appointment, the question is asked "what degree do you possess?" "If you possess such and such a degree you are eligible for certain appointments." Compare that with what happens in England. In England, if you are to be taken for certain appointments there will be a competitive examination and a selection. With regard to the competitive examination, they do not lay down any rule that you must have passed such and such an examination to be eligible to sit for the competitive examination. They do not even say that you must have studied in any educational institution. They say:—"Come in, pay your fees and if you go through the examination we take you if not, go out." What is the result? There is no educational barrier at each stage. Look at what it is here. The educational authorities here practically say:—"We do not want to qualify so many for Government posts, and therefore we ought to be strict, and we ought to see and regulate how many should get through the S. S. L. C. into the Intermediate Class and from there to the B. A. Class and we must see how many boys pass the B. A. Examination," because "If a larger number get through the Degree Examination, they anticipate further trouble. What is the necessity for making the University Examination

a test for Government appointments? It is easy for the Government to organise their own examinations for their lower and higher services. The Government Secretariat can calculate what the number of vacancies will be in any year and ascertain the number of posts that will have to be filled up and they may hold competitive examinations. Let anybody go and sit for the examination and on the result of the competitive examinations let the Government select a number of people they want. Some of them may be B.A.'s and M.A.'s, others may have passed no examinations. But the result of the competitive examination will tell you who are the competent men whom the Government wants." Others may go on with their studies and acquire general knowledge and become educated men. Unless you have a large number of educated men, the country cannot advance. Because the Government wants you for Government appointments, you cannot have a larger number of educated men. I pointed out this at the time the Universities Commission came round. I said that the Government should say "We have nothing to do with the University Degrees, so far as the selection of candidates for appointments is concerned. For filling up our appointments we will have a competitive examination which will be held and to which anybody will be admitted; and those who are found competent will be taken and others asked to go away." It is only when the University is divorced from Government service there will be no such strictness, and the men will then be allowed to go through up to the B. A. Examination and acquire culture. That is what you want and that is what you cannot get because the two have got mixed up in "Kasamusa." If you ask the Government to dissociate the one from the other and leave the University to give education and culture for those who want it, you will have your education placed in a more satisfactory condition. If you go to any of the great Universities in England, say that of Oxford or Cambridge, you will see that they do not guard at each stage. There you find young men going right through the University course without passing any University Examination. When they do not get a degree they go away; but they have received their University training. But a man who does not get the requisite mark at the S. S. L. C. here does not get the University training. But in England by the time a young man goes up to his degree he has had his University training, and got his education. He has been there for education and education only.

Results of University Examinations, by Prof. V. G. Kale, M.A.

Professor V. G. Kale writes in the *Wealth of India*:—Another question, which has lately formed the subject of a bitter controversy, refers to the results of the University examinations. The Madras University has earned a great reputation for its small examination results and its 'massacre of the innocents' draws the attention of the country towards this Province from time to time. Why should the percentage of passes be so meagre in that University is a question which naturally forces itself on the attention of every one who bestows a thought upon the subject. Something is surely rotten in the State of Denmark. Either the bulk of the candidates who appear for the University examinations are a lot of blockheads, careless of their studies and their careers or the system of collegiate education is so defective that it cannot properly equip the students for the ordeal through which they have to pass. Another alternative explanation may be that the examiners are too severe and their standard is unnecessarily too high. University authorities, the professors of colleges, parents and guardians of boys and others who are interested in the cause of education and the progress of the country generally, ought calmly to ponder over the existing state of things. It behoves them to consider the question calmly and sympathetically and devise a remedy. When the results of the Matriculation and the first year examinations in Bombay roused public attention sometime ago, it was contended that several of the boys who found their way to the colleges were unfit for a University career, that the education given in the High schools did not give them proper equipment for the College courses and that therefore large number of candidates were and must be eliminated. This proves how everything is not for the best in the best of all our Universities and how the whole problem of higher education in India requires immediate and anxious consideration. We are, at the present moment, so to say, drifting along the current of time and circumstances, living from hand to mouth, and not even tinkering at the large and serious problem which stares the country in the face.

The agitation that is now going on in this connection, in the press and on the platform, has opened up the whole question of higher education in India, the policy of the State and the Universities regarding it and the prospects and duties of Government and people alike. We have here a revival of the old controversy which raged in

Lord Curzon's time round the Universities Commission and the Indian Universities Act. What weight should be attached to considerations of mere efficiency and to the needs of an expansion of higher education is a matter which is once more being discussed. While the outcry in Bombay is with reference to overcrowding of colleges and in Madras with respect to a heavy percentage of failures in examinations, in Calcutta there was recently a complaint against too high a proportion of passes! A member of the Senate of the Calcutta University 'views with alarm the rapid increase of the percentage of passes in the University examinations which has taken place in recent years and desires an immediate enquiry to be held as to its cause and significance.' A contemporary, who has collected the relevant statistics, finds that there is really no cause for alarm as there has been no abnormal rise in the percentage of passes in the Calcutta University in recent years. If there were a sudden or a uniform rise, the phenomenon would indeed require examination; but so far as we have been able to judge from the figures there is no cause for alarm. It has been urged in certain quarters that the percentage of passes rose in the Calcutta University on account of the unjustifiable leniency of Indian examiners. We do not know what to say to such a contention. Even granting that this is a fact, which it is disputed it is not, it has been asked, on the other side, why should anybody be alarmed if a larger number of young men get through the University examination-machine. Larger numbers are turned out by the British Universities, for example, and there is no reason why in India, there should be a desire on the part of any one to restrict the output.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

The Madras Text-Book Committee.

The quinquennial report on the working of the Text-Book Committee from 1st April 1910 to 31st March 1915 has been published.

The Committee on the 31st March 1915 consisted of the following members:—The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, *President*; C. Abdur Bahim Sahib; G. V. Appa Rao Pantulu Garu; Rao Sahib S. Bavanandam Pillai; H. Champion; A. H. Davey; E. W. Green; B. Hanumantha Rao; F. W. Henderson; H. O. Kershaw; M. Krishnan; R. Littlehales; Rao Bahadur S. Mangesh Rao; Rev. A. Moffat; J. Muliyl; H. Narayan Rao; Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatharthihara Ayyar; J. Ramayya Pantulu Garu; Rao Bahadur M. Ranga Achariyar; R. W. Ross; W. Erlam Smith; P. T. Srinivasa Ayyangar; V. Subba Rao Pantulu Garu; T. S. Subrahmanya Ayyar; Khan Bahadur Yakub Hasan Sait; Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Ayyar; Rev. W. Meston, *Secretary*.

The list of members on the various Sub-Committees on the 31st March 1915 is as follows:—

English: Rev. W. Meston, Chairman; H. Champion; A. H. Davey; E. W. Green; F. W. Henderson; Rao Bahadur S. Mangesh Rao; R. W. Ross.

Mathematics: B. Hanumantha Rao, Chairman; R. Littlehales; Rev. A. Moffat; W. Erlam Smith; P. T. Srinivasa Ayyangar.

History and Geography: F. W. Green, Chairman; H. Champion; F. W. Henderson; Rev. W. Meston; T. S. Subrahmanya Ayyar.

Tamil: Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatharthihara Ayyar, Chairman; Rao Sahib S. Bavanandam Pillai; B. Hanumantha Rao; Rao Bahadur M. Ranga Achariyar; P. T. Srinivasa Ayyangar; T. S. Subrahmanya Ayyar.

Telugu: R. W. Ross, Chairman; G. V. Appa Rao Pantulu Garu; Jayanti Ramayya Pantulu Garu; Rao Bahadur M. Ranga Achariyar; V. Subba Rao Pantulu Garu.

Kanarese: Rao Bahadur S. Mangesh Rao; H. Narayana Rao; Rao Bahadur M. Ranga Achariyar.

Malayalam: M. Krishnan; Joseph Muliyl.

Hindustani, Arabic and Persian: C. Abdur Bahim Sahib, Chairman; Moulvi Mir Haider Ali Sahib (co-opted member); Khan Bahadur Yakub Hasan Sait.

Sanskrit: Rao Bahadur M. Ranga Achariyar, Chairman; M. Krishnan; P. T. Srinivasa Ayyangar.

Latin and Greek: E. W. Green; F. W. Henderson; Rev. W. Meston.

French and German: W. E. Smith; F. W. Henderson.

Physical and Natural Science: W. E. Smith, Chairman; H. O. Kershaw; R. Littlehales; Rev. A. Moffat; H. Narayana Rao.

Kindergarten, Teaching and Object Lesson: Rev. W. Meston; R. W. Ross; T. S. Subrahmanya Ayyar.

Commercial: B. Hanumantha Rao; V. Kalyanarama Ayyar (co-opted member); Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Ayyar.

During the period under review eleven meetings of the Text-Book Committee were held. The total number of books dealt with by the Text-Book Committee during the period under review is 3081, of which 1922 were found suitable for school reading, 637 suitable for teachers or libraries, and 522 unsuitable.

Examinations for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws.

Under section 25, sub-section (1) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, the Government sanctioned the revised body of regulations for the "Examinations for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws", as well as the transitory regulations, submitted by the Registrar. Candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Laws must have taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts in this University or a degree in some other University accepted by the Syndicate as equivalent thereto. They shall also be required to pass three examinations in law. The first examination in Law, shall be held once a year in Madras and at such other centres as the Syndicate may appoint, and shall commence on the third Monday in April. Applications for admission to this examination, in the form prescribed, must reach the Registrar not later than the 1st February preceding. Candidates shall be examined in the following subjects:—(1) Jurisprudence (Analytical and Historical), (2) Roman Law, (3) Contracts including the Indian Specific Relief Act and the Indian Negotiable Instruments Act (2 papers), (4) Torts, (5) Indian Constitutional Law.

The candidates shall be ranked in the order of proficiency as determined by the total marks obtained by each, and shall be arranged in three classes: The first, consisting of those who obtain not less than 60 per cent. of the total marks, The

second, of those who obtain not less than 50 per cent. of the total marks. The third, of those who obtain not less than 40 per cent. of the total marks. Candidates failing to obtain one-third of the marks in Jurisprudence, Roman Law, and Indian Constitutional Law taken together, and one-third of the marks in General Contracts with Specific Relief, Special Contracts with Negotiable Instruments and Torts taken together, and 40 per cent. of the total marks, shall not pass. The examiners shall be at liberty to bracket candidates when the difference between their amounts only to a very small number of marks.

The second examination in Law shall be held once a year in Madras and at such other centres as the Syndicate may appoint, and shall commence on the third Monday in April. Applications for admission to this examination, in the form prescribed, must reach the Registrar not later than the 1st February preceding. Candidates for the Examination shall be examined in the following subjects:—(1) (a) The Law of Property with special reference to the Transfer of Property Act, (b) The Law of Trusts and Easements with special reference to the Indian Trusts Act and the Indian Easements Act, (c) The Indian Succession Act and the Hindu Wills Act. (2) Hindu Law. (3) Muhammadan Law. (4) Criminal Law (Indian Penal Code). The candidates shall be ranked just in the same manner as for the First Examination in Law.

The B.L. Degree Examination shall be held once a year in Madras and at such other centres as the Syndicate may appoint, and shall commence on the fourth Monday in April. Applications for admission to this examination, in the form prescribed, must reach the Registrar not later than the 1st February preceding. Candidates for the Examination shall be examined in the following subjects:—1. The Civil Procedure Code. 2. The Criminal Procedure Code. 3. The Law of Evidence. 4. The Principles of the Indian Limitation Act and Statutory Interpretation. 5. The Madras Estates Land Act, 1908, omitting schedules, and the Madras Revenue Recovery Act (2 of '64). The candidates shall be ranked just in the same manner as for the first and second Examination in Law.

Transitory Regulations.

(i) The first examinations under the revised Regulations for the B.L. degree will be held in the following years:—First Examination in Law, 1916; Second Examination in Law, 1917; B.L. Degree Examination, 1918.

(ii) The first examination in Law and the B.L. degree examination under the Regulations in

force in the year 1914 will continue to be held according to those Regulations, in the case of the first examination in Law until the year 1917, and in the case of the B.L. degree examination until the year 1918, after which years no examinations under those Regulations will be held. Candidates for the B.L. degree who have qualified for certificates of having completed the courses for that degree prescribed by the Regulations in force in the year 1914 may qualify for the degree at any time by appearing for and passing each of the examinations held under the revised Regulations without the necessity of producing additional certificate of attendance at an affiliated college, in which case candidates who have passed the first examination in Law held under the Regulations in force in the year 1914 will not be required to pass the corresponding examination under the revised Regulations.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Senate Meeting.

DISCUSSION ON BUDGET.

A Meeting of the Senate of Calcutta University was held on the 21st inst. at the Senate House, College Square. The Hon. Dr. Devaprasad Sarbadhary, Vice-Chancellor, presided, and there was a fair attendance of Fellows. There were fourteen items before the meeting for consideration, but only one was considered and this occupied four hours, the meeting separating at 8 P.M. The only item considered was the Budget Estimate for 1915-16.

Sir Asutosh Mukerjee, President of the Board of Accounts, moved that the revised Budget Estimate which had been prepared by the Board of Accounts and had been approved of by the Syndicate be passed by the Senate. He said that they would notice from the abstract that whereas their opening balance on July 1st, this year was Rs. 6,631 their closing balance on June 30th, 1916, was expected to be Rs. 39,306. Consequently taking the rough view of the Budget there was no reason at all to be anxious about the finances of the University. On more than one occasion questions had been asked as to what had become of the Reserve Fund which existed eight or ten years ago. In this connection he might tell them that in 1905-6 their Reserve Fund was 7 lakhs of rupees

representing the savings of about twenty years of very prudent management. That Reserve Fund as a matter of fact represented contributions to the University by their students as fees. Although they had now a considerable income from their publications, in those years contributions by the students was a principal source of their income. During the last few years the Government of India had given them rupees seven lakhs and thirty thousand, the Maharaja of Durbhanga two lakhs and fifty thousand rupees and the University contributed out of their Reserve Funds three lakhs and thirty-three thousand rupees. That gave them over 13 lakhs of rupees. Then the question arose how the money was spent. They spent Rs. 8,50,972 on Durbhanga buildings, Rs. 4,81,737 on the Hardinge Hostel, Rs. 28,458 on the University Press, Rs. 20,390 on various additions and alterations to the University buildings. For the Science College they had contributed 3 lakhs of rupees and they had set apart Rs. 30,000 for the Jubilee Research Prize. In the University library they spent over a lakh of rupees. So far as the University Press was concerned the speaker said that it was a financial success. If they had more money and more space they could have turned the press into a more profitable concern. As regards the Law College it was in a flourishing condition and the library attached to it was one of the finest if not the finest in India. But in order that it might be kept up it required more money. Next year their position would be much better if the conditions were normal. They had become much wiser than five years ago, and they must not look for financial assistance elsewhere. As regards the post-graduate teaching he said that there was no fund for it, and the money required for this purpose must come out of the general fund of the University. Next year they ought to have more money for the purpose of the University Science College, and for the post-graduate teachings. Dealing on what is called the Fish Market Fund the speaker said that the Government of India made a grant of eight lakhs of rupees for the acquisition of the Fish Market close to the Senate House. This announcement was made by Sir Harcourt

Butler at a meeting of the Imperial Legislative Council. The money was handed over to the Government of Bengal in order that the market might be acquired. The market was acquired, but neither the market nor its income was made over to the University. Only the other day they were given about a lakh and a half of rupees which represented the income on that contribution. Dealing on the question of the completion of the College of Science the speaker said that they wanted more money, and that they had not received any money from the quarters where they had a right to expect it.

Mr. W. A. J. Archbold rose to a point of order.

Sir Asutosh Mukerjee said that the Government of India would take care of themselves. He was only pointing out to them the position of the Senate. They had a College of Science of their own and they wanted more money. He was impressing upon the Senate the necessity of getting more money.

Mr. W. A. J. Archbold referring to the remarks made by the previous speaker about the Government of India not helping them regarding the establishment of the Science College, said that he disassociated himself with those remarks. Probably the letter of the Government of India on this subject would have enlightened them on the point. The Government of India was very generous to the University and they ought to be grateful to them. After all it was their own Government. The speaker then suggested that separate accounts should be kept of the University Press, the University Law College and the Library. As regards the inspection of colleges the speaker thought that it was not necessary and it ought to be stopped as soon as possible. They should not take their professors and turn them into educational gypsies.

Mr. J. N. Mitter said that he wanted to be enlightened on the following points. Whether or not the salary of a certain officer was increased by 50 per cent. and whether or not appointments were made without the sanction of the Syndicate.

Dr. Kedarnath Dass moved that—(1) under the heading of expenditure for the purpose of the Law College Library, the amount of Rs. 9,000 be reduced to Rs. 4,000, (2) that under the heading of electric expenses Rs. 3,900 be reduced to Rs. 2,500 and (3) that the expenditure on gowns, namely, Rs. 1,500 be not spent at all. All those amendments were subsequently withdrawn.

Mr. J. N. Das Gupta congratulated the University for the satisfactory Budget.

Mr. Jnanranjan Banerjee referring to the remark made by Mr. J. N. Mitter about the increment of the salary of one of their officers, said that it was quite correct and that the increment was given because the man in question was found to be very competent. As regards the abolition of the system of inspection of colleges, he said that there was no reason why it should be objected to. Unless the regulation was changed they were helpless in the matter.

Principal Biss wanted to know what the Hardinge Professor of Mathematics had done to justify his appointment. With regard to the point that the Government of India had not helped them as they ought to have done he associated himself with the remarks which tell from Mr. Archbold. He protested against the attitude of the University, as they had not before them all the facts showing that the Government of India was unreasonable.

Dr. E. R. Watson understood that 2 or 3 lakhs of rupees more were required for completing the College of Science. If they were not getting anything more how were they to find the money? He suggested that the money could be found in reducing their post-graduate teachings, which seemed to him to be very expensive. In conclusion he suggested that they should have a reserve fund.

The Hon'ble Mr. W. W. Hornell referring to the remarks made by Sir Asutosh Mukerjee about the Fish Market Fund and the Government of Bengal sticking to it, said that it was not fair to make such a remark.

Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikari said that although it was not a prosperous Budget it was certainly not a Budget of an insolvent institution. Referring to the remarks made against the Gov-

ernment of India he said that it was not right to make such a remark. Some time ago the management of the University was not as good as was expected and there had been disproportionate expenditure.

The Hon'ble Babu Mahindranath Ray, referring to the remarks made by Mr. Mitter, said that there was no foundation for the statement that appointments were made without the sanction of the Syndicate.

Rai Bahadur Dr. Chunilal Bose disassociated himself with everything that had been said against the Government of India.

Sir Asutosh Mukerjee in reply said that in subsequent Budget separate account should be kept for the Press and the Law College accounts. As regards inspection of colleges it was said that the practice should be discontinued. This was a matter which did not lie in their hands. They were bound to abide by the decision of the Government of India. With regard to the enquiry about the Hardinge Professor the speaker said that that question did not arise. Dr. Watson had said that they should have a reserve fund. The speaker quite agreed with him that they should have some money kept reserved, but they would gain nothing by hoarding up money like a miser. With regard to the University College of Science, Dr. Watson had asked where they would get the money from. It was not for the speaker to answer that question. But money still might come, to the University from some unforeseen quarters. As regards the remarks made by the Hon. Mr. Hornell that the question had not been fairly stated, the speaker said that that was not so.

The Vice-Chancellor pointed out that Sir Asutosh was going outside the Budget.

Sir Asutosh, in reply, said that remark had been made imputing his fairness and if the Hon. Mr. Hornell was allowed to do so he should be given an opportunity to state what he had to say.

Principal Biss said that he protested against the suppression of facts as the letter of the Government of India had not been read.

Sir Asutosh Mukerjee said that he could not produce the letter. As regards the facts

anterior to the letter he was sorry to say that he could not place them before the meeting. However, he might tell them that he did not attack the Government of India; what he said was that they expected more but they did not get enough. The speaker then referred to the annual Government grant of Rs. 65,000 and said that they had not got that grant timely notwithstanding their efforts. That money had to be met from the Reserve Funds. With regard to the remarks made by Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikary regarding the disproportionate expenditure by the University, the speaker said that the savings of the last twenty years had been very properly spent during the last nine or ten years. There were, however, some who could never be pleased. In conclusion, Sir Asutosh said that in 1904, when the Universities Act was passed that University was purely an examining body. In 1915 when attacks were made on him that University was the only teaching University in India. It was not as good as he wanted it to be—he still wanted it to be. They had not got money nor had they men. He could, however, assure them that there was nothing to ridicule.

The Hon. the Vice-Chancellor, in summing up the debate, said that all the suggestions made would receive their careful consideration. He wanted to disassociate himself with regard to what Sir Asutosh found necessary to say with regard to certain matters connected with the Government of India but Sir Asutosh had disclaimed his attack on the Government of India. As regards the letter of the Government of India the speaker said that the matter was still under consideration and he could not associate himself with Sir Asutosh Mukerjee because they did not know what the Government of India would do. Principal Biss had said something about the attitude of the University towards the Government of India—

Principal Biss: I beg to withdraw my remark.

The Hon. the Vice-Chancellor, continuing his address, said that with regard to the Government grant of Rs. 65,000 a year—which was much to be regretted—he had received a letter from the Educational Secretary saying that the grant would be shortly forthcoming.

Sir Asutosh Mukerjee's motion was then put to the vote and carried unanimously.

—The Statesman.

Reviews and Notices

PARADISE LOST, BOOKS I AND II, EDITED BY THE REV. J. C. SCRIMGEOUR, M.A. (MACMILLAN & Co.). 2s. 6d.

The first few books of *Paradise Lost* are repeatedly prescribed as texts for University Examinations in India and the annotated editions of those parts of the Epic cannot be too many. Mr. Scrimgeour's is another useful addition, coming from one who has large experience of teaching Indian students and therefore thoroughly understands the difficulties generally experienced by them. It is very convenient to find the notes beneath the text on each page, as it saves the student the trouble and annoyance of having to look at the end of the book, for the meaning of every line. There is a useful index, but there might probably have been a Glossary of Words also, especially in view of the fact that the student will find in Milton for the first time, a large number of words used in their original senses.

We do not wish to deny publishers the right of putting the prices they please upon their publication, but the price of 2s. 6d. for a book of about a hundred pages intended for use in colleges, does not seem to hold forth the prospect of any wide popularity.

THE BALLAD OF THE PENNILESS BRIDE, BY MR. A. MADHAVIAH, B.A. (G. A. VAIDYARAMAN & Co.). 2 As.

The pathetic story of Snehelata, the Bengali maiden, who committed suicide unable to bear the tyranny exercised on her parents by the pernicious dowry-system of the Hindus has appealed to Mr. A. Madhaviah who is already well-known in this part of India as a writer on topics of social reform. The verses are written with real feeling. We are afraid the epithet of penniless in the title is not very happily chosen. We wish the author had chosen some word complimentary to the heroism of such sacrifice, or one capable of rousing poetic associations better than 'penniless.' We hope to see

the booklet in the hands of our undergraduates whose callous indifference, if not active participation is perpetuating an institution so baneful to Hindu society.

HEROES OF ALL TIME: (HARRAP.) 1s. each.

Alexander the Great. By Ada Russell, M.A.

Augustus: By René Francis, B.A.

The Story of Alfred the Great: By A. E. McKilliam, M.A.

The Story of Jeanne D'Arc: By E. M. Wilmot Buxton, F.R.H.S.

Marie Antoinette: By Alice Birkhead, B.A.

The Girlhood of Famous Women: By F. J. Snell.

These six volumes form an instalment of a series which is designed to place before young readers the lives of eminent men and women who have played a considerable part in shaping the course of the world. If we may judge by the 'heroes' already selected we are sure that the series is not likely to confer greatness upon unworthy candidates. We may however point out that in the volume which treats of the girlhood of famous women, the author has not been mindful of the restrictions imposed on him by the title of the series; while we are glad that such a book was thought of, and while we are also anxious to make it plain that we have no objections to the inclusion in it of any particular celebrity, we must be permitted to think that, even if we allow the word 'heroes' to be interpreted in a very liberal spirit, the volume should not have been included in the series.

Probably intended as a Boys' edition of the famous 'Heroes of the Nations' series, the publishers have not succeeded in making the volumes approach a common standard. Even the quantity of reading-matter is not regulated with a view to the requirements of class-work, and there is no attempt to ensure uniformity of literary quality. A series of books for young folk and for the lay reader, modelled on the 'Heroes of the Nations' series would have been not only popular but also greatly useful for educational purposes, and it is a pity that the present series, though it had fit models before it, has not been so edited as to fill the gap.

Of some volumes, however, we are happy to be able to speak in terms of unalloyed praise. The volumes on Alexander and Alfred are admirable as examples of how the narrative can be managed without prejudice to the presentment in

proper perspective of men and measures. We may make special mention of the very useful bibliography appended to the volume on Alexander, and we note with pleasure the inclusion in the volume on Alfred of Longfellow's poem on 'The Discoverer of the North Cape.' In writing of Jeanne D'Arc, the author of the book,—a warm and discriminating admirer of the Maid,—agrees with Andrew Lang's criticism of Anatole France's views, and gives us a readable,—and in places, an interesting,—account of the career of the girl who when the words *Jeanne, soyez sage et bonne* fell in her ears came to believe that she was divinely ordained to effect a glorious work, and did accomplish what she set her heart upon.

Considering the high quality of the get-up we should think that at a shilling we have the books cheap.

TALES AND LEGENDS OF SCOTLAND, BY DOROTHY KING. (HARRAP.) 6d.

An excellent little book, brightly written, tastefully illustrated, and beautifully printed. Among other tales it contains accounts of Thomas the Rhymer, Sir Patrick Spens and Sir William Wallace. The last tale in the book, 'The Bannock o'Tollishill' is very interesting and is agreeably told.

READINGS FROM HISTORICAL ROMANCES, BY WALTER HIGGINS. (HARRAP.) 1s. each.

Vol. 1. From Caractacus to King John.

Vol. 2. From Henry III to Edward IV.

Vol. 3. From Richard III to Charles II.

Vol. 4. From James II to Victoria.

It was an excellent idea to bring together extracts from historical novelists which would illustrate the several aspects of the history of a nation. Mr. Higgins has produced a series which we commend only because there are no similar books which merit mention. We are not inclined to concede that the word 'Romance' can cover Cowper's *Boadicea*, Gray's *Bard*, or Dryden's *Agincourt*, or yet extracts from the plays of Ford or Shakespeare. No intelligible reason can be suggested for the presentment of the days of Edward IV in the second volume and of those of Richard III in the third volume, or for the year 1685 being constituted the point which divides the events of the third volume from those of the fourth, except probably that the volumes had to

be of nearly equal thickness. We find that in the first and second volumes, in particular, disproportionate importance is attached to the description of battles. It is a pity that we have no extracts from R. L. Stevenson and Stanley Weyman, but we are agreeably surprised to find that Hewlett's *Interview with Jack Cade* and an extract from Mark Twain's *The Prince and the Pauper* are included. We have no doubt that these volumes will teach our youngsters that 'the by-gone ages of the world were filled by living men, not by protocols, state-papers, controversies, and abstractions of men.'

THE INDUCTIVE ENGLISH HISTORY, EDITED BY F. G. SNOWBALL, M.A. AND T. H. BOWTELL, M.A. (HARRAP.) 1s. 6d. each.

Book I. ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMANS:

Here is a book we were long waiting for. This is the book that ought to be put into the hands of those who should have a good knowledge of history. It will open the eyes of youths who seem to think that to excel in the study of history requires only a good memory and a plentiful stock of summaries. A period very difficult to treat of has been very successfully managed by the authors, and if a careful teacher handles the book, the students who use the books will certainly have a clear knowledge of the history of the period,—much clearer indeed than that of many a scholar who has never gone to the sources of historical knowledge. The innumerable illustrations, sketches and maps, and the sets of questions designed to elicit correct inferences from the facts placed before the reader, add to the value of the book. We have no hesitation in commending the book for use not only by students but also by those who are desirous of having a clear apprehension of the history of England in the pre-Norman period.

EUROPE IN THE XIXTH CENTURY, BY E. NIXON AND H. R. STEEL. (BELL).

A well-written summary of the history of the last century. The authors have brought the story down to 1914, probably with a desire that the reader should grasp the underlying causes of the present war. It is short without being sketchy, and is interesting without being incorrect. This is not the place where we may dwell at length on the attitude of the authors, but we may point out that they are impartial enough. The small compass and the low price must attract the general reader.

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING.

The ninth annual report of the above affords a very interesting reading. The Carnegie foundation is an unofficial body devoted to the advancement of teaching. The policy of the trustees is not to build up with this endowment a bureau but to bring into its service temporarily those believed to be best suited to deal with a particular educational problem leaving them to return at the end of the work to their permanent stations. By the courtesy of various Universities the Foundation finds it possible to arrange for a leave of absence for a Professor by which he can devote a year of continuous work to a given problem. For instance during the year under report Professor C. R. Mann of the Department of Physics of the University of Chicago is spending his time with the Foundation in the study of Engineering education and Professor Homer W. Josselyn has come from the University of Kansas to participate in a study of the training of teachers. The trustees hope by such a process to bring continually a new interest and a fresh point of view to the study of educational questions. With the same object in view the Foundation invited Prof. Josef Redlich of the University of Vienna to study and report on the legal education in the United States. He visited ten representative Law Schools. On the basis of the personal impression thus obtained, reinforced by reading and discussion, he has prepared a monograph which should be full of interest to those who are in charge of Law Colleges in India. That the aims of the Foundation are fully appreciated and welcomed by some at least of the Educational institutions in the United States is shown by the fact that the Governors and the Departments of Public Instruction of two typical States of the middle West, Indiana and Missouri, have invited it to examine the situation that exists with regard to the training and supply of teachers in their respective Commonwealths. To these formal invitations have been added many requests and pledges of co-operation on the part of local authorities in schools, colleges and Universities. In connection with the multitudinous educational questions that thus present themselves the Report says that the importance of the work the Foundation is trying to perform lies not so much in the answers it is able to suggest as in the clear raising of the questions themselves and in the accumulation of material through which those responsible for the present condition of things may see what this condition is and be brought themselves to face the problem.

The Report contains not only a statement of

the current business of the Foundation in which the subject of pensions to teachers both in public and private services figures largely (and we invite the particular attention of the Managers of Schools in this country to this part of the Report) but also papers dealing with specific educational problems. Of these that on 'standards and standardisers' is very interesting and has a note of warning to those who would impose strict uniformity on all the colleges attached to a University. "Perhaps no word has been so overworked during the last decade by those who have to do with professional schools, colleges and secondary schools as the word 'standards.' Americans perhaps more than other people are imitative. One sees this quality at its best and its worst in our colleges, but in the main its tendency is toward a general wiping out of college individualism. What one college does another must do. Distinctive academic flavours disappear. A common mediocrity remains." When the Foundation is thus opposed to a soulless uniformity of standards it is of course very annoying to its members to be referred to by admiring friends as well as cavilling enemies as a 'standardising agency' or 'professional standardisers.' No wonder that the Report exclaims "Nothing so cruel as this has been said about the Foundation during all its short life." The views of the Foundation on the question of standards and standardisers are briefly and unmistakably expressed in the following sentence of the President: "It is a part of my pleasure and profit to listen every year to many prayers in college chapels. Some day I hope to hear a prayer like this 'Give us human sympathy, common honesty and the courage to be different from other colleges.' Before we have done with this interesting section we wish to draw the attention of our readers to the following remarks about colleges and ask them to ponder over their application to some of our own colleges. "It does not make for a higher conception of truth to print one set of entrance conditions in the catalogue and practise another. It does not breed in students a high type of idealism to preach about scholarship and intellectual sincerity and sacrifice both to numbers or to inter-collegiate athletics."

Medical education has received particular attention in the Report. Here the remarks which the President makes on homeopathic system of medicine will be of interest to some of our readers. Homeopathic system is based on two assumed dogmas—(1) Similia, similibus, curentur or like things should be treated with like, (2) and that in the successive dilution of a drug there were obtained finally doses whose dynamic

effect was quite out of relation to the amount of the drug. It asks the student trained in the inductive method to lay aside the scientific method when it comes to the use of drugs and to substitute for it a method of procedure founded upon these dogmas. No doubt homeopathy has done some good to medical science by drawing attention to the fact that the prevalent system of dosing was absurd and harmful, that men recovered just as well or better from smaller doses and that good nursing had more to do with recovery than either the small or large dose. It has served a large purpose, but that purpose seems in the main to have been accomplished. In Germany the home of homeopathy; it has practically disappeared. The same thing has happened in England. To-day America contains more homeopathic physicians than all the rest of the world put together. But here too it is bound to disappear and to be absorbed in course of time into the general conception of medicine as an applied science. Already the homeopaths have justly incurred the general disapproval of fair-minded men because of the low standards of education for which their colleges have stood.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

- Educational Values and Methods, by W. G. Steight, M. A., D. Litt. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 4s. 6d. net.
- School Poetry for the Junior Division, for Stages I, II and III. London: Holland. 4d.
- New Course in Typewriting, by Mrs. Smith Clough. London: Pitman. 1s. net.
- Easy Lessons in German, by J. Bithell, M. A. London: Pitman. 1s. net.
- A Study of Indian Economics, by Pramathanath Banerjee, M. A. London: Macmillan. 4s. 6d. net.
- Philip's Large Scale Strategical War Map of Europe: Central and Eastern Area, 2s. 6d. net. Western Area, 2s. 6d. net. Southern Area, 2s. 6d. net. with Index etc., complete. London: Philip.
- Philip's Synthetic Maps, Series 3. Europe. 6d. net. Series 4. Asia. 6d. net. London: Philip.
- English Poetry for Young Students, by W. T. Webb, M. A. London: Macmillan. 1s.
- The Shining East, by Emily M. Burke, LL.D. London: Holland. 1s.
- Studies and Critiques, by M. S. Parnalingam Pillai, B.A., LL.T., Madras: Rama Iyer. 1 Re.

Gopala Krishna Series: No. 1, Krishnamurthy Vijayam in Telugu. 5 as. No. 2, Fulfilment of a Vow in Telugu. 3 as. Ongole: S. S. N. Press.

First Book of Geography in Telugu, by M. Sitarama Rao, B.A., L. T. Rajahmundry. 10 as.

A First Book of Literary Readings, by J. W. Holme, M. A., I. E. S. Bombay: Cooper. Rs. 1-2.

Naganathan at School, by Glyn Barlow, M. A. Bombay: Cooper. 12 as.

The Last Days of Pompeii, Retold for Indian Schools, by E. Tydenman. Oxford University Press.

The Poems to Tukā, āmā, translated and rearranged with Notes and Introduction, by J. Nelson Fraser, M.A., I. E. S., and K. B. Marathi, B.A., LL.B. Vol. III. Madras: C.L.S. Rs. 2-8-0.

Bible Study in the Work of Life, Book I, by Clayton Sedgwick Cooper, A.M. Madras: C. L. S. 6 as.

Selected Essays of James Anthony Froude, edited by H. G. Rawlinson, M.A. London: Longmans. Rs. 1-8-0.

Talks to Teachers in Elementary Schools, by A. M. C. Arnold. London: Longmans. Re. 1.

Rupali (A Story of Rajput Chivalry) in Telugu, by Y. Narayanamurthi, B. A. Madras: Ramasami Sastrulu.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Government Orders.

The Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the actual expenditure, nor Rs. 18,700, towards the cost of extensions to the St. Francis Xavier's High School, Palamcottah, subject to the following conditions:—That in carrying out the work the suggestions of the Chief Engineer in his note No. 243-D, dated the 29th June 1915, are adopted; that the Superintending Engineer is satisfied as to the suitability of the foundations; and that all the 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 maximum limit of the grant sanctioned in G. O. No. 108, Educational, dated 23rd January, 1914, towards the cost of constructing a hostel in connection with the St. Joseph's School for Indian

Girls, San Thome, Mylapore, will be raised from Rs. 11,250 to Rs. 13,565.

The Government approve the proposals of the Director of Industries for the distribution of a sum of Rs. 5,491 out of the Imperial grant of Rs. 21,000 for industrial and technical education. The Director is requested to see that the articles are purchased and the necessary vouchers are submitted to him for scrutiny and check.

Under section 21, sub-section 4, of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, the Governor in Council is pleased to sanction the affiliation to the University of Madras of the Madanapalle High School in Group III of the Intermediate courses of study.

The Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to institute a special examination for the benefit of teachers who have failed in the Matriculation examination and are desirous of undergoing training of the secondary grade. The draft notification submitted by him is approved. It will be published in the Fort St. George Gazette.

The Government approve the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction to award 25 scholarships of the annual aggregate value of Rs. 390 to pupils belonging to the hill tribes of Gadabas, the Jatapus and the Porajas who are studying in Elementary Schools in the Agency Districts.

The Government sanction the distribution of a total subsidy of Rs. 16,38,097 among local bodies during the current year for the following objects:—

	Rs.
(1) Usual contribution in aid of education	1,93,527
(2) Maintenance of the Elementary schools opened in 1911-12, 1912-13, 1913-14 and 1914-15	8,37,692
(3) Employment of additional teaching staff in some Elementary schools	2,13,788
(4) Enhancement of the salaries of qualified teachers in Elementary schools from Rs. 8 to Rs. 10	99,900
(5) Payment of extra capitation allowance to teachers in Elementary schools	1,14,300
(6) Improvement of the scale of salaries of the general staff employed in the Secondary schools and Colleges	93,823
(7) Maintenance of sessional schools	61,337
(8) Compensation for loss of fee income	23,730
Total	16,38,097

The Accountant-General is requested to place the amounts at the disposal of the local bodies at an early date. The expenditure will be met from the provision of Rs. 15,912 in the Civil Budget estimate for the current year under "22 C. Education—Government Colleges, General—Payment in support of Municipal colleges" and from that of Rs. 16,84,488 under "22 E. Education—Government Schools, General—Payment in support of Municipal and Local Board schools."

The Government of Madras have sanctioned the alterations in the Regulations of the University adopted by the Senate at its meeting held on the 5th March last relating to the removal of the present restriction of candidates for the Matriculation, Intermediate and B. A. Degree Examinations to only three appearances. Candidates for these examinations, therefore, can, in future, appear any number of times. These alterations in the Regulations will have, of course, retrospective effect so as to enable students who have already appeared for and failed three times in the past years at the Matriculation, Intermediate or B. A. Degree Examinations to again appear therefor.

Kumbakonam College.—Mr. Statham, the acting Principal, has noted in his college a number of weak spots that would serve as types of weak spots in a great many educational institutions. The first weak spot that he notes is insufficiency of accommodation. The number of lecture-rooms is insufficient; the new science-block has been built on a scale too small for requirements; there is little room for the storage of scientific apparatus; the number of seats available in the practical classes is insufficient. This evil of insufficient accommodation is well nigh universal. School and college buildings were built to accommodate a certain number of students, and extension of accommodation has not been proportionate to the increase in the number of students. The recent demands for an extension of the space allotted for the teaching of science and for other purposes has indeed in some institutions led to an actual diminution of accommodation for students; for class-rooms have in not a few instances been turned into science-rooms.—(*Madras Times*.)

Triplacane Secondary School for Girls.—His Excellency Lord Pentland, accompanied by Mr. Liston, Aid-de-Camp, visited the Government Training and Secondary School for Girls at Triplicane. The distinguished visitor was received at the entrance by Mr. R. H. Littlehales, Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Miss Lynch, B.A., L.T., Inspector of Schools and Miss M. F. Prager, Superintendent of the School, and was taken round to the various class-rooms while at work. A young girl aged about 9

years, a niece of Sir Sivaswami Iyer, garlanded His Excellency with a rose garland trimmed with gold sarigai. The school authorities pointed out to His Excellency the insufficient accommodation of the school buildings and their consequent inability to admit more students and also the need of four more teachers to strengthen the staff.

The authorities also informed His Excellency that the proposed site north of the present building would be a suitable one for their requirements.

His Excellency after spending about fifteen minutes in the school expressed his satisfaction at what he saw and promised to pay due consideration to their request.

U. F. C. M. Girls' Boarding School, Madras.—His Excellency the Governor recently opened the new extensions to the United Free Church of Scotland Mission Girls' High School, "Northwick," Royapuram, Madras. There was a large gathering of Indian Christians and European ladies and gentlemen, among whom was noticed Mr. R. L. Littlehales, Mr. Mackay, Registrar of the High Court, Major and Mrs. Bryson, the Rev. E. M. Macphail, and Rai Sahib Ramanujam Chettiar.

After a short prayer by the Rev. J. Stewart, Superintendent of the U.F.C. Mission, Miss Smart, Principal of the School, presented a short account of the school.

His Excellency then presented Mr. K. N. Pillay with a gold medal given by the school authorities. After formally opening the new extensions with a silver key, His Excellency said in the course of his remarks:—

We have very striking and encouraging evidences of the growth of the school, which we have heard was transferred here about 1889-1890 which was the first year. Since that period, to take only one point, the number of pupils have increased about five-fold, while the growth in revenue and expenditure as in the number of the staff shows in the most striking manner how the school's activities have grown in comparison with the modest aim of the school a generation ago. I rejoice to think that the Government was able to make a substantial grant towards the building, which will, I doubt not, enable the school to extend its benefits still further. We have just heard how very necessary that is. I notice with especial interest the remarks which we have just listened to regarding the growing desire among Indian parents to educate their daughters. The cause of female education is one which the Government have deeply at heart, and it is therefore all the more gratifying to hear on such good authority that the response likely to be made to the efforts of all who are endeavouring to provide education is real and encouraging. We give more honour to those who have so long and devotedly worked to achieve this.

I congratulate the U. F. C. Mission and the ladies of this institution most warmly on the success which had attended their efforts, and in declaring the new extension open I wish the institution on my own behalf and on behalf of those present and many more who have the work of the mission so warmly at heart a long and continued career of increasing prosperity and usefulness.

The Rev. E. M. Macphail then thanked His Excellency and said that the name "Northwick" had a connection with the word "Caithness." Dr. Miller used to live there, and the name "Northwick" was given by him.

His Excellency then opened the building and inspected the various improvements that have been introduced.

Special Scholarships for Mahomedans, 1915-16.—It is notified in the "Fort St. George Gazette," that, with a view to improve Mahomedan education in this Presidency, eight special scholarships commencing from the first form and continuing throughout the whole of the secondary course will be awarded every year in secondary schools. They will be of the same value as the scholarships that are now awarded to pupils in secondary schools (*viz.*, Rs. 3 per mensem in Forms I to III and Rs. 6 per mensem in Forms IV to VI) and will be held under similar conditions. In addition to the above, four special collegiate scholarships tenable by all classes of Mahomedans commencing from the Junior Intermediate class and continuing throughout the whole of the Intermediate and B. A. courses will be awarded every year in colleges. The value of each of these scholarships will be Rs. 9 per mensem in the Intermediate classes and Rs. 14 per mensem in B. A. classes. An additional scholarship tenable in the Honours class (*i.e.*, the fifth year class of the University course) will also be awarded at Rs. 14 per mensem.

The University and the Three Years' Rule.—A correspondent writes:—The abolition of the rule, that no one shall appear for certain University Examinations more than thrice, was, on the unanimous recommendation of a committee appointed by the Senate in 1914 to consider the question adopted so early as March last and yet the Government has been bestowing its deep consideration on the question for nearly six months. It may be mentioned that even the Hon'ble Mr. Stone and most of the European Fellows also voted for its abolition. The question seems to be so simple that one is surprised to see the inordinate delay in sanctioning this resolution. Ever since this ban was laid, several young men after being declared by our University to be useless for higher studies have gone and joined the colleges in Bengal and other provinces and have successfully passed the examinations of other Universities. This year after the terrible slaughter at the Intermediate Examination, even a much larger number appears to have gone to other Universities to try and get admission. A reference to the heads

of institutions in Bengal, Allahabad and Bombay through the Registrars of the respective Universities will give full particulars. I can give the names of a few persons.

(1) T. V. Rangachari, Scotch Church College, 1913, First class; (2) V. V. Srinivasachari, St. Xavier's College, 1913, Second class; (3) to (7) T. Casturi Reddi, M. Amir Pacha, R. Srinivasan, Rama Amrutam, M. R. Venkatesan, St. Xavier's College, 1914, First class; (8) another student, St. Xavier's College, 1914, Second class; (9) another student, Bishop's College, 1914, First class; etc., etc.

Our educational experts, who are chiefly responsible, do not seem to realise the gravity of the situation; especially this year I hear, more than a hundred students went to Calcutta, Allahabad, etc. Is this desirable? The wholesale slaughters fill the country every year with a number of discontented young men. There are no other suitable walks of life in the country; no industries, etc., to provide the thousands with the means of living. The so-called educational experts may not be able to take a broad view in matters of this kind. The Government may therefore be pleased to accord, at an early date, its formal sanction to the Resolution of the Senate.

Triplacane High School Literary Society.—At the Inaugural Meeting of the above Society, held recently in the High School Hall, Mr. C. S. Srinivasachariar, M.A., of Pachaiyappa's College, delivered an address on "The Method of Government in Ancient India." He viewed the whole study of Indian Polity under three broad epochs, namely, that of Ancient India, that of the Mughals and that of the British at the present day. Adverting to Indian Polity as it obtained in Ancient India, his theme for the day, he observed that what was more prominently characteristic of Moghul India under Akbar and what also distinguishes modern India under the British, were the perfect machinery of Government and the extreme solicitude for the happiness and welfare of the people at large. He made a searching inquiry into the work of Government during the reign of Chanakya, Chandragupta and Asoka for the political, social and economic development of the people, and concluded by observing that in respect to the developed activity of the several departments of Government such as the Army and Navy, the Agriculture and Irrigation, means of communication and commerce, and governmental care for public welfare, India of the past offered a far more favourable picture than is represented by rather indifferent writers.

A Prize-giving.—The annual prize-giving of the Government Girls' School, Madura, was held on the 16th inst. in the school premises with Mr. G. F. Paddison, I.C.S., in the chair. There was a large gathering present, which included several ladies. A very interesting programme was gone through, of which the dramatisation of a story was much appreciated.

Miss W. Thompson, the Head Mistress, read the report, which stated that the strength of the school at present was 179. The staff consisted of eight women-teachers, including the head-mistress, all duly qualified. The income from school-fees was about Rs. 10 a month against an expenditure of nearly Rs. 200.

The distribution of prizes being over, the Chairman made a few interesting remarks, in the course of which he observed that if they could educate the girls they could build up the nation and real interest ought to be taken in the uplifting of future mothers by the residents of Madura. Rao Babadur G. Srinivasa Rau also spoke.

The Chairman and some of the prominent gentlemen and ladies were next garlanded. Flowers were distributed among those present, and with the singing of the National Anthem the function terminated.

Industrial Development of India.—At the request of the Trustees of the Pachaiyappa's Charities, Mr. N. N. Gadhole of Lahore, who is now on a visit to Madras, delivered an address at the Pachaiyappa's Hall on the above subject. There was a large gathering and Mrs. Annie Besant presided.

Mr. Gadhole is an M. A. of the Bombay University and the Professor of Science in the Dayal Singh College, Lahore, and had spent a great deal of his time in studying the industrial needs of the country and travelled over the whole of India in studying the question. Young and unostentatious, he spoke with enthusiasm and feeling. In speaking of the industries of the country, he said that the only claim that he could put forward was that ever since he joined the College, he took to heart the study of the development of industries in India and that he had made a special study of some industries while he had a general knowledge of all. He pointed out that the outbreak of the great war had manifested that they had to depend on foreign countries for the disposal of their raw products. In foreign countries every industry had been specialised, while the Indian manufacturer who could not afford so many experts had to be all by himself. But specialisation took time to grow. They should first take a concern and then begin to specialise and in this respect they were in India in an infant stage and in the development of their industries they should not start with the comparison of a foreign made article. With that principle as the basis, he said that Indian industries must be started and developed.

BOMBAY.

Progress of Hindu Female Education.—An interesting illustration of the progress of Hindu female education in Western India was witnessed, when, under the auspices of the Bombay Presidency Social Reform Association, a gathering was held to congratulate the young ladies who had passed in the last University Examination. Hindu ladies and gentlemen of all castes were present. Sir Narayan Chandayarkar presided.

Congratulatory speeches were made by Mrs. Kashibai Kamishar of Poona and Miss Krishnabai Thakur, M.A.

Mrs. Kamishar, in her speech, gave a history of female education in Western India and described the opposition it had met with in past years. She referred to the want of more schools for girls.

Miss Thakur criticised the attitude of the reactionaries who opposed higher education for women.

Mrs. Modak, B.A., one of the successful candidates of last year's examination, in thanking the speakers, alluded to the need of a hostel for female students in Bombay and said that many Hindu students had to stay in hostels conducted by Christian Missionaries.

Sir Narayan Chandayarkar, in bringing the proceedings to a close, referred to the memorial submitted to the Secretary of State for India by Sir William Wedderburn and others regarding female education in this country, and Sir Narayan hoped that in consideration of the services rendered by women of India in this war greater attention would be paid to the cause of female education in this country.

Baroda Central Library.—The Central Library at Baroda has introduced a novel feature in its children's department. The Library provides not only books of juvenile literature and a number of picture books, rag books, etc., but a large number of table games and puzzle boxes are also given to children for recreation. The latest additions to the interesting features of this department are a class for recreation and a class for story-telling which will be held every Wednesday and a Cinema Show on every Saturday afternoon. The first story-telling class held on the 11th inst. was a great success and nearly 200 children attended.

CALCUTTA

A Prize-distribution.—His Excellency the Governor of Bengal, in presiding over the distribution of prizes of the Dacca Medical School, on the 20th inst. addressed the assembly as follows:—

Colonel Anderson and students of the Dacca Medical School:—I assure you Colonel Anderson need not have been so apologetic about taking up my time. It is a great pleasure both to my wife and to me to do anything we can which at all encourages interest in medical education in Bengal; and I wish I could give you all that Colonel Anderson would like to see given; and I hope that the appeal he has made this morning will not fall upon deaf ears. I need not impress on you the need for the spread of a knowledge of Western medical science throughout this country; for, you recognise that need only too well. We have large field to cover and we have to husband our resources so as to secure the maximum of benefit from the money we have at our disposal and which is none too plentiful. But there are things in

which in a Medical School and in a Hospital, where students receive their training of which we cannot afford to have anything but the best,—for many reasons we must aim at setting the very highest standard before the students and at keeping their ideals as lofty as possible. The value of their work hereafter will depend on what they learn here; and if you want to keep up the reputation of your school you must see that they are only taught the best.

TRAVANCORE.

Tamilian Conference.—The Third Annual Session of the Travancore Tamilian Conference commenced its sittings on the 22nd instant at Nagercoil, under the presidency of Mr. T. Ponnambalam Pillai, M. R. A. S., Retired Excise Commissioner, Travancore. There was a gathering of over 500 Tamilians representing the various sections of the community, including a fairly large number of ladies. The Chairman of the Reception Committee Mrs. S. A. Perumal Pillai, welcomed the delegates in a short speech. Mr. Ponnambalam Pillai, B.A., the President, delivered an interesting address in Tamil; Mr. K. N. Sivarajan, B.A., Editor, *People's Weekly*, Trivandrum, and Mr. C. V. Ramaswamy Pillay, addressed the meeting on Education; while three others spoke on the subject of "Agriculture." This was followed by two lectures on Social Reform, one by Mr. Muthuswamy Pillai, Editor, *Tamilian*, and the other by Mr. C. S. Lakshmana Pillai, B.A.

The President spoke a few words on the subjects discussed at the Conference, and the reading of letters and telegrams of sympathy, brought the proceedings to close.

The Maharajah's College.—Mr. L. C. Hodgson, M.A., Principal of His Highness the Maharajah's College, who is acting as the Director of Public Instruction in addition to his own duties, will be given Rs. 1,200 per mensem while he so acts. Mr. Hodgson's present salary as the Principal of the College is Rs. 900 per mensem, and he gets Rs. 300 extra for his additional work as the Director of Public Instruction and Personal Assistant to the Director. The pay of the Director is Rs. 1,200 per mensem and that of the Personal Assistant is Rs. 400. So, the work which costs the Durbar Rs. 1,600 a month is now conducted for Rs. 300, i.e., for Rs. 1,300 less, by Mr. Hodgson.

The Durbar have sanctioned a sum of Rs. 11,400 for the construction of a building for the Higher Grade Elementary School at Parukaday, a place some four miles north of Trivandrum.

Miss E. C. Carrapiett, M.A., L.T., Inspectress of Girls' Secondary Schools, who has gone on leave to England to acquire higher qualifications, is expected to arrive and resume charge of her duties early next month.

INDIA (GENERAL).

The Progress of Education.—The following table gives for the years 1909-10 and 1913-14, the condition of Secondary education in the more important Provinces of India:—

	1909-10.		1913-14.	
	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.
Madras ...	395	1,04,116	364	1,19,155
Bengal ...	1,111	1,45,248	2,239	3,84,451
Bombay ...	474	64,193	520	76,332
U. P. ...	183	41,626	211	48,861
Punjab ...	182	60,002	233	76,213

... In Bengal, the increase in the number of pupils has been phenomenal and in Bombay, the United Provinces and the Punjab the percentage of increase works out at 18.9, 17 and 20. In Madras, on the contrary, the increase is only 14 per cent. in the quinquennium, the consequence of the closing of a number of Secondary schools which were unable to satisfy the strict requirements of the Department. In regard to Elementary education, which in Madras, depends, as in other stages, very largely on private effort, the condition is, if at all, only a little more satisfactory.—"Hindu."

Imperial Government and Universities.—It is now hoped to pass the Hindu University Bill into law before the Imperial Legislative Council separates this session.

The Dacca University scheme, which is also before the Government of India, has yet to go Home to the Secretary of State for India.

The Patna University scheme is still less advanced, but the Local Government have submitted a detailed scheme to the Government of India.

The Advisory Committee's report on the proposed Nagpur University has yet to be considered by the Local Government.

The Rangoon University scheme is unlikely to come on for some time.—(Associated Special.)

The Educational Review.

The Central Provinces Gazette of the 17th July publishes an important resolution regarding a revised code of rules for annual and special Grants-in-Aid to schools approved by the Chief Commissioner. The novel features of the new Grant-in-Aid Code are, first, "under the new rules the estimated expenditure and income of each institution for the ensuing quinquennium will be considered in the assessment of grants, instead of the actual expenditure and income for the preceding school-year as at present." This is a great improvement on the present method of assessing grants year after year on the basis of the actual expenditure and income for the preceding school year; for it will afford stability to school finance which does not now exist. When a school manager is not sure, as in the Madras Province, how much he will get as teaching grant in any particular year, his budget is sure to be an unsatisfactory one. We therefore welcome this change in the Central Provinces Grant-in-Aid Code and hope other Provinces will also adopt this change. A second and much more important reform in the administration of educational finance announced in the Resolution we are considering is this:—"Provision is also made for progressive grants to cover the normal and gradual development of schools during the quinquennium....The Chief Commissioner considers that this system is more suitable for the present

needs of aided education in these Provinces, where newly-established and steadily-developing schools claim special attention and gradual growth and improvement are to be aimed at; under its provisions managers will be encouraged to make plans in advance for the systematic development of their schools during each period of five years." In Madras Province we have only heard of regressive grants, upsetting school budgets without notice. We notice that in minor respects too, the Central Provinces Educational administration is a model of all that goes for a sympathetic encouragement of private effort, for we read that grants are paid quarterly and further the position of managers of newly-established schools is improved by the provision that "grants may be given to cover the expenses of the year preceding that in which the schools are first admitted to the recurring benefits under the Grant-in-Aid Code." We trace in these reforms the work of the sympathetic Madras officer whom the lucky Central Provinces secured recently for the place of the Director of Public Instruction.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh possess a School Leaving Certificate Examination which has none of the (theoretical) elasticity of the Madras S. S. L. C. The U. P. examination is open to school pupils who have completed sixteen years of age on or before April 1st in the year the examination is held, and who have attended a

The United
Provinces
S. S. L. C.
Examination.

recognized school and have put in 75 per cent. of attendance at school meetings held during the two sessions previous to the latest date of sending in the application. The high minimum age and the high rate of minimum attendance required are not the only specialities of the U. P. examination. Headmasters are not allowed to "detain candidates" except in special cases and "with the express sanction of the Division Inspector." No fee is charged for the examination, this being the one desirable feature, but no candidate is allowed to appear for the examination for more than three times. We cannot understand why the various Provinces of India should vie with each other in trying to hedge round examinations with all sorts of vexatious restrictions. The subjects of the U. P. S. L. C. Examination and the rules for the holding thereof do not err on the side of leniency. The subjects of examination are six in number—English, Mathematics including Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Mensuration, the vernacular of the candidate, History of India, General Geography and one of several optional subjects. Science of any kind is not found in the long list of compulsory subjects, possibly because education in the U. P. is too primitive in organisation to permit of proper teaching of science. But the number of compulsory subjects is certainly too many, all the more because "in English there will be two papers, one of three hours in Composition and Translation from the vernacular, and the other of three hours

on general questions" (whatever this may mean) "and Grammar: there will also be an oral test" to discover the ability of pupils "to speak English with fair fluency and correctness and to follow it readily when spoken." Except in Geography, the pupil has to answer two papers in every subject besides a test in Dictation and in reading Urdu script. The only relieving feature of this heavy examination scheme is that the Headmaster's estimate of "possible marks" obtained by the pupil in each subject "will be taken into account" in the award of the certificates. Thus if a Headmaster desires to damn a pupil, he can do so. We do not at all admire this scheme which is neither according to modern educational ideas nor liberal in conception.

As in the case of the Bombay School The Burma Final Examination, so in that of the Burma High School Anglo-Vernacular High School Final Examination of 1915. School Final Examination, the examiners do not believe in secretiveness. They issue reports in which they point out what is expected of candidates and where they fail to satisfy the examiners. Not that the reports are always as full or as useful as they might be; for the English examiners complain of verbosity, abuse of paragraphs, faults which can apply as much to the School Final candidates as to well-known authors of books. Reading the examiners' reports closely we feel bound to remark that the type of questions put to candidates does not strike

us as very modern. The definition of G. C. M., formal questions on Vernacular Grammar, paraphrase and such like old-world delectations of examiners figure prominently in the reports. The examiners of Burma, however, are not half as exacting as Madras examiners, for out of 359 candidates only 61 failed in English, 68 in Mathematics, 96 in Geography. Taking the examination as a whole 47 per cent. of the candidates passed. This shows that in Burma they do not believe in keeping down the number of passes for the purpose of improving the quality of education imparted in educational institutions.

The Government of Bombay has recently issued a revised schedule to the Grant-in-Aid Code, which is a scheme, "first to encourage the study of drawing by all pupils in Aided schools throughout the Presidency of Bombay as a regular portion of the school curriculum; secondly, to induce the managers of aided schools to give facilities for more advanced study to those pupils who show special aptitude for drawing; thirdly, to encourage the study of painting, design, modelling, and architecture by awarding certificates and diplomas for each of these subjects to advanced students; and fourthly, to raise the standard of artistic crafts of the Presidency by offering inducements to craftsmen to study design and to improve their methods of work." Aided schools are encouraged to teach drawing to all their pupils by means of (1) a capi-

tation grant of three annas per pupil, (2) a special grant up to the amount of Rs. 150 towards the cost of a drawing teacher and equipment to each school having thirty pupils learning drawing, and (3) grants varying from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 (besides special prizes) to every pupil that passes the Government examination in Drawing. We heartily commend the enlightened liberality and practical wisdom of the Bombay Government in thus encouraging the study of drawing in schools; for as drawing is not a subject which pays in examinations, it is grossly neglected in schools, especially by the cleverer pupils; hence it is worth while inducing by means of special grants at least some pupils to take kindly to drawing. The syllabus of the subjects for examination is rather on conventional lines but will, no doubt, be revised and made up-to-date in the near future. The rest of the scheme deals with the development of the work of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. The syllabuses of work and examination in the Fine Arts and Industrial Arts is very elaborate, much more elaborate than in any Indian Province. We notice with regret that the cultivation, or shall we say, the slavish imitation of European art alone is aimed at; Indian art, whose excellence and suitability to the Indian genius now so fully recognized by all art critics does not seem to find favour with the Art pedagogues of the Sir J. J. School.

From a perusal of the Administration Report, Part IV, Education of Ceylon, we learn that Ceylonese children are first taught English

mostly in special classes, where the work is initiated with conversation between the master and the pupil, in which the latter are trained to repeat "sentences (together with the accompanying actions) again and again, until the sound of the words and the corresponding action or object are perfectly associated. Skilful teachers adopt various devices to relieve the monotony. Scholars are allowed to take the place of the teacher and ask the questions; for it is important that the scholar should be able both to ask and answer questions." Pictures are used in every school for affording subjects of conversation. The vernacular is avoided and after some progress is attained in speaking, reading and writing are taken up. The teaching of Mathematics has also been to some extent modernized, for though Arithmetic has not yet been correlated with experimental Science or Algebra as it ought to be, the first year geometrical course is on modern lines. In the upper school the organization of classes in Higher School Mathematics into "sets" independent of forms is advocated in the report for the purpose of increasing the range of school mathematics, so that the elements of the calculus may be taught in schools. If Ceylon should succeed in carrying out this interesting educational experiment it will set a good example to India.

Another noteworthy feature of Ceylon educational work is the maintenance of a stock garden from which 4,235 seed packets and 2,199 plants were issued to school gardens. The number of Government school gardens alone is 286 and 53 Grant-in-Aid schools have been registered for inspection for the school garden grant payable by the Educational Department. Female education, too, seems to be much advanced for we learn that 37 per cent. of girls of school-going age attend schools. Another very curious thing in Ceylon is that in the Government Muhammadan schools, Koran teachers paid by Government are maintained.

Eversince Sir Asutosh Mukherjee retired from the Vice-Chancellorship of the Calcutta University, the meetings of the Senate of this University have proved more and more stormy. The latest meeting held on the 21st inst. has proved no exception to this rule. There were fourteen items on the Agenda but only the Annual Budget was considered and that occupied four hours. Several amendments were proposed and withdrawn, many angry comments were made, which we do not regret, for they elicited from Sir Asutosh the neat retort, that "in 1904, when the Universities Act was passed that University was purely an examining body. In 1915, when attacks were made on him that University was the only teaching University in India." The fact of the matter is that Sir Asutosh boldly spent all the accumulated balance of the University funds which

amounted to seven lakhs of rupees as well as other funds about the same amount in founding University chairs and developing science teaching and research in the Calcutta University. So long as he was Vice-Chancellor, his powerful personality enabled him to develop the University work and protected him from criticism, but now that another gentleman has become the presiding genius, attempts are being made to nullify or at least retard the good work of Sir Asutosh. But we are sure that Sir Asutosh is too good a fighter to let his reforms be wrecked. As a matter of fact after a four-hours' wrangle the budget prepared by Sir Asutosh Mukherjee was passed unanimously. When the Senate next meets, it will consider Dr. Watson's famous proposal in favour of reducing the percentage of passes in the University examinations.

Thanks to the genius and patriotism of Sir Visvesvaraiya, the Mysore Economic Conference has become an institution eminently calculated to develop the resources of the Mysore State economically, industrially, educationally and in numerous other ways. This year's meeting considered among others numerous educational questions. The Village School Fund, which is formed by setting apart 21 per cent. of the cess collections from land revenue and 33 per cent. of the cess on other revenue, and liberally supplemented by Government grants, was found inadequate to cope with the recent great expansion of

primary education. It was therefore recommended the Village School Fund cease to exist as a distinct fund, its items of receipts and expenditure be transferred to District Funds, and as a measure of expansion of Local Self-Government the control of primary education be formally transferred to District Boards, subvention from Government being given to the extent required and full assistance in the control of education being given by the State Educational Department. The report presented to the Conference on work done during 1914-15 is a very interesting document. While it refers to commercial education, female education, normal training, agricultural education and other similar subjects and reports progress under all heads the most interesting part of the report is the detailed and comprehensive scheme for the development of industrial education prepared by Mr. Karpur Shrinivasarav. It contemplates the establishment of 28 industrial schools of four grades in selected towns. It is designed to attract the child of the country artizan and utilize whatever capacity he may have inherited for industrial pursuits on account of age-long family tradition. The scheme is conservative in the sense that while instruction in modern industrial methods will be imparted, whatever is valuable in the old and indigenous methods will be utilized. The industries suited to localities will alone be taught and the teaching conducted as far as possible by local professional men and, hence, imparted

in the vernacular language. The subjects taught will, for the present, be restricted to carpentry, black-smithy, weaving and gold-smithy, brick-laying and shoe-making. The recurring expenditure on the 28 schools proposed, will vary from Rs. 38,256 to Rs. 4,248 according to the grade of the school started. The initial expenditure will be about Rs. 2.35 lakhs and the total recurring expenditure Rs. 3.46 lakhs. It is an excellent scheme and none too bold for such a progressive State as Mysore.

In several provinces in India the age for Matriculation or the leaving of a secondary school with a certificate has been fixed at 16. In

this connection it is interesting to note that in England, though the Board of Education requires that to qualify for grants a pupil should remain at school till the age of sixteen at least, the *Educational Times* argues on this question as follows:—"We agree that to give the name of secondary education to a course of study that ends at fifteen is misleading. But we must face the facts as they are. It is a fact that the majority of pupils in secondary schools is before

the age of sixteen. If, therefore, no examination is permitted for children under sixteen, then the majority will leave school without any certificate to satisfy themselves, their parents, and their future employers that they have attended with success a course of education in a secondary school." Considering that the majority of English parents decide to withdraw their children from secondary schools at fifteen to enable them to seek work, it is surprising that in many parts of India Government forces children to stick to schools for one year more. This is all the more so, because every one admits that the average Indian child is precocious in the matter of brain-growth as compared with the average European child at least upto the age of majority. It is high time that the 16-year rule be changed into a 15-year one.

We have to record with deep regret the death in England of Mr. E. W. Middlemast, Principal and Professor of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras. An appreciation of him and of his work will appear in the next number.

GRANT-IN-AID CODE: BOMBAY.

BOMBAY CASTLE, 14th July 1915.

No. 2040.—The following revised Schedule I to the Grant-in-Aid Code, which has been sanctioned by Government in supersession of the one contained in Government Notification No. 753,* dated the 12th April, 1907, is published for general information:—

Schedule I.

(1,115).

SCHEME FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ART.

1. This scheme is framed, first, to encourage the study of drawing by all pupils in aided schools throughout the Presidency of Bombay as a regular portion of the school curriculum; secondly, to induce the managers of aided schools to give facilities for more advanced study to those pupils who show special aptitude for drawing; thirdly, to encourage the study of painting, design, modelling, and architecture by awarding certificates and diplomas for each of these subjects to advanced students; and fourthly, to raise the standard of the artistic crafts of the Presidency by offering inducements to craftsmen to study design and to improve their methods of work.

2. The scheme is divided into four sections: Section I applies chiefly to the study of drawing in secondary schools; section II applies to the study of fine art in Schools of Art, and to artists generally; section III applies to the study of industrial art; and section IV applies to the training and examination of teachers of drawing and art.

Section I.

RULES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF DRAWING IN SCHOOLS.

Grants.

3. Aided schools can earn grants under three heads, (a) by a capitation grant on all pupils learning drawing in the school; (b) by a special grant for teaching and equipment; and (c) by a grant on the results of the Elementary and Intermediate Grade Examinations held annually by the Government of Bombay.

* Printed at pages 671—674 of Part I of the Bombay Government Gazette of the 25th April, 1907.

(a) Capitation Grants.

4. A capitation grant of three annas will be given for every pupil of an aided school who is being taught to draw. In addition to the certificate mentioned below a certificate must be forwarded, signed by the responsible authority of the school, to the effect that the pupils have received weekly instruction in drawing during the whole of the school year for which the grant is claimed.

(b) Special Grants.

5. Every school having thirty pupils learning drawing will be eligible for receiving a special grant up to the amount of Rs. 150 towards the cost of its drawing teacher and equipment.

6. In order to draw the capitation and special grants a certificate must be obtained from the Government Inspector of Drawing and Craftwork to the effect that (a) the classes are properly equipped, (b) the registers are in order, and (c) the subject is being properly taught. If these conditions are not complied with, the grants may be reduced or withheld.

If the Inspector has not been able to visit the school in any particular year, and consequently a new certificate has not been given, the grants may be claimed upon his previous certificate. If the Inspector has never visited the school, and consequently no certificate has been given, the grants earned by the school on the drawing teacher and on the results of the First Grade Drawing Examination in 1914-15 may be claimed.

(c) Grants obtainable on the results of Examinations.

7. On the results of the Elementary Grade Examination—

For every pupil who passes ... Rs. 15
For every pupil marked "Good" ... 20
For every pupil marked "Excellent" ... 25

On the results of the Intermediate Grade Examination—

For every pupil who passes ... Rs. 20
For every pupil marked "Good" ... 25
For every pupil marked "Excellent" ... 30

These payments will be made only on account of pupils attending aided institutions, and in the case of the Elementary Grade Examination the pupils must be under 18 years

of age. In order to earn the grants for "Good" or "Excellent" work the pupil must have obtained "Good" or "Excellent" results, as the case may be, in all subjects of the Examination. In order to draw these grants a certificate must be forwarded, signed by the responsible authority of the school, to the effect that all the successful candidates have studied for at least 100 days in the school previous to the examination.

PRIZES AND CERTIFICATES.

8. At the Elementary Grade Examination a prize of Rs. 4 and at the Intermediate Grade Examination a prize of Rs. 6 will be given to every candidate who reaches the standard of "Excellent" in any subject of the examination, provided that he has passed the whole examination, and provided also that in the case of the Elementary Grade he is under 18 years of age.

9. A certificate will be given to every candidate who passes either examination.

EXAMINATIONS.

10. Examinations in Elementary and Intermediate grades for the purpose of awarding certificates and prizes will be held annually on dates (as a rule in February or March) settled by the Director of Public Instruction. The fee for the Elementary Examination will be Rs. 2 for each candidate, and that for the Intermediate Examination Rs. 3. All fees must be paid in advance, and will in no case be returned.

11. Candidates must be presented for all the subjects of examination, and will pass or fail according to the quality of their papers considered as a whole. A candidate who passes in one or more subjects, but fails in the whole examination, will be required to sit for the whole examination again if he presents himself in the following or any succeeding year.

Elementary Grade Examination.

12. The subjects of this examination are as follows:—

(1) Model and object drawing.

The fundamental forms such as cube, cylinder, etc., and their application to the drawing of common objects such as household and workshop articles, lotas, vases, etc.

The principles of perspective should be learned by observation rather than by rule.

(2) Freehand drawing.

Examples may be set from drawings of ornament and of simple natural forms, such as flowers, plants, and other natural or fashioned objects.

(3) Plant form and nature drawing.

Drawing from nature of shells, fruit, flowers, and plants of simple character.

(4) Colour and brush drawing.

This may consist of washing in the correct colours of the natural and ornamental forms, and of objects drawn in outline, and also the drawing of leaves, flowers, and objects with the brush direct from nature.

(5) Design.

By design is meant the gradual development and evolution of pattern, simple borders, and the construction of patterns by the repetition or arrangement of one or more geometric forms. Thus any series of rectangular forms placed side by side, or overlapping one another, will arrange themselves into a definite pattern; and the same holds good with circular, triangular, elliptical, or many sided figures. The patterns thus evolved from the basis of all Arabic, and of a great deal of Gothic and Japanese tracery and ornament.

(6) Memory drawing.

The following plan for teaching memory drawing is suggested:—

(a) The teacher should make for his own use a list of simple objects found in the pupils' homes, seen in the street, or used in the school.

(b) At the end of one drawing lesson he should tell his pupils that at the next lesson they will have to draw one of these simple objects from memory in fifteen minutes. He should impress upon them the necessity of taking particular notice of it in the interval.

(c) Either at the beginning or at the end of the following lesson the object should be drawn by all the pupils. The drawing need not be very large, and should not take more than fifteen minutes, for such a space of time is sufficient to allow any pupil to put down all the facts he can remember; any further time spent on the exercise is there-

fore wasted. When this drawing is finished, another subject should be announced, and so on throughout the term or session.

(d) Occasionally a freehand copy that has already been drawn may be given as a subject for memory drawing. This may be shown for a few minutes to the pupils for them to refresh their memories, and should then be taken away, the drawing being made entirely from memory. The list should include memory drawing of plants, shells, etc.

Intermediate Grade Examination.

13. The subjects of this examination are as follows :—

(1) Model and object drawing.

Continuation of the Elementary Grade course, the objects gradually becoming of a more difficult nature. Shading may be introduced.

(2) Freehand drawing.

Continuation of the Elementary Grade course.

(3) Plant form and nature drawing.

Continuation of the Elementary Grade course, with the addition of more difficult natural specimens, such as birds, fish, animals.

(4) Colour and brush drawing.

Continuation of the Elementary Grade course.

(5) Design.

This will include simple chequer and interlacing patterns, borders, repeating patterns, and the filling of a given shape or spaces. When a repeating pattern is required, four repeats at least of the design should be shown. As a rule a decorative treatment of natural forms should be used in the designs. Colour may be used simply to separate the ornament from the background, or to colour the design, either in the colour suggested by nature, or in colours combined to form a decorative effect. As far as possible it should be assumed that the designs are for some actual position or use on material, which should be stated.

(6) Memory drawing.

Continuation of the Elementary Grade course.

(7) Scale drawing and lettering.

Scale drawing.—Objects drawn to scale from actual measurements. The measurements should be taken from some object in the school room, or near the school, and dictated to the class. As far as possible the scale drawing should be taken in connection with woodwork or any other branch of practical school work.

Lettering.—The proportion and spacing of letters, and their arrangement in words; the setting out of titles and headings.

14. Candidates can enter for the Intermediate examination without having previously passed the Elementary examination.

Section II.

RULES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF (a) DRAWING AND PAINTING, (b) DESIGN, (c) MODELLING, (d) ARCHITECTURE.

N.B.—(1) Candidates for any examination in this section who appear from the Sir J. J. School of Art must pay the full fee one month before the date of the examination.

(2) Candidates for any examination in this section who submit testimonies of study must remit half the examination fee along with the testimonies. This fee will in no case be returned, but if the testimonies of the candidate are accepted by the examiners and he is allowed to appear for the examination, the half fee already paid will be credited to the candidate. The remaining half of the fee must be paid at least one month before the date of the examination.

(a) DRAWING AND PAINTING.

Elementary Examination in Drawing and Painting.

15. Candidates for this examination must have studied for two full sessions (first and second years) in the Painting School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Three drawings of a head, either from life or from a plaster cast, drawn in charcoal or watercolour monochrome. Each drawing must fairly fill an imperial sheet of paper.

(b) Three paintings of still life, fruit, flowers, or other natural objects, painted in oil, tempera, or watercolour. Size not less than 18" x 12".

(c) Two sheets showing a method of setting up in perspective a drawing of a simple solid object from its plan and elevations. Size not less than a half imperial sheet.

(d) Two pictorial compositions of any subjects the candidate may have chosen, which may be executed in any medium. Size not less than a half imperial sheet.

16. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

17. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

18. The subjects for this examination are as follows :—

(1) Candidates will draw in charcoal, or paint in watercolour monochrome, a plaster cast of a head, showing the principal masses of light and shade.

(2) Candidates will paint in oil, tempera, or watercolour a head from life.

(3) Candidates will paint in oil, tempera, or watercolour a group of still-life objects, fruit, or flowers.

(4) Candidates will draw from memory an animal, bird, or object commonly seen upon the road or in the fields.

(5) Candidates must pass a test in perspective (elementary).

(6) Candidates will make a pictorial design for a panel or space of a given shape.

Subjects (1) and (2) must fill an imperial sheet of paper, or a canvas of about the same size. Subject (3) must be painted on canvas or paper measuring not less than 20" x 14". Subject (4) should be drawn on a sheet of paper not less than 10" x 8", which should be fairly filled. Subject (6) should be drawn on a sheet of paper or canvas not less than 18" on its longest side.

19. In deciding the result of the examination the whole record of the candidate will be taken into consideration. Values will be given for all the class work that has been done throughout the two years, for notebooks, and for vacation studies. To these will be added the values awarded for the examina-

tion, and the decision will be made on the total.

20. In the case of candidates who are not students of the Sir J. J. School of Art values will be awarded for the testimonies of study submitted as well as for the examination, and the decision will be made on the total.

21. The fee for the Elementary examination is Rs. 5, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Intermediate Examination in Drawing and Painting.

22. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the third year class of the Painting School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Three drawings of full length figures from a plaster cast or from life. The figure must be not less than 24" high.

(b) Two sheets of perspective drawings showing a method of setting up in perspective a drawing of a building from its plan and elevation, or of the interior of a large hall.

(c) Two pictorial compositions in which figures are included.

(d) Any sketch books or studies which the candidate has kept during the two years preceding the examination.

23. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

24. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

25. The subjects for this examination are as follows :—

(1) Candidates will draw in charcoal, or paint in watercolour monochrome, a full length figure from a plaster cast from the antique.

(2) Candidates will paint in oil, tempera, or watercolour a full length figure from life.

(3) Candidates will draw from memory a human figure, an animal, or bird, or some

object seen upon the road or in the fields.

(4) Candidates must pass a test in perspective (advanced).

(5) Candidates will draw or paint a pictorial design in which figures are included, to fill a given space.

For subject (1) an imperial sheet of paper must be used, and the figure must not be less than 24" high. For subject (2) a canvas not less than 24" x 16" must be filled. For subject (3) a sheet of paper not less than 10" x 8" should be used, which should be fairly well filled. For subject (5) paper or canvas not less than 18" on its longest side must be used.

26. As in the case of the Elementary examination the whole year's record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

27. The fee for the Intermediate examination is Rs. 10, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Advanced Examination in Drawing and Painting.

28. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the fourth year class of the Painting School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Three sheets or canvases of paintings in oil, tempera, or watercolour of figures from life, the height of which must not be less than 36".

(b) Six sheets of anatomical drawings showing the front, back, and side views of a figure. Three sheets must show the bones, and three the muscles. The names of the bones and muscles must be given, and the drawings must be tinted in watercolour.

(c) Three pictorial compositions upon three sheets of paper or canvas of different shapes : the size must not be less than 36" x 36", 40" x 25", and 36" x 18".

(d) Any sketch books or studies which the candidate has kept during the two years preceding the examination.

29. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

30. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

31. The subjects for this examination are as follows :—

(1) Candidates will paint in oil, tempera, or watercolour a full length figure from life.

(2) Candidates will be examined regarding their knowledge of human anatomy.

(3) Candidates will draw or paint a pictorial composition (including figures) to fill a given space.

(4) Candidates will draw from memory a group consisting of figures in a landscape, or in a street, or figures with cattle or other objects seen upon the road or in the fields.

Subject (1) must be painted upon a canvas or paper not less than 36" x 24", and the figure if standing must not be less than 28" in height. Subject (3) must be drawn or painted on paper or canvas the longest side of which measures at least 36". Subject (4) must be drawn or painted on paper not less than 12" x 10".

32. As in the case of the Elementary and Intermediate examinations the whole year's record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

33. The fee for the Advanced examination is Rs 15, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Examination for the Government Diploma in Drawing and Painting.

34. Candidates for this diploma must have studied for one full session in the fifth year class of the Painting School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study :—

Three finished figure studies executed in oil or watercolour, together with any six other studies or works which the candidate may choose to submit.

35. These testimonies must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

36. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

37. The examination will begin with a preliminary examination during which a finished sketch of a definite subject, or of one of a number of subjects given by the examiner, must be made by the candidate in a specified time. This sketch will be returned to the candidate, but a photograph or other reproduction of it will be retained by the examiners. From the sketch a finished picture or decorative panel, retaining the principal characteristics of the sketch, must be made by the candidate. Upon this finished picture and the year's work, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), the diploma will be granted or withheld.

38. The candidate may be required to execute this picture under supervision. In any case a declaration will be required, supported by the testimony of a responsible person, that the work is entirely from the hand of the candidate. If the examiner has reason to doubt the original character of the work, he will have power to withhold the diploma without giving any grounds for his decision ; and the diploma may be withdrawn at any time if evidence is forthcoming that assistance has been given to the candidate.

39. The fee for the diploma examination is Rs. 25, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

(b) DESIGN.

Elementary Examination in Design.

40. Candidates for this examination must have studied for two full sessions (first and second years) in the Design School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Six sheets of coloured drawings of plants and flowers, showing the growth and details. Size of each sheet not less than 14" x 10".

(b) Three sheets of repeating patterns based upon plant studies, suitable for some industrial purpose which must be indicated. Size, an imperial sheet for each design.

(c) Three self-contained designs, also based

upon plant studies. Size, an imperial sheet for each design.

(d) Six sheets of existing Persian or Indian geometric ornament used in buildings, or for an industrial purpose, showing the basis upon which the designs are worked and developed.

(e) Sketch books or studies which the candidate has kept during the two years preceding the examination.

(f) Three sheets of problems in plane and solid geometry including the development of surfaces and intersection of solids.

41. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

42. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

43. The subjects for this examination are as follows :—

(1) Candidates will make a set of drawings of a plant or flower, showing the growth and such details as the manner in which the flower is joined to the stem, and the junction of the stems to the main bough.

(2) From the sheet of drawings so made a design will be drawn and coloured, either (i) of a repeating pattern not less than 21" x 21", suitable for embroidery, weaving, tile painting, or some other industrial purpose; or (ii) of a complete design treated in Persian or Indian style, suitable for a given space in a building, for wood tracery or stone carving, metal work, etc.

(3) Geometry, plane and solid.

(4) Candidates will make a geometrical design.

Subject (2) (i) should be drawn on a sheet of paper of imperial size, which the pattern should entirely cover, the basis of the design being shown by dotted lines in pencil or ink. Subject (2) (ii) should be drawn on a sheet of paper of imperial size, the proportions of the design being given at the time of examination. Subject (4) should be drawn on a sheet of paper of imperial size.

44. In deciding the result of the examination the whole record of the candidate will

be taken into consideration. Values will be given for all the classwork that has been done throughout the two years, for notebooks, and for vacation studies. To these will be added the values awarded for the examination, and the decision will be made on the total.

45. In the case of candidates who are not students of the Sir J. J. School of Art values will be awarded for the testimonies of study submitted as well as for the examination, and the decision will be made on the total.

46. The fee for the Elementary examination is Rs. 5, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Intermediate Examination in Design.

47. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in third year class of the Design School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) Six studies in monochrome drawn from casts or from actual specimens of ornament. One of these studies must be of Hindu, and one of Muhammadan ornament. One each study must be printed the name of the building from which the ornament has been taken. The size of each study must be an imperial sheet of paper.

(b) Six studies drawn from actual specimens of craft work, such as gold or silver work, pottery, textiles, or woodcarving. Where colour has been employed in the originals the studies must be in colour; otherwise the studies may be in pencil or ink, but must be tinted to indicate the general colour of the object and the shadows cast by the projections of the ornament.

(c) Six studies showing the main features of Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Hindu, and Muhammadan architecture, with characteristic examples of ornament accompanying each style. The studies must be drawn upon sheets of imperial size, not less than one sheet being given to the architecture, and one to the ornament of each subject.

(d) Two sheets of lettering. One sheet must consist of three alphabets of different styles of European text (such as Roman, Gothic, or Italian), or a page of lettering of such text. The second may consist of Persian, Arabic, Urdu, or any other text used

in India. The size of each sheet must be not less than half an imperial sheet.

(e) Six original designs for any given industrial purpose, such as gold or silver work, textiles, wood or stone carving, tile work, etc. Full size details of the ornament must be given, as well as working drawings.

(f) Sketch books or studies kept by the candidate during the two years preceding the examination may be submitted.

48. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

49. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

50. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) The candidate will decorate a diagram of a given shape (such as a frieze, a panel, the spandrel between two arches, etc.) (i) in European style, or (ii) in Persian or Indian style.

(2) Candidates will be examined on the characteristics of Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Renaissance, Hindu, and Muhammadan architecture and ornament.

(3) Candidates will be examined on the application of lettering to inscriptions upon stone, metal, parchment, etc.

(4) Candidates will make an original design for a given industrial purpose.

51. As in the case of the Elementary examination, the whole year's record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

52. The fee for the Intermediate examination is Rs. 10, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Advanced Examination in Design.

53. At the time of applying for permission to enter for this examination, which must not be later than the 1st of January preceding the examination, each candidate must name a craft in relation to which he desires to be examined. The craft must be selected from the following list, in which

letters are placed in brackets after the names of the crafts to indicate whether they respectively involve modelling (M), a knowledge of architecture (A), or the use of the figure (F).

List of Crafts.

Iron work (M.A.).
Lead work (M.A.).
Light metal work (M.A.F.).
Gold and silver smithing (M.A.F.).
Jewellery (M.F.).
Enamelling (F.).
Die sinking (M.F.).
Stone carving (M.A.F.).
Plastering (M.A.F.).
Painting and decorating (A.).
Wallpaper manufacture.
Mosaic (A.F.).
Glass painting (A.F.).
Wood carving (M.A.F.).
Cabinet work (A.).
Tile painting and modelling (M.F.).
Pottery (M.F.).
Glass blowing (M.).
Tapestry (A.F.).
Embroidery (F.).
Dress design.
Lace making.
Carpet weaving.
Linen weaving.
Silk weaving.
Wool weaving.
Cotton printing.
Typography.
Illumination (A.F.).
Book binding.
Wood inlaying (A.).

54. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the fourth year class of the Design School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) Such note-books and sketch-books as they have kept during the two years preceding the examination.

(b) If their craft involves modelling, one finished drawing from a cast of historic ornament, and one example of finished modelling from such a cast; if their craft does not involve modelling, two finished drawings from historic ornament only.

(c) At least one complete product of

their craft produced as well as designed by them; or where the conditions of manufacture render this impossible, full working drawings or models prepared by them for such a product.

(d) Three actual drawings giving evidence that they have studied and copied good historic examples of their craft.

(e) Evidence that they have followed a course of study appropriate to their craft. If their craft involves modelling, three models from the antique; if it does not involve modelling, three drawings from the antique; and in both cases three drawings from memory of natural objects. If the craft involves a knowledge of architecture, three architectural drawings.

55. Candidates who have passed the Advanced examinations in drawing, modelling, or architecture need not submit testimonies of study in respect of branches of work covered by those examinations.

56. The testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

57. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

58. The Advanced Examination in Design comprises the four tests set out below. Each candidate must in all cases take the tests prescribed for his craft as a whole, but marked success in one test may be allowed to compensate for a comparative want of success in another. If a candidate has passed the examinations in drawing and painting, modelling, or architecture in any previous year, the success then obtained will be fully taken into account. But the fact that a candidate has previously passed in subjects corresponding to any of the present tests will not exempt him from undergoing all the tests comprised in this examination.

59. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) Drawing or modelling from historic ornament.

(a) Candidates whose crafts do not involve modelling will be required to make a

shaded drawing upon an imperial sheet of paper, from a cast, of an architectural feature involving ornamental detail. The drawing may be in pencil, chalk, pen and ink, or wash in watercolour; and must not be of the same size as the example selected for copying. No ruling, measuring, or use of instruments will be allowed.

(b) Candidates whose crafts involve modelling will be required to model from a cast an architectural feature including ornamental detail. This model must be cast by the candidate.

(2) Practical Design.

(a) The principles of design, materials, light and shade, colour, and composition.

(b) The enlargement and reduction of designs according to scales, the preparation of working drawings, and the materials and processes connected with the candidate's craft.

(c) Lettering (Roman, Gothic, Urdu or other Indian texts).

(d) Costume.

(3) Original Design.

Candidates will be required to make an original design on a motive and for a purpose prescribed by the examiners. The design must be practically adapted to production by the selected craft. The use of the figure may be required if the craft is one involving that use. The style of the design will be entirely at the candidate's choice, and may be based upon some historic style, or upon natural foliage, or otherwise. If the craft involves modelling, the design must be modelled. Candidates will be required to give a rough estimate of the cost of carrying out their designs or, where this is not practicable, to show some knowledge of the factors determining the cost.

(4) History and Styles of Ornament.

Candidates will be required to answer questions on the history and styles of ornament, with special reference to the relation of ornament to architecture and to the industrial arts. They must show correct knowledge of the current nomenclature of ornament and of the various kinds of pattern.

60. As in the case of the Elementary and Intermediate examinations the whole year's

record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

61. The fee for the Advanced examination is Rs. 15, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Examination for the Government Diploma in Design.

62. Candidates for this diploma must have studied for one full session in the fifth year class of the Design School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

Three finished works which have been designed and executed entirely by the candidate, together with any six other studies.

63. These testimonies must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

64. The testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

65. The examination will begin with a preliminary examination during which a finished sketch of a definite subject, or of one of a number of subjects given by the examiner, must be made by the candidate in a specified time. This sketch will be returned to the candidate, but a photograph or other reproduction of it will be retained by the examiners. From the sketch a finished design or model, retaining the principal characteristics of the sketch, must be made by the candidate. Upon this finished design or model and the year's work, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), the diploma will be granted or withheld.

66. The candidate may be required to execute this design or model under supervision. In any case a declaration will be required, supported by the testimony of a responsible person, that the work is entirely from the hand of the candidate. If the examiner has reason to doubt the original character of the work, he will have power to withhold the diploma without giving any grounds for his decision; and the diploma may be with-

drawn at any time if evidence is forthcoming that assistance has been given to the candidate.

67. The fee for the diploma examination is Rs. 25, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

(c) MODELLING.

Elementary Examination in Modelling.

68. Candidates for this examination must have studied for two full sessions (first and second years) in the Modelling School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) The Intermediate Grade Drawing Certificate.

(b) Three sheets of drawings of plants, with details, and three sheets of designs for panels or mouldings, based upon the drawings of plants suitable for modelling. The size of each sheet must be not less than imperial.

(c) One cast in plaster of Paris of a head in relief, modelled by the candidate from a cast or from life. The head and neck must be not less than 15" high.

69. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

70. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

71. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) Candidates will model in clay a full-sized copy of a plaster cast of a head.

(2) Candidates will model in clay a plant or flower from nature.

(3) Candidates will model in clay an ornamental panel to decorate a given space such as a rectangular panel; the design to be based on the plant or flower modelled under (2).

All models must be cast in plaster by the candidates themselves.

72. In deciding the result of the examination the whole record of the candidate will be taken into consideration. Values will be given for all the classwork that has been one

throughout the two years, for note-books, and for vacation studies. To these will be added the values awarded for the examination, and the decision will be made on the total.

73. In the case of candidates who are not students of the Sir J. J. School of Art values will be awarded for the testimonies of study submitted as well as for the examination, and the decision will be made on the total.

74. The fee for the Elementary examination is Rs. 5, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Intermediate Examination in Modelling.

75. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the third year class of the Modelling School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) A model in plaster of Paris of a full length figure from an antique cast. Size not less than 30" high.

(b) A model in plaster of Paris of a life-sized head from life.

(c) Two models of a figure in plaster or wax showing the anatomy of (i) the skeleton, (ii) the muscles; or six sheets of anatomical drawings showing front, back and side views of a figure. Three sheets must show the bones and three the muscles.

(d) A model in plaster of Paris of a panel in which figures are used as a part of the design. Size not less than 36" on the longest side.

76. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

77. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

78. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) Candidates will model a life-sized head and bust in clay from life. Candidates must set up their own armatures.

(2) Candidates will model a full length figure from a cast; size not less than 30".

(3) Candidates will model a panel in which figures form part of the design.

(4) Candidates will be examined in human anatomy.

All models must be cast in plaster by the candidates themselves.

79. As in the case of the Elementary examination the whole year's record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

80. The fee for the Intermediate examination is Rs. 10, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Advanced Examination in Modelling.

81. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the fourth year class of the Modelling School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) A full length study in plaster of Paris of a figure from life; size not less than 48" high.

(b) A sketch in wax or plaster of Paris of a group consisting of not less than three figures; size not less than 18" high.

(c) A design modelled in relief consisting of not less than three figures. Size not less than 36" on its longest side.

(d) Any sketch books or sketch models the candidate may have kept during the two years preceding the examination.

82. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

83. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

84. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) Candidates will model a full length figure from life. The model must be not less than 30" high.

(2) Candidates will model in the round a design for a given purpose, such as a street fountain or a commemorative group. Size not less than 18" high.

(3) Candidates will design and model a relief decoration for a portion of a building, such as a spandrel, a panel over a doorway, or other architectural feature. The design should include figures, and must not be less

than one-third of the size of the space it is intended to fill.

All models must be cast in plaster by the candidates themselves.

85. As in the case of the Elementary and Intermediate examinations the whole year's record of the candidate, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), will be considered and valued in conjunction with his examination papers.

86. The fee for the Advanced examination is Rs. 15, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Examination for the Government Diploma in Modelling.

87. Candidates for this diploma must have studied for one full session in the fifth year class of the Modelling School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

Three finished works, one of which must be in the round, together with any six other studies.

88. These testimonies must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

89. The testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

90. The examination will begin with a preliminary examination during which a finished sketch in clay or wax of a definite subject, or of one of a number of subjects given by the examiner, must be made by the candidate in a specified time. This sketch will be returned to the candidate, but a photograph or other reproduction of it will be retained by the examiners. From the sketch a finished model or decorative panel, retaining the principal characteristics of the sketch, must be made by the candidate. Upon this finished model and the year's work, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), the diploma will be granted or withheld.

91. The candidate may be required to execute this model under supervision. In any case a declaration will be required, supported by the testimony of a responsible person, that the work is entirely from the hand of the can-

didate. If the examiner has reason to doubt the original character of the work, he will have power to withhold the diploma without giving any grounds for his decision; and the diploma may be withdrawn at any time if evidence is forthcoming that assistance has been given to the candidate.

92. The fee for the diploma examination is Rs. 25, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

(d) ARCHITECTURE.

Elementary Examination in Architecture.

93. Candidates for this examination must have studied for two full sessions (first and second years) in the Architectural School of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, or must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) Three drawings of ornament from casts or from actual buildings, each on paper of not less than half imperial size, in charcoal, pencil, or watercolour wash, showing light and shade.

(b) One sheet of drawings of a simple building or part of a building, or of a piece of craftwork or furniture, from actual measurements, with jointing, construction, and details. In all cases the date of the work must be previous to the year 1820. The original sketches and measurements must be appended.

(c) Two sheets of drawings showing structural details of brick work, carpentry, and joinery, and one tracing on linen of one of the above;

or

One tracing of a working drawing of a building under construction, provided that the original working drawing was made by the candidate as part of his duties in an architect's office in which he has been employed, and that this fact is certified in writing by his employer.

(d) One sheet of geometrical drawings comprising the development of surfaces and the penetration of solids, with additional elevations or plans.

(e) One drawing showing in plan and elevation the tracing of the shadows on the capital of a column, and the shadow cast by the capital on a vertical plane placed immediately behind it; the light to be taken as coming from left to right at an angle of 45° to the vertical and horizontal planes. The capital may be of any

traditional classic or Indian design. Construction lines must be shown.

(f) One or two sheets showing a method of setting up in perspective a drawing of a building from its plan and elevations.

(g) One set of survey drawings of a building and compound, together with the field book and details of plotting, levelling, and contouring.

With the exception of the first all the above testimonies of study must be on paper of imperial size.

94. These testimonies of study must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

95. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by the architect under whom the candidate has worked, or by the head of the School of Art in which he has studied architecture, or by some other responsible person; stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

N.B.—In the case of (b) and (g) the surveys may have been made in conjunction with another student, or with another member of an office staff, but the drawings must be the work of the candidate himself. The name and designation of the person who assisted in taking the measurements or surveys must be stated on the drawing.

96. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

- (1) Freehand drawing.
- (2) Modelling.
- (3) Measured drawing (Testimonies).
- (4) Building construction and carpentry.
- (5) Drawing to scale from rough sketches.
- (6) Tracing.
- (7) Geometry (plane, solid, and mensuration).
- (8) Sciography.
- (9) Perspective.
- (10) Surveying and levelling.

In addition there will be a practical oral examination.

97. In deciding the result of the examination the whole record of the candidate will be taken into consideration. Values will be given for all the classwork that has been done throughout the two years, for lecture note-

illustrate the design; all that is required is that the candidate's conception should be explained. As regards style, at least one design must be Indian, and one should be classical.

N.B.—In general one elevation, with plan and section to half its scale, and a detail of ornament or decoration (or where the main drawing is to a large scale, a key plan or key elevation) should be sufficient to explain the candidate's ideas.

(b) Two freehand drawings from the antique, and one from life, in charcoal or watercolour wash.

(c) Two photographs of models executed by the candidate; one to be of a detail of ornament occurring in one of the designs submitted under (a).

(d) Candidates must submit again to the examiners the testimonies of study prepared under (e) for the Advanced Examination in Architecture, supplemented by drawings (one-eighth and half inch scales) showing the drainage, ventilation, and water-supply for the building, and the scheme for wiring for electric light and fans and for telephones. If practicable the original drawings may be employed for the purpose, or the information may be given on sheets of tracing paper attached to the original drawings.

N.B.—If a candidate wishes to appear for the diploma examination, without having passed the previous examinations, the whole of the drawings required under (e) of the testimonies of study for the Advanced Examination in Architecture must be prepared and submitted.

(e) One set of drawings of a building from actual measurements, with jointing construction, and details. Shadows to be traced correctly, and the drawings rendered in monochrome. Great care must be taken with the original sketches and measurements, which must be appended. A perspective sketch must also be given. The candidate is at liberty to make a study of a ruined building, in which case a conjectural restoration should be made, and in this colour may be employed in rendering. In all cases the date of the building must be previous to the year 1820.

113. All the above testimonies must be on

paper of not less than imperial size. They must be submitted by the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

114. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by the architect under whom the candidate has worked, or by the head of the School of Art in which he has studied architecture, or by some other responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

N.B.—(1) In the case of (e) the surveys may have been made in conjunction with another student, but the drawing must be the work of the candidate himself. The name and designation of the person who assisted in taking measurements must be stated on the drawing.

(2) A set of measured drawings will be insisted on as vacation study for candidates who are students in the fifth year class of the Architectural School of the Sir J. J. School of Art.

115. The examination will consist of—

(a) Written papers on—

(1) The principles of design and composition.

(2) Electrical engineering.

(3) Hygiene.

(b) The preparation of an architectural design. This will begin with a preliminary of a definite subject, or of one of a number of subjects given by the examiner, must be made by the candidate in a specified time. This sketch will be returned to the candidate, but a photograph or other reproduction of it will be retained by the examiners. From the sketch a finished design, retaining the principal characteristics of the sketch, must be made by the candidate. Upon this finished design and the year's work, or the testimonies of study (as the case may be), taken in conjunction with the examination papers, the diploma will be granted or withheld.

116. In addition to such drawings as are specified at the time of the examination the candidate will also be required to make a full, or half-full, size cartoon in charcoal or watercolour wash of some decorative feature

occurring in his design; and a plaster model of some other detail of ornament.

117. The candidate may be required to make all these drawings under supervision. In any case a declaration will be required, supported by the testimony of a responsible person, that the work is entirely from the hand of the candidate. If the examiner has reason to doubt the original character of the work, he will have power to withhold the diploma without giving any grounds for his decision; and the diploma may be withdrawn at any time if evidence is forthcoming that assistance has been given to the candidate.

118. The fee for the diploma examination is Rs. 25, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

Section III.

RULES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF APPLIED ART.

119. An examination will be held, and certificates granted, in any of the crafts mentioned below, provided that ten candidates apply to be examined in one grade of a single craft.

120. Intending candidates will be furnished with details of the examination on applying to the Inspector of Drawing and Craftwork, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay.

121. Applications for permission to sit for these examinations must be made by the 1st of January in each year. The fee must be remitted along with the application. If no examination is after all held, the fee will be refunded to the applicant.

122. The fees, which must be paid in advance and will not be returned except in the case of no examination being held, will be—

Elementary	...	Rs.	5
Intermediate	...	"	10
Advanced	...	"	15

123. The following are the crafts recognized :—

METAL WORK.

- (a) Gold and silver smith's work.
Advanced } Drawing and design.
- (b) Copper, brass, and other soft metal work.
Elementary }
Intermediate } Drawing and design.
Advanced }

- (c) Wrought iron work.
Elementary. }
Intermediate. } Drawing and design.
Advanced }

- (d) Jeweller's work, including enamelling.
Elementary. }
Intermediate. } Drawing and design.
Advanced }

WOOD WORK.

- (a) Cabinet making.
Elementary. }
Intermediate. } Drawing and design.
Advanced }

- (b) Wood carving.
Elementary. }
Intermediate. } Drawing and design.
Advanced }

- (c) Inlaying.
Intermediate. }
Advanced. } Drawing and design.

STONE WORK.

- (a) Stone work.
Elementary. }
Intermediate. } Drawing and design.

- (b) Marble carving.
Advanced. } ... Drawing and design.

TEXTILES.

- (a) Cotton or wool weaving, including brocade or tapestry weaving.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (b) Silk brocade or tapestry weaving.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (c) Carpet and rug weaving.
(i) Cotton durry (dari) weaving.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (ii) Woollen carpet weaving.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

HANDBOOK PRINTING.

- (a) Cotton and silk.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (b) Handblock cutting for block cutters and wood carvers.
Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

NEEDLE WORK.

- (a) *Cotton embroidery, coloured silk embroidery, gold and silver thread embroidery, appliqué work.*

Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (b) *Lacemaking. ...* { Drawing, design and
colour.

POTTERY.

- (a) *Technology.*

Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (b) *Artistic.*

Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

- (c) *Scientific.*

Intermediate. } Drawing, design and
Advanced. } colour.

HOUSE DECORATION.

- (a) *House decoration.*

Elementary. } Drawing, design and
Intermediate. } colour.

- (b) *Sign painting and lettering.*

Advanced ... { Drawing, design and
colour.

Section IV.

RULES FOR THE TRAINING AND EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS OF DRAWING AND ART.

N.B.—(1) Candidates for any examination in this section who appear from the Sir J. J. School of Art must pay the full fee one month before the date of the examination.

(2) Candidates for the Drawing Master's and Art Master's examinations who submit testimonies of study must remit half the fee for the examination along with the testimonies. This fee will in no case be returned, but if the testimonies of the candidate are accepted by the examiners and he is allowed to appear for the examination, the half fee already paid will be credited to the candidate. The remaining half of the fee must be paid at least one month before the date of the examination.

A.—THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

124. Students desirous of joining the Normal School for drawing teachers at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, must have

a good knowledge of English, must have passed the Intermediate (or Third) Grade Drawing Examination, and must furnish the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Three sheets of drawings of plant forms rendered in colour. Each sheet must be of imperial size.

(b) One sheet of a group of still life (including fruit or flowers) painted in watercolour. The size to be half an imperial sheet.

(c) One sheet of a group of not less than three common objects, rendered in pencil, and showing the principal masses of light and shade. The size to be an imperial sheet.

(d) One design for a definite purpose, such as a woven or printed fabric, tile work, wall stencil, etc. The motive for this design should be taken from one of the plant studies drawn under (a). The size to be an imperial sheet.

125. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

126. Applications for admission together with the testimonies of study must be sent in by the 1st of January in each year. As the number of students admitted to the Normal School is limited, admission will be by competition, should the number of applicants exceed the number of vacancies.

127. The course of study extends over one full session from June to March.

128. The syllabus is as follows :—

*First Term (June to October) :—*Instruction is given in brushwork, free arm, free hand and model drawing, colour, light and shade, plane and solid geometry, pattern drawing, nature drawing, memory drawing, and method of teaching.

*Second Term (November to March) :—*Instruction is given in light and shade, model drawing, colour, perspective, historic ornament, clay modelling, and design. During this term the students undertake practical teaching in the Elementary classes of the School of Art and the Workshops, or may be sent to teach in other schools in Bombay.

129. The fee for students in the Normal School is Rs. 50 per session, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

B.—EXAMINATION FOR THE DRAWING-TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE.

130. Candidates for this examination must have studied for one full session in the Normal School at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, and must have made at least 75 per cent. of the possible number of attendances.

131. The examination consists of—

(1) A practical examination in the subjects included in the syllabus of the Normal School.

(2) A written examination in method, conducted in English.

(3) A practical examination in method.

132. The fee for this examination is Rs. 15, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

C.—EXAMINATION FOR THE DRAWING-MASTER'S CERTIFICATE.

133. In order to qualify for admission to this examination a candidate must hold the Drawing Teacher's Certificate, and must have taught drawing in a secondary school for a period of four years since obtaining that certificate. He must also produce the following testimonies of study :—

(a) Six sheets of studies in monochrome (pencil, charcoal, or watercolour) or ornament drawn from a cast or from original carvings, showing light and shade. Each sheet must be of imperial size.

(b) Six sheets of drawings of plants from nature, with such details of their growth as are useful in design. Each sheet must be of imperial size.

(c) Three studies of still life painted in oil or watercolour, each not less than 24" on its longest side.

(d) Two repeating patterns based upon flowers or plant studies. The designs should be coloured. Each should be on paper of imperial size.

(e) Two borders also based on flower or plant studies; the corners must be shown. Each design must be on paper of imperial size.

(f) Two self-contained designs for panels or window traceries, each on paper of imperial size.

(g) Sketch books or studies kept since passing the Drawing Teacher's Certificate examination.

(h) A complete scheme for the drawing classes of the various standards in a high school.

134. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

135. Candidates must also produce certificates from the heads of the schools at which they have been teaching during the preceding four years, and a certificate from the Inspector of Drawing, should that officer have visited the school at which they were teaching.

136. Three testimonies of study and certificates must be submitted not later than the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

137. The subjects for this examination are as follows :—

(1) Candidates will make a drawing (in pencil, charcoal, or watercolour monochrome) of a cast of ornament in relief. Size, not less than an imperial sheet.

(2) Candidates will paint a group of still life objects in oil or watercolour. Size, not less than 24" on the longest side.

(3) Candidates will make a finished design from a plant form to be supplied by the examiner, who will also determine the size of the design.

(4) A practical examination to show the candidate's capacity as a teacher.

138. The fee for this examination is Rs. 20, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

D.—EXAMINATION FOR THE ART-MASTER'S CERTIFICATE.

139. A candidate may qualify for this examination in one of two ways:—

(i) He must hold a Drawing Master's Certificate and produce testimonies of study; or

(ii) He must hold a Drawing Teacher's Certificate, and must have attended a course of four years at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. During this course he must have qualified in two at least of the following schools:—Drawing and Painting, Modelling, Design, or Architecture. He must also have held a pupil-teachership in the School of Art for one year.

140. Applicants who are candidates under rule 139 (i) must produce the following testimonies of study:—

(a) Any sketch books or studies kept by the candidate since passing the Drawing Master's examination.

Drawing and Painting.

(b) Six studies, full length, of figures from life in charcoal or any other monochrome medium, or six studies from antique or other statues. Each figure must be not less than 24" high.

(c) Six studies from life in colour, painted in either watercolour or oils. These may be full or half length figures, or studies of heads life size. Each full or half length study should be not less than 24" high.

(d) Six landscapes or street scene studies, painted out of doors. Each must be not less than 18" on its longest side.

Design.

(e) A panel containing a design based upon some Indian plant form, not less than 24" on its longest side.

(f) A geometric design for a fretwork screen or window filling in wood or stone, not less than 24" on its longest side.

(g) A repeating pattern for a woven or printed textile, or some other definite purpose. The design to be not less than 20" x 20", and not more than two repeats to be shown in this area.

(h) A design for a border showing the corner and a portion of two sides. Size, not less than 20" x 20", and the width of the border to be not less than 8".

141. All testimonies of study must be accompanied by a certificate signed by a responsible person, stating that the work submitted has been done entirely by the candidate.

142. The testimonies of study must be submitted not later than the 1st of January preceding the examination, and upon their acceptance by the examiners the candidate will be admitted to the examination.

143. Applicants who are candidates under rule 139 (ii) must produce a certificate from the Principal of the Sir J. J. School of Art, showing that they are qualified to appear.

144. The subjects for this examination are as follows:—

(1) Candidates will draw a full length figure from a plaster cast.

(2) Candidates will paint in oil or water-colour a group of still life, or model in clay a plant study from nature.

(3) Candidates will draw, paint, or model a full length figure from life.

(4) Candidates will draw from memory a human figure or animal commonly seen in the streets or in the country.

(5) Candidates will make a design to fit a given shape which will be prescribed at the time of the examination. Figures may be required in the design.

(6) Candidates will make a design for a definite purpose from one of four subjects to be stated at the time of the examination.

(7) A practical examination to show the candidate's capacity as a teacher.

145. The fee for this examination is Rs. 25, which must be paid in advance and will in no case be returned.

PROSPECTUS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION, 1917.

1. The examination will be open to all candidates who have completed sixteen years of age on or before April 1st in the year in which it is held, and who have attended a school duly recognised by the Department for the School Leaving Certificate Examination, and have obtained 75 per cent. of attendances at school meetings held during the two sessions previous to the latest date of sending in the application. Application for admission must be made in Form A appended.* Head-masters are not entitled to detain candidates who have fulfilled the conditions laid down in the rule except in special cases and with the express sanction of the Divisional Inspector. No fee is charged for admission to the examination. Candidates who appear for the examination and fail are eligible for re-admission the next year, provided that they continue to attend school regularly, but no candidate will be allowed to appear for the examination more than three times. In case of transfer from one recognized school to another the certificate in Form A must be signed by the respective head-masters and the scholar's records should be transferred to the school to which he migrates.

Admission forms shall not be issued by head-masters to the candidates till a week before the examination commences, and may be withheld if scholars are irregular in attendance. Scholars from whom admission forms are withheld under this rule will be excluded from the examination and their names and the reasons for exclusion should be at once reported to the Registrar, Departmental Examinations, United Provinces.

2. The following will be the subjects of examination:—

Compulsory.

- (1) English.
- (2) Mathematics, including—
Arithmetic.
Algebra.
Geometry.
Mensuration.

* Omitted here.

- (3) The vernacular* of the candidate.
- (4) History of India.
- (5) General Geography.

N.B.—In English there will be two papers, one of three hours in composition and translation from the vernacular, and the other of three hours on general questions and grammar: there will also be an oral test.† In Mathematics there will be two papers each of two and a half hours, one in Arithmetic and Algebra, and the other in Geometry and Mensuration. In vernacular there will be two papers of two hours each; one paper will be set in composition and translation from English; the other in Unseen passages with questions on Grammar and idioms; there will also be an examination in Dictation in the vernacular under the supervision of the Superintendent of the examination centre by a teacher appointed by him for the purpose. The ability of Urdu candidates to read script will also be tested. In History one paper of two hours will be set, and in Geography also one paper of two hours. Candidates will be required to pass in each subject of the examination.

Optional.

- (1) One of the following classical languages:—
Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, and Latin.
- (2) Commerce.
- (3) Physics and Chemistry.
- (4) A further course in Mathematics, including Mechanics and Trigonometry.
- (5) Botany.
- (6) Agriculture with Surveying.
- (7) Drawing.
- (8) Manual Training.
- (9) A modern European Language.
- (10) Domestic Science.

N.B.—Candidates must take up one optional subject for examination, and no candidate will be examined in more than one. A candidate who has passed the School Leaving Certificate Examination may present himself

* Those whose vernacular is English will be examined in an Indian vernacular.

† Stress will be laid on a candidate's ability to speak English with fair fluency and correctness and to follow it readily when spoken.

for examination in the ensuing year in one or more different optional subjects, and will not be required to take the compulsory subjects again.

3. A syllabus showing the course prescribed for each optional subject is appended (*vide* Appendix C), but schools are at liberty to propose instead their own course on similar lines. The test in each optional subject is laid down in the syllabus.

4. In the written examination great consideration will be given to handwriting, spelling, and accuracy and neatness of work.

5. The examination (oral, practical, and written) will be conducted at the candidate's school but for the sake of convenience the candidates from two or more schools in the same town may be collected at a single centre for the written examination in any subject. A full record kept by the class teacher of the work done in the subject under examination must be submitted by the head-master to the oral or practical examiner, and the question and answer books of candidates at terminal examinations must also be produced for reference. A record of all written and practical work done by students in the class rooms must be kept and produced for the inspection of the examiners, together with a list of candidates showing the opinion of the head-master as to the abilities of the candidates.

NOTE.—When the number of candidates in a hill school falls below ten the candidates may be required to attend another centre for the oral and practical examinations.

6. The head-masters must submit to the Registrar before May 1st in the form noted below, the following particulars for each candidate :—

(i) A single mark representing the percentage of possible marks obtained by each candidate in each subject in all school examinations (tests and periodical examinations) which he had attended during the two years prior to the public examination.

(ii) The average percentage in each subject estimated as above for all the candidates from the school.

(iii) A recommendation for each subject as

to whether in the opinion of the head-master :—

(a) the candidate deserves to pass ("P"),

(b) the candidate does not deserve to pass ("F"),

(c) the candidate's success is doubtful ("D").

Subject.	English.	Mathematics.	History and Geography.	Vernacular.	Optional.	Remarks (if any).
Average percentage of all candidates.	Percentage.	Recommendation.	Percentage.	Recommendation.	Percentage.	Recommendation.
	Recommendation.	Percentage.	Recommendation.	Percentage.	Recommendation.	Percentage.
Name of candidate.						

The particulars given in the above will be taken into account in the award of the certificates. To enable the accuracy of the marks to be tested the head-master should not destroy the records of any candidate until allowed to do so by the Inspector.

7. A list of candidates who pass the examination will be published in the *United Provinces Government Gazette*.

8. The Registrar of the examination will grant certificates in Form B* of the Appendix to candidates who pass the examination.

9. The Registrar of Departmental Examinations is the Registrar of the Examination and Secretary to the Central Examination Board.

10. The Central Examination Board consist of the Director of Public Instruction and the Registrar of Departmental Examinations *ex officio*, five members appointed by the Government, two members nominated by the University, one member nominated by the Chamber of Commerce, and one member of the staff of the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, nominated by the Principal. These nominations will be subject to the approval of Government. Members shall hold office for three years. The Director of Public Instruction is the President of the Board.

11. The duties of the Board are—

- (1) to prescribe courses ;
- (2) to consider courses proposed by schools in lieu of those prescribed ;
- (3) to appoint examiners ;
- (4) to lay down rules and standards of examination ;
- (5) to consider the reports of examiners ;
- (6) to bring out the results of the examinations ;
- (7) to issue a printed report yearly on the conduct of the examination and the work done.

12. The Board will meet in Allahabad in April and November, and at such other times and places as the President may appoint on dates to be fixed by the President. Five shall form a quorum at meetings.

13. The proceedings of every meeting shall be forwarded over the Director's signature to the Government for information and the issue of any orders that may be necessary.

14. The written examination will be held in all schools simultaneously towards the end of March or at the beginning of April. The

* Omitted here.

oral examination is held during the months of January, February, and March. The exact dates will be communicated to each school by the examiner.

15. Head-masters proposing courses in lieu of those prescribed should submit them to the Registrar through the Inspector in the month of September for the approval of the Board. A course which has been approved may not be changed till it has run for three years.

16. Head-masters of recognised schools intending to send up candidates for the examination should inform the Registrar in the month of September of their intention, and should specify the vernacular or Vernaculars in which the candidates are to be examined, as also the optional subject or subjects to be offered by them. Applications for admission to the examination should be forwarded to the Registrar not later than the 15th of October.

17. Examiners will be furnished by the Registrar with lists schoolwise of those candidates whose applications have been entertained, and copies of the lists will be furnished to the head-masters concerned.

18. Examiners shall send to the Registrar the statement of the marks gained by the candidates, together with their recommendations as to passes and failures, the division in which each candidate should be placed, and the award of distinctions. They will also send in therewith a report on the quality of the work in each school, with any suggestions that may be needed for its improvement. The results will be brought out by the Central Examination Board. The general report of the Central Examination Board will be printed for distribution to Inspectors and Head-masters of schools concerned and published in the *United Provinces Government Gazette*.

19. A school desiring to be recognized for the purposes of this examination should apply to the Inspector in the year preceding that in which it proposes to open classes in preparation for the examination, for permission to send up candidates, stating the optional subjects which it intends to offer. Recognition must be separately obtained for each optional subject taken up. The Inspector after making such inquiry as he may deem fit will, if he supports the application, forward it with his

recommendation to the Director by March 1st. If the Inspector is unable to support the application he will inform the school specifically of his reasons for rejecting it. An appeal from the Inspector's decision may be made to the Director, whose decision in all cases is final. The schools recognised for the School Leaving Certificate should report immediately to the Inspector any change in the *personnel*, or in the pay, qualifications, and number of teachers.

20. If the Inspector is of opinion that any school recognised for the School Leaving Certificate Examination in any subject, compulsory or optional, has by reason of defects in regard to staff, equipment or accommodation become unable to provide due preparation for the School Leaving Certificate Examination, he shall specify these defects in writing to the school authorities and report the matter at the same time to the Director.

21. On receipt of this report the Director will direct the Inspector to warn the school authorities that unless within a period, which shall be fixed by the Director, but which shall not be less than one year, the school satisfy the department that it has removed the defects complained of and again attained the standard required by the department, the school will be struck off the list of schools recognized for the School Leaving Certificate Examination with effect from the school year next ensuing.

22. If within the time fixed by the Director the school fails to satisfy the department that the defects complained of have been removed, the Director may strike off the school from the list of recognized schools.

23. The Director will every year in the month of March furnish the Registrar with a list of schools recognized for the purposes of the examination, specifying the subject or subjects in which recognition has been granted. The list will also be published in the *United Provinces Government Gazette*.

APPENDIX C.

SYLLABUS OF THE EXAMINATION.

(1) - Mathematics.

1. *Arithmetic*.—Notation and numeration. The four simple rules. The four compound rules in British and Indian money and in Indian weights and measures in common use in the United Provinces. British and metric systems of measuring length, area, volumes, capacity and weight. Factors. Prime numbers. G. C. M. or H. C. F. by factors. L. C. M. Vulgar Fractions. Vulgar fractions of concrete quantities. Practice. Decimal fractions excluding the theory of recurring decimals. Decimal fractions of concrete quantities. Square root. Ratio. Simple and compound proportion. Proportional parts. Average. Decimal approximations including approximate value of recurring decimals. Contracted methods in the four rules in decimals. Percentages. Profit and loss. Simple and compound interest. Present worth and true discount. Problems (the use of algebraical equations is allowed in solving problems).

2. *Algebra*.—The four simple rules. Fractions. Greatest common measure. Least common multiple. Factors. Proportion. Simple Equation of one or more unknown quantities with easy problems. Square root. Quadratic equations of one unknown quantity with easy problems. Graphs of statistics. Graphs of straight lines. Graphical solution of simultaneous equations. Simple graphical problems.

3. *Geometry*.—The course includes both practical and theoretical Geometry, and every candidate will be expected to answer questions in both branches of the subject. The questions on Practical Geometry will be set on the constructions contained in the annexed Schedule A, together with easy extensions of them. All figures should be drawn accurately, for which purpose every candidate should provide himself with a graduated scale, a pair of set squares, a protractor, a compass, and a hard pencil. The questions on theoretical Geometry will consist of Theorems contained in the annexed Schedule B, together with easy extensions and deductions with numerical

illustrations. Any proof of a proposition will be accepted which appears to the examiners to form part of a systematic treatment of the subject; the order in which the theorems are stated in Schedule B is not imposed as the sequence of their treatment. In the proof of the theorems hypothetical constructions will be permitted.

(Candidates will be provided with squared paper.)

SCHEDULE A.

Bisections of angles and of straight lines. Construction of perpendiculars to straight lines.

Construction of an angle equal to a given angle.

Construction of parallels to a given straight line.

Simple cases of the construction from sufficient data of triangles and quadrilaterals.

Division of straight lines into a given number of equal parts or into parts in any given proportions.

Construction of a triangle equal in area to a given polygon.

Construction of tangents to a circle and of common tangents to two circles.

Simple cases of the construction of circles from sufficient data.

Construction of a fourth proportional to three given straight lines and a mean proportional to two given straight lines.

Construction of regular figures of 3, 4, 6, or 8 sides in or about a given circle.

Construction of a square equal in area to a given polygon.

SCHEDULE B.

Angles at a point.

If a straight line stands on another straight line, the sum of the two angles so formed is equal to two right angles; and the converse.

If two straight lines intersect, the vertically opposite angles are equal.

Parallel Straight Lines.

When a straight line cuts two other straight lines, if—

- (i) a pair of alternate angles are equal, or
- (ii) a pair of corresponding angles are equal, or

(iii) a pair of interior angles on the same side of the cutting line are together equal to two right angles, then the two straight lines are parallel; and the converse.

Straight lines which are parallel to the same straight line are parallel to one another.

Triangles and Rectilineal Figures.

The sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles.

If the side of a convex polygon are produced in order, the sum of the angles so formed is equal to four right angles.

If two triangles have two sides of one equal to two sides of the other, each to each, and also the angles contained by these sides equal, the triangles are congruent.

If two triangles have two angles of the one equal to two angles of the other, each to each, and also one side of the one equal to the corresponding side of the other, the triangles are congruent.

If two sides of a triangle are equal, the angles opposite to these sides are equal; and the converse.

If two triangles have the three sides of the one equal to the three sides of the other, each to each, the triangles are congruent.

If two right-angled triangles have their hypotenuses equal, and one side of the one equal to one side of the other, the triangles are congruent.

If two sides of a triangle are unequal, the greater side has the greater angle opposite to it; and the converse.

Of all the straight lines that can be drawn to a given straight line from a given point outside it, the perpendicular is the shortest.

The opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram are equal; each diagonal bisects the parallelogram and the diagonals bisect one another.

If there are three or more parallel straight lines and the intercepts made by them on any straight line that cuts them are equal, then the corresponding intercepts on any other straight line that cuts them are also equal.

Areas.

Parallelograms on the same or equal bases and of the same altitude are equal in area.

Triangles on the same or equal bases and of the same altitude are equal in area.

Equal triangles on the same or equal bases are of the same altitude.

Illustrations and explanations of the geometrical theorems corresponding to the following Algebraical identities :

$$k(a+b+c+\dots) = ka+kb+kc+\dots$$

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$$

$$(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2.$$

$$a^2 - b^2 = (a+b)(a-b).$$

The square on a side of a triangle is greater than, equal to, or less than, the sum of the squares on the other two sides, according as the angle contained by those sides is obtuse, right or acute. The difference in the case of inequality is twice the rectangle contained by one of the two sides and the projection on it of the other.

Loci.

The locus of a point which is equidistant from two fixed points is the perpendicular bisector of the straight line joining the two fixed points.

The locus of a point which is equidistant from two intersecting straight lines consists of the pair of straight lines which bisect the angles between the two given lines.

The Circle.

A straight line drawn from the centre of a circle to bisect a chord which is not the diameter is at right angles to the chord; conversely, the perpendicular to a chord from the centre bisects the chord.

There is one circle and one only which passes through three given points not in a straight line.

In equal circles (or in the same circle,) (i) if two arcs subtend equal angles at the centres, they are equal; (ii) conversely, if two arcs are equal, they subtend equal angles at the centres.

In equal circles (or in the same circle,) (i) if two chords are equal, they cut off equal arcs; (ii) conversely, if two arcs are equal, the chords of the arcs are equal.

Equal chords in a circle are equidistant from the centre; and the converse.

The tangents at any point of a circle and the radius through the point are perpendicular to one another.

If two circles touch, the point of the contact lies on the straight line through the centres.

The angle which an arc of a circle subtends at the centre is double that which it subtends at any point on the remaining part of the circumference.

Angles in the same segment of a circle are equal and if the line joining two points subtends equal angles at two other points on the same side of it, the four points lie on a circle.

The angle in a semi-circle is a right angle, the angle in a segment greater than a semi-circle is less than a right angle, and the angle in a segment less than a semi-circle is greater than a right angle.

The opposite angles of any quadrilateral inscribed in a circle are supplementary; and the converse. If a straight line touch a circle and from the point of contact a chord be drawn, the angles which this chord makes with the tangent are equal to the angles in the alternate segments.

If two chords of a circle intersect either inside or outside the circle, the rectangle contained by the parts of the one is equal to the rectangle contained by the parts of the other.

Proportion: Similar Triangles.

If a straight line is drawn parallel to one side of a triangle, the other two sides are divided proportionally; and the converse.

If two triangles are equiangular, their corresponding sides are proportional; and the converse.

If two triangles have one angle of the one equal to one angle of the other and the sides about these equal angles proportional, the triangles are similar.

The internal bisector of an angle of a triangle divides the opposite sides internally in the ratio of the sides containing the angle and likewise the external bisector externally.

The ratio of the areas of similar triangles is equal to the ratio of the squares on corresponding sides.

4. *Mensuration.*—Areas of rectangle, circle, triangle, and (after measurement) of any rectilinear figure. Length of the circumference of a circle. Practical determination of volumes of rectangular solid, sphere, cone, and cylinder.

II.—History and Geography.

(1) *History of India.*—A fuller treatment of the course for classes VII and VIII with an outline of the present system of administration.

(2) *Geography.*—Physical. Shape of the earth, rotation and revolution, the seasons, the solar system, latitude and longitude, time problems, surface of the earth, zones, volcanoes, earthquakes, climate, rainfall, the monsoons, rivers and their work, winds, tides and currents.

Geography of the world in outline. The scope of the work is indicated by McDougall's *Earth Knowledge*, Books III and IV.

Geography of the Indian Empire. The scope of the work is indicated by Morison's *Junior Geography of India, Burma, and Ceylon*.

III.—Classical Language.

There will be two papers of three hours each in Classical Languages consisting respectively (1) of text and grammar and (2) of composition and unseen translation.

IV.—Commerce

The examination will consist of three papers of (a) two hours and a half in book-keeping, (b) one hour in commercial correspondence and method, (c) one hour in typewriting and a practical test.

SYLLABUS.

1. *Book-keeping.*

Double entry book-keeping. Keeping the bought and sold books, the cash and bill books and the journal, and recording therein transactions involving purchases and sales, cheques, bills receivable and payable, personal, real, and nominal accounts, such as rent, salaries, interest, discounts, bad debts and depreciation. Posting and closing the ledger, preparing trading and profit and loss accounts and drawing up a trial balance.

2. *Commercial correspondence & method.*

Definition of ordinary commercial terms, use of commercial abbreviations, preparation of an invoice, account sales, statement of account, bills of exchange and other elementary commercial documents and the drafting of simple business letters.

3. *Typewriting.*

Typewriting from manuscript a letter of 200 words and a passage of 400 words at the rate of 20 words a minute; half hour.

Typewriting a balance sheet or a tabular statement with not more than five columns; half hour.

N.B.—Particular attention will be paid to neatness of method and to the accurate mastering of theory which will be specially tested.

Practical Test.—The Practical test will be conducted at the various centres and will include identification and use of the apparatus and a test of the candidate's ability in manipulation of the instrument and carbon manifold.

V.—Physics and Chemistry.

The examination will consist of two papers, each of two hours, and a practical examination.

SYLLABUS.

Definition of Physics and Chemistry.

Measurements of length, area, volume, mass and weight, the balances. Density, specific gravity. Principle of Archimedes. The three states of matter.

Heat.—Expansion of solids, liquids, and gases, temperature, thermometers, melting and boiling points. Conduction, convection, and radiation. Unit of heat, specific heat, latent heat.

Light.—Rectilinear propagation of light. Reflection, refraction, mirrors, simple lenses and prisms. Position of object and image.

Magnetism.—Attraction and repulsion, magnetization, terrestrial magnetism, magnetic meridian. The compass.

Electricity.—Production by friction. Attraction and repulsion. The electroscope, conductors and insulators.

A simple cell, magnetic and heating effect of a current.

Chemistry.—Common properties of common substances. Solubility, crystallization, distillation. Mixtures and compounds, elements and compounds. Metals and non-metals. The atmosphere, combustion, rusting, oxidation. Oxygen and nitrogen, water, hydrogen, carbon, carbonic acid, chalk, animal and plant life.

NOTE.—A course is appended which indicates the minimum amount of practical work required to be performed by students and suggests a method of treatment of the syllabus for the guidance of teachers. [Vide Appendix (1).] Teachers may substitute other experiments of equal educational value. Practical work should be co-ordinated with the theoretical work and follow it consecutively as far as possible. The practical experiments should be performed individually so far as can be arranged.

VI.—Further course in Mathematics, including Mechanics and Trigonometry.

The examination will consist of two papers of three hours each and a practical examination.

SYLLABUS.

1. Algebra—

Fundamental laws and definitions; factors; remainder theorem. H. C. F. and L. C. M. Elementary properties of fractions. Simple, quadratic and simultaneous equations; elementary theory of equations and elementary elimination. Elementary properties of surds and imaginary expressions, involution and evolution. Elementary propositions in ratio, proportion, and variation. Elementary progressions. Graphical representation of simple functions.

2. Mechanics—

Conceptions of force. Graphical representation of forces. Parallelogram law. Triangle of Forces, Polygon of Forces. Composition and resolution of forces. Elementary graphical methods of treating coplanar forces, parallel forces, centres of gravity, moments, couples. Funicular Polygon, conditions of equilibrium for a particle and for a body. Friction and its laws. Simple machines, inclined plane, lever, wheel and arch, pulleys, velocity ratio, force ratio, efficiency.

Meaning of the terms velocity, acceleration, relative velocity, angular velocity, &c. Newton's laws of motion. Impact. Elementary dynamics of rectilinear motion and simple applications to the theory of work. Horse-power.

Meanings of the terms mass, density, specific gravity, intrinsic weight. Pressure

at a point, Pressure of a liquid, Pressure of a gas. Buoyancy of liquids, Boyle's Law.

3. Trigonometry—

Methods of measuring angles; trigonometrical ratios and their values in special elementary cases; relation between the trigonometrical ratios; trigonometrical transformations; multiple and sub-multiple angles; solution of triangles; area of a circle; properties of logarithms; the use of logarithmic tables; elementary properties of triangles; measurements of heights and distances.

Practical Examination.—Determination of the height of a tower, or distance between two inaccessible objects by simple instruments for measuring angles vertically and horizontally.

Simple experiments to illustrate the parallelogram law, principle of the lever, efficiency of simple machines, laws of friction, use of balance, determination of specific gravities of liquids and solids.

VII.—Elementary Botany.

The examination will consist of one paper of three hours and a practical test.

SYLLABUS.

[To be taught as a branch of nature study and illustrated by the common plants of the locality.]

The chief types of flowering and flowerless plants, illustrating the range and variation in *habitat* of the groups of plants comprised in the vegetable kingdom.

The chief organs: root, stem, leaves, flowers, fruits, and seeds of common plants.

Seeds and seedlings.—The structure of seeds. Comparison of types (*a*) the bean, (*b*) castor oil, (*c*) the date: comparison of these with a typical grain (maize) germination, germination energy, and germination capacity. The food materials in seeds, such as starch grains.

The root.—Development of the root from embryo of the seed. Structure of a typical root and its function. Root hairs. Common modifications of typical root structure to subserve definite function. Root storage Adventitious roots.

The stem.—Development of the stem from the embryo of the seed and from buds. Structure of typical stems (of monocotyledons

and dicotyledons). Common modifications of typical stems as adapted to specialized habits. Climbers, rhizomes, &c. Vegetative reproduction in grafting, budding and growth from cuttings.

The leaf.—The structure of a green leaf. The functions of the leaf. Transpiration, assimilation, and respiration. The forms of leaves. Translocation and storage of food.

Inflorescence and flowers.—The parts of flowers. Form of flowers, Pollination and fertilization. The development of seeds.

Fruits and the dispersal of seeds.—The development of fruits. The various methods of seed dispersal.

The natural orders from which illustrations are drawn should be *Cruciferae*, *Malvaceae*, *Liliaceae*, *Anacardiaceae*, *Leguminosae*, *Compositae*, *Baraginaceae*, *Orobanchaceae*, *Solanaceae*, *Labratoc*, *Urticaceae*, *Gramineae*.

Practical Examination.

[To be conducted with actual examples and specimens.]

1. The seed; recognition and dissection of the types specified in the syllabus.

2. Identification of the different forms of roots. The functions performed by these as shown by their characters.

3. Recognition of the various parts of examples dicotyledonous and monocotyledonous, stems and leaves.

4. Description of floral structures, and of common examples of adaptation to different methods of pollination.

5. Recognition of examples of common types of fruits and modifications aiding seed dispersal.

6. The description of local plants of economic importance.

VIII.—Agriculture with Surveying.

The examination will consist of two papers of (*a*) three hours on section I and (*b*) two hours on section II. There will also be a practical test.

SYLLABUS.

Section I.

1. **Plants in cultivation.**—Nourishment, growth, maturity, death and decay, plant requirements in respect of food and water,

seed structure and contents—germination of seed, special types of plants (biennial, perennial): utilisable products of plants,

2. **Soil.**—Obvious differences in soils: classification of soil: recognition of different soils: crops in relation to the soil and climate of the Province: behaviour of different soils in relation to water: downward and capillary movements of water: loss of water by evaporation: loss of plant food by drainage: increasing organic matter of soils.

3. **Irrigation and drainage.**—Sources of irrigation canals, wells (spring and percolation), tanks: methods of raising water: application of water to the land: water requirements of crops: effect of natural drainage on cultivation: artificial drainage: drainage of light and heavy soils: drainage of depressions.

4. **Weather.**—The weather of the United Provinces: seasons: distribution of rainfall: effects of abnormal weather.

Section II.

1. **Tillage.**—Implements and their use: *kharif* and *rabi* tillage: depth of tillage: conservation of moisture: seasonal weeds and eradication of weeds.

2. **Manuring.**—Manurial requirements of the different soils: preservation and application of the manures in common use: feeding cattle on the land: special manures.

3. **Sowing and seed.**—Time and methods of sowing and planting: thinning and transplanting: thick and thin sowing: quality of seed: seed supply: seed selection: deterioration of seed stocks: change of seed.

4. **Harvesting.**—Time and methods of harvesting: disposal of produce.

5. **Crops.**—The requirements of the principal crops of the district: the nature and amount of their produce: the dangers to which each is exposed.

6. **Management of a typical holding.**—Mixed crops: rotation of crops: double cropping: fallowing: construction of simple farm buildings and sheds.

7. **Cattle.**—Feeding and general treatment of plough and dairy cattle: local breeds: manufacture of dairy produce by improved

methods: protection and inoculation against infectious disease.

The practical examination may be directed to any part of the foregoing syllabus.

In particular candidates may be called on—

(1) To work any of the implements used in the farm.

(2) To recognise the common crops of the Province from growing plants and from seed or other products.

(3) To distinguish soils according to the classification current in the district.

(4) To measure a field.

IX.—Drawing.

The examination will consist of three papers of two hours each.

SYLLABUS.

Freehand drawing from the flat.—To copy to an enlarged or reduced scale.

Model drawing.—Drawing of common objects or from casts, shaded, and the following geometrical solids:—

Cubes, prisms, cylinders, cones both right and oblique, right and oblique sections of these solids, wedge, sphere.

Geometrical drawing.—(1) The theory and use of instruments, especially of the protractor, and Marquoise scale;

(2) Plain block letter writing;

(3) The whole of practical plane geometry;

(4) Drawing to scale, *viz.* scale of chords; diagonal scale; plain scale; comparative scales (to be done in ink).

X.—Manual Training.

The examination will consist of one paper of three hours in Drawing and a practical examination of four hours in Woodwork.

SYLLABUS.

(1) Woodwork—

(a) A series of models, graduated in respect of the tool manipulations involved to be made in wood from working drawings (drawn in plan, elevation, side view, and conventional

isometric projection) or from a given pattern in wood; the construction of the models to involve the use of one or more of the following tools: Jack Plane, Try Square, Marking Gauge, Marking Knife, Smoothing Plane, Tenon Saw, Bevel, Screw Driver, Firmer Chisel, Hammer, Mallet, Bradawl, Nail Punch, Compass, Firmer Gouge, Gimlet, Frame Saw, Spoke Shave, Brace and Bit, File

The following joints at least should be included amongst the models:—

Half-lap, Housing, Mortise and Tenon, Half-lap Dovetail, Box Dovetail, Edge Dovetail, Bridle.

(b) The care and maintenance in good working condition of the above mentioned tools, excluding the setting and sharpening of the saw.

(2) Drawing—

Drawing in plan, elevation, and side view of all models in the course and in conventional isometric projection of those of a rectangular shape.

NOTE.—A scheme drawn up on the above lines is given in Appendix (ii). Teachers need not keep strictly to the particular models mentioned in this scheme but if any changes in the models are made these should not involve changes in the new tool manipulations employed. The course should if possible be commenced in class VII.

XI.—French.

The examination will consist of a three hours' paper containing passages for translation from and into English and questions on grammar. There will also be a *viva voce* examination.

SYLLABUS.

Ed. About: *Le Roi des Montagnes*—Macmillan's edition (Siepmann's series).

Du Camp: *La Dette de Jeu* (Cambridge University Press).

Perrault: *Contes de Fees*. (Edited by Fasnacht, Macmillan.)

Grammar recommended: French Grammar (Sonnenschein's Parallel Grammar Series).

XII.—Domestic Science.

SYLLABUS.

(Not ready yet.)

APPENDIX (i).

Four years' course in Science.

N.B.—Experiments marked by an asterisk in the syllabus for classes VII and VIII may be done in class IX if classes VII and VIII are large: facilities for practical work limited, or the time table in science restricted to only 3 periods of $\frac{1}{4}$ hour each per week. If there are no facilities for practical work in classes VII and VIII, at least the experiments *not* marked by an asterisk in the syllabuses of classes VII and VIII should be done by pupils individually in class IX.

FIRST YEAR.

(Class VII.)

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	List of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually so far as possible.
Length ...	Units in British system and Metric system. Calculations, measurement of straight lines. Measurement of curved lines. Rule for the length of the circumference of a circle.	1. Find the number of cm. in 1 inch.
Area ...	Units in British system and Metric system. Rule for area of a rectangle. Calculations. Use of squared paper to find the area of figures other than rectangles. Formula for the area of a triangle.	2. * Measure the circumference and diameter of a circle and so find the value of π . 3. By squared paper prove the formula for the area of a rectangle. 4. * By squared paper find the area of a triangle and irregular figures.
Volume ...	Units in British and Metric system. Rule for the volume of a rectangular solid calculations. The graduated cylinder. The Burette ...	5. Use of graduated cylinder to find the volume of large solids and the capacity of large vessels. 6. Use of Burettes to find the volumes of small solids and the capacities of small bottles.
Weight ...	Distinction between mass and weight. Units in British system and Metric system. The balance.	7. Simple exercises in weighing, <i>e.g.</i> , find the number of gm. in 1 ounce.
Density ...	Definition ... Calculations ...	8. Find the density of solids, being given rectangular pieces. 9. * Find the density of common liquids by means of Burette.
Heat ...	Expansion of solids, liquids, and gases by heat. Construction of a thermometer. Explanation of a Centigrade thermometer.	10. Simple observations with the thermometer, <i>e.g.</i> , find the boiling points of water and alcohol.

SECOND YEAR.

(Class VIII.)

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	List of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually.
Heat	Comparison of Centigrade and Fahrenheit Thermometers. Calculations.	1. Observation with thermometer, <i>e.g.</i> , cooling curve for water.
Area	Formula for the area of a circle. Calculations.	2. By means of squared paper or by weighing, find the ratio of the area of a circle to the area of the square on its radius.
Volume	* Formulae for the volumes of sphere and cylinder. * Calculations.	3. * By weighing 'similar' cubes, spheres and cylinders, verify the formulae for the volumes of cylinder and sphere. (The experiment may also be done, but less accurately by the displacement of water.)
Heat	Melting point of ice. Melting points of any solid. Conduction of heat. Comparison of the conducting powers of common solids. Convection of heat. Radiation of heat.	4. Find the melting point of paraffin wax of naphthaline.
Hydrostatics	Relative Density (or specific gravity). Principle of Archimedes. Determination of relative density by Archimedes' Principle. Calculations.	Determination by Archimedes' Principle of the relative density of— 5. (a) bodies which float in water. 6. (b) bodies which sink in water.
Chemistry	Definitions and Common properties	Measurement of relative hardness of different substances.
	Solubility. Influence of temperature on solubility.	To find out which of certain substances are soluble in water. <i>e.g.</i> , lime, salt, marble; in alcohol, <i>e.g.</i> , wax, salt.
	Crystallization. Water of crystallization	From solution. From molten sulphur.
	Mechanical mixtures.	Filtration, separation of sand and salt. Separation of iron and sulphur (magnet). Charcoal and nitre by solution and filtration.
	Chemical compounds, physical and chemical change.	Heating salt, sugar, sand, &c. Charcoal and nitre. Iron and sulphur, Iron in solution of calcium sulphate.

THIRD YEAR.

(Class IX.)

Classes IX and X will have 6 periods of Science per week—for at least 27 working weeks—this gives a total of 162 periods in class IX.

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	Minimum list of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually.
Heat	Unit of heat. Quantity of heat Calculations. Specific heat. Latent heat Latent heat of Vaporisation ... Effect of dissolved substances of boiling point. Distillation. Purification of water.	1. Determination of specific heat of solids. 2. Latent heat of fusion of ice. Latent heat of Vaporisation of water. To find B. P. of solutions of calcium chloride, solution of differing strengths. To find tubes, bore corks, set up apparatus for distillation and find B. P. before and after distillation.
Chemistry	Elements and compounds ... Metals and non-metals, properties:— The atmosphere. Combustion, active and inactive air. Rusting ... Increase in mass in rusting and burning. Explanation of above. Introduction of terms 'Oxygen' and 'Nitrogen.' Oxygen ... Metals and non-metals. Oxides Nitrogen. Its use in the atmosphere Water not an element	To examine the elements, sulphur, copper, lead, mercury, zinc. To examine the compounds, ferrous sulphate, copper sulphate, lead oxide, mercury oxide, and regain the elements. Burning a candle in a bell jar. Repeat with sulphur, phosphorus. To measure the proportion of air used up when a substance burns in air. To show iron will not rust in dry air. To measure the air used up when iron rusts in air. To show increase in mass when magnesium and iron burn in air and when iron rusts in air—when a candle burns in air. Preparation from mercuric oxide and potassium chlorate in small quantities and on large scale from manganese dioxide and pot. chlorate; its properties. To show loss in mass when potassium chlorate is heated. Their basic and acidic properties. Properties, to find accurately percentage of nitrogen in air by pyrogallic acid (lecture room). Action of sodium on water, action of magnesium on boiling water. Action of steam on iron. Examination of oxide of iron formed. Increase in mass. Comparison with iron rust.

THIRD YEAR—(concluded).
(Class IX.)

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	Minimum list of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually.
	Résumé of above. Introduction of term "Hydrogen." Preparation of Hydrogen and its properties.	From zinc and sulphuric acid. What happens to the zinc. What happens when hydrogen burns in air. Explosion of hydrogen with air. Electrolysis of water and its composition by volume. Action of hydrogen on copper oxide when heated.
	Carbon Demonstration lesson. Carbonic acid gas. Chalk.	Properties and varieties. Formation when carbon or carbonaceous matter burns in air. Effects of acids on chalk. Examination of the gas, properties of gas obtained by effect of strongly heating chalk, Examination of lime, difference between properties of chalk and lime, loss in mass on heating chalk.
	Résumé of above. Animal and plant life.	Formation of oxygen by plants.

FOURTH YEAR,
(Class X.)

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	Minimum list of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually.
Light.	Reflection of light by plane mirrors ... Laws of reflection. Images. ... Reflection of light by concave spherical mirrors. Focal length of concave spherical mirrors. Position of object and image. Refraction of light. Laws of refraction. Refractive index prisms, path of a ray of light through a prism. Lenses. Focal length of a convex lens. Position of object and image.	1. Verification of the "Angle" law of reflection at plane mirror. 2. Finding the focal length of a concave mirror. 3. Verification of the law of refraction of light. 4. Tracing the path of a ray of light through a prism. 5. Focal length of lens.

FOURTH YEAR—(concluded).
(Class X.)

Subject.	Detailed syllabus.	Minimum list of experiments which should be done by the pupils individually.
Magnetism ...	Magnets Magnetic attraction and repulsion ... Magnetisation and demagnetisation ... The earth as a magnet. Magnetic meridian. The compass.	6. Verification of the law of magnetic attraction and repulsion. 7. Making a magnet. 8. Demagnetising a magnet. 9. Marking a N. S. line.
Frictional electricity ...	Production of electricity by friction ... Electrical attraction and repulsion ... Two kinds of electrification. The electroscope. Conductors and insulators ...	10. Electrification of rods of glass, ebonite, &c 11. Verification of laws of attraction and repulsion. 12. Charging an electroscope. 13. Finding by means of the electroscope whether bodies conduct or insulate.
Current electricity ...	A simple cell Magnetic effect of a current ... Very simple explanation of the telegraph.	14. Making a simple cell. 15. Finding by experiment the magnetic effect of a current on a magnetic needle.

NOTE.—In class X time is left for revising the whole course in preparation for the School Final Examination (S. L. C. or Matriculation). Moreover the practical S. L. C. Examination may take place soon after Christmas.

REPORT ON THE ANGLO-VERNA- CULAR HIGH SCHOOL FINAL EXAMINATION, 1915.—BURMA.

ENGLISH.

No. 224.—The results in English show a distinct improvement on former years. This may be attributed to better teaching and organisation in High Departments and the fact that nearly all candidates now complete a three years' course definitely leading up to this examination and no longer work mainly with a view to the Calcutta Matriculation. The increasing popularity of Advanced English as an optional subject may also have favourably affected results in the compulsory English paper. The examiner reports that in essay-writing and paraphrasing the following deficiencies were often noticed:—

1. Grammatical errors, especially certain typical mistakes, commonly committed by Burman students, which should be eradicated before promotion to Standard X.

2. Poverty of vocabulary, which hampers self-expression, especially in the use of verbs. This can be amended by wider reading and more thorough criticism of pupils' compositions by teachers; they should insist on the right word being used, if a pupil can be expected to know it, for pupils are often afraid to use even words with which they are familiar.

3. Verbosity and clumsiness of style, which can also be checked by judicious criticism and advice.

4. Neglect or abuse of paragraphs.

5. Writing away from the outline laid down for the essay. This was nearly always due to a desire to use passages from "model essays" previously committed to memory, an objectionable tendency fortunately less common in Burma than in India. Several candidates from St. John's S. P. G. School made this mistake.

6. Neglecting to read a passage carefully before paraphrasing it. Questions 3 and 4 were so well done by all as to leave doubt whether an unnecessary amount of time is not still allotted to the study of formal grammar in our schools.

Questions 5 and 7, requiring criticisms of faulty punctuation and style, were very badly answered. Now that the general standard of English work is improving, and boys can be expected to write with fair grammatical accuracy before being promoted to the highest standard, it should be possible in future for teachers there to pay more attention to style and send their best pupils out of the High School with some sense of the difference between good and bad written English.

Detailed results in English for the various schools are as follows:—

Names of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High and Normal School, Moulmein	...	6	...	5	3	14
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	2	10	3	...	...	15
Government High School, Tavoy	...	...	1	...	...	1
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	1	...	...	1
Government High School, Bassein	3	3	6	5	6	23
A.B.M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	...	2	1	3	2	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	2	6	2	3	4	17
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay	2	4	...	...	...	6
E.W.M. High School, Mandalay	...	3	4	1	...	12
Government High School, Sagaing	...	...	2	...	2	4
E.W.M. High School, Pakòkku	...	2	...	1	1	4
Government Anglo-Vernacular School, Minbu	1	1	1	2	...	5
Government High School, Akyab	3	3	2	3	3	14
Government High School, Rangoon	13	35	28	14	19	109
St. John's S.P.G. School, Rangoon	...	7	5	8	4	24
Baptist High School, Rangoon	1	15	5	6	3	30
Government High School, Pegu	3	5	1	...	...	9
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	3	3	...	...	...	6
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	1	12	2	3	...	18
Government High School, Prome	...	9	2	2	4	17
Private Students	3	10	3	...	6	22
Total	37	136	69	56	61	359

Aug. 1915.] REPORT ON A.-V. HIGH SCHOOL FINAL EXAM, BURMA. 577

ARITHMETIC.

The number of candidates on the roll was 370. Twelve were absent. Of the 358 that appeared 70 or nearly 20 per cent, failed. Considering that candidates had the option of doing only eight questions, i.e., those in Part A, the number in the class 'Moderate' is large. The results 'Fair' should have been gained by a much larger number. Of the 26 candidates classed as 'Good,' two (No. 214 of the Government High School, Rangoon, and No. 318 of the M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon) deserve special mention. The work of these two was very accurate and neat. The 70 who failed gave up very bad papers as regards both quality and quantity. Some of these might have done better if they had confined themselves to the eight compulsory questions. In Part A of the question

paper, Question II was badly done. Most candidates were able to define G.C.M., but only ten candidates were able to explain the definition by means of the example given them. Question V was attempted by 107 candidates, of whom only 47 were able to work it rightly or partially rightly. All the work that was involved in this question was the finding of the Compound Interest for two years. It would appear that the majority of the candidates did not give the question much attention. Part B, consisting of four questions, was intended for candidates competing for Scholarships, and of the four questions set candidates were required to do only three. The choice lay between Questions IX, X and XI.

The following statement shows the detailed results per school:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Rangoon	11	30	25	29	14	109
Government High School, Moulmein	2	1	2	4	4	13
Government High School, Bassein	...	6	4	5	8	23
Government High School, Tavoy	...	1	...	...	...	1
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	...	1	...	1
Government High School, Sagaing	...	...	...	2	2	4
Government High School, Minbu	...	...	2	2	1	5
Government High School, Akyab	...	...	4	9	1	14
Government High School, Pegu	...	4	1	3	1	9
Government High School, Prome	...	3	5	7	2	17
Baptist High School, Rangoon	3	5	9	6	7	30
St. John's S.P.G. School, Rangoon	...	2	6	11	5	24
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	...	3	5	5	2	15
A.B.M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	1	...	1	2	4	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	3	6	3	4	1	17
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay	1	...	3	2	...	6
E.W.M. High School, Mandalay	...	...	...	7	5	12
E.W.M. High School, Pakòkku	...	1	2	1	...	4
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	2	...	...	4	...	6
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	2	5	1	9	1	18
Private Students	1	1	5	5	10	22
Total	26	68	78	118	68	358

GEOGRAPHY.

The papers were on the whole not very satisfactory and this was especially true of the Physical Geography. Judging from the regularity with which boys from the same school gave erroneous or incomplete answers one can only suppose that the teachers themselves do not know the subject. They should make an earnest endeavour to improve themselves and heads of schools should take a direct interest in the subject. Not a single question in Physical Geography was well done and the amount of ignorance shown by the majority would hardly be believed. In General Geography the question on India was on the whole well done; and so was that on the African countries lying on the Mediterranean

Sea. The answers on Australia were very disappointing. The question as to the borderland between France and Germany, where it produced anything worth reading at all, was poorly done, and that on Austria resulted in wild guessing. The question on the Suez Canal was not as well done as one expected; nor was "the command of the Sea" very well understood.

The general conclusion seems to be that Geography is not seriously studied in the High Department. A considerable number of 'moderates' deserved to fail and were only passed in virtue of better work in other subjects. Lenience of this kind cannot always be shown. It is hoped that Heads of Schools will take this warning to heart.

The following abstract shows how the various schools have done:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Moulmein	2	...	3	4	5	14
St. Patrick's High School, Moulmein	...	...	1	11	3	15
Government High School, Tavoy	...	...	...	...	1	1
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	...	1	...	1
Government High School, Bassein	...	1	7	6	9	23
Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	...	...	3	5	...	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	1	3	3	8	2	17
A. B. M. High School, Mandalay	...	...	3	2	1	6
E. W. M. High School, Mandalay	...	3	3	4	2	12
Government High School, Sagaing	...	1	...	...	3	4
E. W. M. High School, Pakōkku	...	1	1	1	1	4
Government High School, Minbu	...	1	1	1	1	4
Government High School, Akyab	...	1	2	4	1	5
Government High School, Rangoon	8	17	25	36	7	14
St. John's High School, Rangoon	...	1	3	8	23	109
Baptist High School, Rangoon	6	7	6	7	12	24
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	1	1	9	4	30
Government High School, Prome	...	1	3	8	7	18
Government High School, Pegu	...	1	2	4	4	17
Banderia High School, Rangoon	4	...	1	1	1	9
Private Students	...	3	1	8	...	6
Total	24	42	69	128	96	359

BURMESE.

The papers, notwithstanding the smallness of the number of failures, cannot be considered altogether satisfactory. There should have been more papers than 19 classed as Good out of 330 examined. Composition is fair, but Grammar has been more or less neglected. No candidate was able to give the distinction in the use of the two interrogative suffixes. Without laying undue stress on Grammar, the candidates should, by a careful observation, have been able to distinguish the use of the two suffixes. Transla-

tion from English into Burmese was not well done. The old complaint of over-careful literalness is still applicable. In certain schools the examiner observed a tendency to treat the subject with contempt and to shirk the references to Buddhist ideas and principles which are requisite in any adequate treatment of the Burmese Language and Literature. Such an attitude on the part of Managers of Anglo-Burmese Schools can only be termed deplorable.

The following are the details for the various schools:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High and Normal School, Moulmein	...	2	7	3	1	13
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	...	4	8	1	1	14
Government High School, Tavoy	...	...	...	...	...	1
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	...	...	...	1
Government High School, Bassein	5	2	8	4	3	22
A. B. M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	...	...	5	1	2	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	...	3	8	5	...	17
A. B. M. High School, Mandalay	...	2	4	...	...	6
E. W. M. High School, Mandalay	2	4	6	...	...	12
Government High School, Sagaing	1	2	1	...	...	4
E. W. M. High School, Pakōkku	1	3	...	...	...	4
Government High School, Minbu	...	4	1	...	...	5
Government High School, Akyab	...	1	6	1	5	13
Government High School, Rangoon	3	14	39	42	6	104
St. John's S. P. G. School, Rangoon	...	1	2	13	5	21
Baptist High School, Rangoon	...	6	8	12	1	27
Government High School, Pegu	...	1	3	2	...	9
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	1	5	5	3	14
Government High School, Prome	2	5	8	2	...	17
Private Students	1	3	5	8	1	18
Total	19	60	124	99	28	330

TAMIL AND TELEGU.

All the questions including those on Grammar have been attempted by all the candidates except one. Grammar, however, is generally neglected. Candidates should make a serious study of paraphrase, idioms, transformation of sentences, analysis. I fear the candidates from schools have not made a real effort to acquaint themselves, in the absence of text-books, with general Tamil and Telegu books available for use in schools. Private candidates appear to have taken more pains

in preparation and in the method of answering. Candidates from St. John's and the Baptist High Schools made more spelling mistakes than those from other schools. Increased attention should be paid to neatness and penmanship.

Of the eleven Tamil candidates from schools two got into class Good, three into class Very fair, six into Fair, one into Moderate, thus none failed. Of the three Private candidates (No. 322) returned the best paper, No. 30 was fair, No. 321 absented himself,

The only *Telegu* candidate from a school (M. M. Randeria) obtained a moderate pass. Of the two private candidates, No. 324 was good, No. 327 very fair. Parsing and analysis

were poor.

The details for Tamil and Telugu per school are as follows:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	1	...	...	...	...	1
St. John's High School, Rangoon	...	...	3	...	...	3
Baptist High School, Rangoon	...	1	...	1	...	2
M. M. Randeria School, Rangoon	1	1	1	1	...	4
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	...	2	...	...	2
Private Candidates	2	2	...	...	...	4
Total	4	4	6	2	...	16

BENGALI.

Four candidates took *Bengali* and they have done much better than the candidates of the last year. The question is in Grammar

have not been attacked satisfactorily by any candidate.

The details in Bengali are as follows:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	1	1	...	...	2
Government High School, Rangoon	1	...	...	1	...	2
Total	1	1	1	1	...	4

URDU.

The work in Urdu is fair. None have failed, but the papers show that Grammar

needs more attention.

The details in Urdu are as follows:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Rangoon	...	...	1	1	...	2
M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	...	1	...	1	...	2
Government High School, Akyab	...	...	1	...	...	1
Total	...	1	2	2	...	5

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

Of the optional subjects prescribed the following were taken up:—

- (1) Advanced English.
- (2) Mathematics.
- (3) History.
- (4) Pali.
- (5) Persian.

- (6) Elementary Physiology and Hygiene.
- (7) Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence.
- (8) Drawing.
- (9) Mensuration and Elementary Surveying.
- (10) Shorthand and Typewriting.

ADVANCED ENGLISH.

One hundred and twenty-eight candidates took this optional and 52 passed. The percentage of passes is lower than last year, doubtless owing to the fact that the course this year is new and considerably wider.

In only one school in the Province did the results suggest careful and systematic instruction on the five selected text-books. Neither paper was dealt with, as it should

have been, but the paper on 'Literature' based on the text-book in the 'Highroad' series was answered more unsatisfactorily than the paper on the four text-books. Paraphrase was, as usual, disappointing and the essay was below the standard expected in this examination.

The details for advanced English per school are as follows:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Moulmein	...	3	...	5	5	13
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	...	2	3	...	7	12
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	...	...	1	1
A.B.M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	...	...	...	...	8	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	...	2	3	...	10	15
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay	...	1	...	1	4	6
Government High School, Akyab	...	...	1	...	...	1
St. John's College, Rangoon	...	2	1	3	16	22
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	...	1	1	1	...	5
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	...	2	1	9	16
Government High School, Prome	...	1	4	2	10	17
Private Candidates	...	2	1	3	6	12
Total	2	8	16	16	76	128

MATHEMATICS.

Three hundred and twenty-two candidates took up Mathematics and 65 per cent. passed. Of those who passed 25 per cent. obtain 'Good,' 14 per cent. 'Very fair,' 25 per cent. 'Fair,' and 35 per cent. 'Moderate.' The quality of the average paper of those who passed was creditable.

St. Peter's High School, Mandalay, the A.B.M. High School, Rangoon, the Government Schools at Prome and Tavoy, and the Government High School, Moulmein, deserve special mention. St. John's College,

Rangoon, the E.W.M. School, Pakôkku, and the Government School, Sagaing, should have done better.

In *Algebra* the large majority of candidates did well.

In *Geometry* more proficiency was shown in the solution of Riders than two years ago, but book-work and practical geometry seem to have been neglected. In the proofs of *propositions* reasons for deductions were sometimes omitted, and in many cases only part of what was asked to be proved was proved,

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A few candidates did practically nothing in either paper. The result of the preliminary test should have debarred them from being presented. The details for Mathematics per school are as follows :—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Moulmein	1	1	3	3	4	12
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	2	1	3	2	4	12
Government High and Normal School, Moulmein	1	...	...	...	...	1
Government High School, Mergui	...	...	...	1	...	1
Government High School, Tavoy	1	...	...	...	...	1
Government High School, Bassein	1	1	4	...	...	1
A.B.M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein	1	...	2	5	10	21
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	5	6	3	4	1	8
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay	1	...	2	2	1	17
E.W.M. School, Mandalay	...	1	4	6	1	6
Government High School, Sagaing	...	1	...	...	3	12
E.W.M. School, Pakòkku	...	...	...	1	3	4
Government High School, Minbu	1	...	...	1	3	4
Government High School, Akyab	2	1	1	2	7	5
Government High School, Rangoon	21	11	20	20	36	13
St. John's College, Rangoon	...	...	1	5	12	108
A.B.M. High School, Rangoon	10	1	4	2	5	18
Government High School, Pegu	3	...	...	2	4	22
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	...	...	2	...	1	9
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	1	2	2	4	9	3
Government High School, Prome	3	3	3	5	3	18
Total	54	29	54	67	108	312

HISTORY.

Only 41 candidates took History, of whom a third failed. None of the larger schools seem to give History a regular place in their curriculum, except the Government School, Bassein. This school has, however, done badly, for 12 out of the 14 failures were supplied by it. Nearly all candidates showed a satisfactory knowledge of Burmese History, but only a vague and general acquaintance with that of India. Many were handicapped by a want of practice in answering History questions, probably because they had studied the subject privately without much help from

schoolmasters. Some had committed the text-book to memory and hoped to pass by reproducing passages *verbatim*. The questions on Civics in Part 3 were badly answered, and the information given in reply to Question 1 on the composition and duties of the Viceroy's two Councils was obsolete, because the prescribed text-book was published before the last Indian Councils Act, and no candidates had been supplied with more recent information on the subject.

The details for History per school are as follows :—

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Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Bassein	...	...	2	1	12	15
Government High School, Sagaing	...	1	1	...	...	2
Government High School, Akyab	...	2	...	...	...	2
St. John's S.P.G. School, Rangoon	...	1	...	...	...	1
Baptist High School, Rangoon	2	4	1	...	...	7
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	3	...	...	...	...	3
Government High School, Prome	...	...	...	...	1	1
Private Students	2	4	3	...	1	10
Total	7	12	7	1	14	41

PALI.

All the candidates with very few exceptions were very bad in Grammar. Most of them hardly knew the rudiments. The examiner emphasizes this serious defect in Grammar. He remarks that it is so serious that but for their excellence in translation and the text a good many candidates would easily have failed. This shows that too much

time and labour are devoted to translation and text and too little to Grammar. But a bad foundation in Grammar will never make a scholar though it may turn out students with only a hazy idea of the language and dependent on 'cribs' for a knowledge of their texts.

The details for Pali per school are as follows :—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High and Normal School, Moulmein	...	2	3	5	3	13
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein	...	...	...	9	3	12
Government High School, Tavoy	...	...	...	1	...	1
Government High School, Prome	...	...	7	6	3	16
Government High School, Bassein	2	3	9	1	...	15
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay	...	...	4	9	4	17
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay	...	...	1	5	...	6
E.W.M. High School, Mandalay	...	...	6	5	1	12
Government High School, Sagaing	...	...	1	...	...	1
E.W.M. High School, Pakòkku	...	...	1	2	1	4
Government Anglo-Vernacular School, Minbu	...	...	3	1	...	4
Government High School, Akyab	...	...	3	8	1	12
Government High School, Rangoon	4	7	48	44	2	105
St. John's S.P.G. School, Rangoon	...	...	1	7	1	9
Baptist High School, Rangoon	...	...	9	19	...	28
Government High School, Pegu	...	1	1	5	1	8
M.M. Randeria High School, Rangoon	...	1	...	3	...	4
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon	...	1	9	6	1	17
Private Students	...	...	1	2	1	4
Total	6	15	107	138	22	288

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PERSIAN.

Only two candidates appeared, and they both passed. One of them (Roll No. 317) showed distinct proficiency in composition and translation; he was well acquainted with

Persian Grammar also. The other (Roll No. 316) was fair in both. As regards handwriting and neatness, they gave entire satisfaction.

The details for Persian are as follows :—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon ...	...	1	1	...	...	2

ELEMENTARY PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE.

Seventeen schools presented pupils in this subject and in addition there were 16 private candidates. Most of the schools allowed all their candidates to appear although it must have been known that many of them had no chance of passing : 286 were presented. The A.B.M. School and St. Peter's, Mandalay, however, kept back the majority of their pupils and presented one and two candidates respectively. The result of so many taking the subject without special preparation was a considerable reduction in the percentage of passes.

Not a single paper could be classed as 'Good' and only four were 'Very fair.' Most of the candidates who passed made their marks by the exercise of a little common sense especially in the Hygiene section. No one showed an accurate knowledge of any part of the subject. In the section on Physiology, Questions I and V were perhaps the easiest; yet no one could give the composition of blood at all accurately and few understood its functions; most of the candidates described the circulatory system and then added an

account of the effect of alcohol on the body generally, omitting all reference to its effect on the blood. Again, those few who could trace the course of food through the alimentary canal were ignorant of the changes undergone at the various stages.

In Hygiene very hazy ideas were entertained in regard to vaccination although most knew it had something to do with the cow. The word 'contamination' in Question XI gave a great deal of trouble; as a rule 'contaminated' water was considered the best available and the sources of 'contamination' were boiling, filtering, etc.

If this subject is to be relied on for a pass in the High School Final Examination candidates must study it more practically and with much more attention to detail. A general acquaintance with the subject gained in Standards VIII and IX, where it is compulsory, is not sufficient; work must be continued in Standard X. It is evident that the teaching is for the most part very inefficient. The subject must be treated by both teachers and pupils as seriously as any other offered for the examination.

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The details for Elementary Physiology and Hygiene per school are as follows :—

Name of School.	Good	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Moulmein ...	...	1	3	...	7	11
St. Patrick's High School, Moulmein ...	...	...	2	4	4	10
Government High School, Bassein ...	...	...	2	...	18	20
A.B.M. Karen School, Bassein...	...	...	...	3	5	8
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay ...	...	...	...	1	1	2
A.B.M. High School, Mandalay ...	...	...	...	...	1	1
E.W.M. High School, Mandalay ...	...	...	...	4	8	12
Government High School, Sagaing ...	...	...	...	1	3	4
E.W.M. High School, Pakôkku ...	...	...	...	...	4	4
Government High School, Minbu ...	...	...	1	1	3	5
Government High School, Akyab ...	...	...	...	1	12	13
Government High School, Rangoon ...	...	2	9	26	66	103
St. John's College, Rangoon ...	...	...	1	3	17	21
Baptist College High School, Rangoon ...	...	...	1	12	15	28
Government High School, Pegu ...	...	1	3	3	2	9
St. Paul's High School, Rangoon ...	...	...	...	2	16	18
Government High School, Prome ...	...	...	...	2	15	17
Private Candidates...	...	1	1	2	12	16
Total ...	...	5	23	65	209	302

DRAWING.

Only eight candidates took Drawing as an optional subject. All failed. Their answer papers showed weakness in all branches. Presumably they have not continued Drawing after leaving Standard VII. There seems no reason why Drawing should be taught in Standards VIII, IX and X in all Government and Aided Schools. Candidates should not be allowed to take up Drawing at an examination unless it has been taught in class.

Geometrical Drawing was done badly : candidates made use of the protractor to find angles instead of using the compasses and showing how angles are found by construction. Object Drawing and Burmese Design were moderate.

Perspective.—Only one candidate had his figure correct, the others did not attempt it.

BOOK-KEEPING AND COMMERCIAL

CORRESPONDENCE.

The weak spot is English composition in Commercial Correspondence. The examiner remarked that "for students aspiring to a commercial career, the ability to express themselves properly and clearly is essential." On Handwriting he says : "it seems to be the great aim of all young men to write quickly before their handwriting is formed. Many promising applicants for positions have been rejected, purely on account of bad handwriting." With regard to Book-keeping, the majority of students showed a good grasp of the subject.

The details for Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence per school are as follows :—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
Government High School, Mergui ...	...	...	...	1	...	1
M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon ...	...	...	...	...	1	1
Private... ..	...	2	1	1	2	6
Total ...	...	2	1	2	3	8

MENSURATION AND ELEMENTARY SURVEYING.

The papers showed a want of practical application. Neither Mensuration nor Survey can easily be learnt from a book. The ex-

aminer suggests "that the out-door demonstration and practice be increased."

The details for Mensuration and Elementary Surveying are as follows:—

Name of School.	Good.	Very fair.	Fair.	Moderate.	Failed.	Total.
St. John's College, Rangoon ...	...	...	...	...	1	1
M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon ...	...	...	1	...	2	3
Private ...	...	...	...	...	3	3
Total ...	...	...	1	...	6	7

SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING.

Three candidates took the examination. Two passed, one of whom was very good; he evidently had had good practice both in writing shorthand and in typing. The two who passed used Pitman's system of shorthand. All were private candidates.

GENERAL.

In 1914, the number of candidates was 252. Of these 245 took the examination and seven were absent. In 1915 the number was 370, and of these 359 sat for the examination, 11 being absent. The number of passes in 1915 was 168 or 47 per cent., as against 141 or 58 per cent. in 1914. It will be seen that the percentage of passes has fallen. This is to be expected when there is a large increase in

the number of candidates. The fall is however in a great measure due to the large number of failures in Geography among the compulsory subjects and in the optional Elementary Physiology and Hygiene. It is satisfactory to note that in all but six schools the number of passes has increased. Two of the largest schools in the Province—St. Paul's, Rangoon, and St. Peter's, Mandalay,—however, have met with but little success in this examination. Both the number of candidates and the number passed from these two schools have decreased. The Government High School, Rangoon, and St. John's College, Rangoon, show the largest increase in candidates. The increase in their passes, however, is disappointing.

Name of School.	Number in Standard X on the 31st Mar.		Number Presented.		Number passed.	
	1914.	1915.	1914.	1915.	1914.	1915.
Government High School, Rangoon ...	84	122	75	112	53	58
Baptist High School, Rangoon ...	75	74	21	30	11	17
St. Paul's Anglo-Vernacular High School, Rangoon ...	25	25	22	19	16	6
St. John's College, Rangoon ...	34	30	10	26	3	4
M. M. Randeria High School, Rangoon ...	2	9	Nil	6	Nil	5
St. Mary's High School, Rangoon ...	2	6	2	Nil	Nil	Nil
E. W. M. High School, Mandalay ...	5	14	5	12	3	5
St. Peter's High School, Mandalay ...	23	32	19	18	15	11
A. B. M. High School, Mandalay ...	15	10	7	6	2	5
Government High School, Sagaing ...	Nil	4	Nil	4	Nil	1
E. W. M. High School, Pakòkku ...	Nil	7	Nil	4	Nil	1
Government High School, Minbu ...	3	5	3	5	1	2
Government High School, Moulmein ...	13	24	13	14	4	7
St. Patrick's Institution, Moulmein ...	13	20	8	15	5	9
Government High School, Bassein ...	15	23	15	23	5	9
A. B. M. Sgaw-Karen High School, Bassein ...	5	8	5	8	4	1
Government High School, Pegu ...	3	9	3	9	Nil	6
Government High School, Prome ...	13	17	13	17	8	9
Government High School, Akyab ...	8	25	7	14	2	4
Government High School, Mergui ...	4	1	4	1	4	1
Government High School, Tavoy ...	3	1	2	1	2	Nil
Private Candidates ...	Nil	Nil	18	28	3	7
Total ...	345	466	252	370	141	168

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THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCHES.

VI.

THE CONQUESTS OF RAJENDRA-CHOLA I. (1012—42.)

The late Mr. V. Venkayyah contributed a paper to the *Archæological Annual*, 1911-12, on Rājendra Chōla and his conquests. The great scholar points out that the earlier conquests of Parāntaka I. and Rājaraāja I. had resulted in the definite formation and organization of an Empire and that the campaigns of Rājendra were mostly for the subjugation of local rebellions. He conquered, for instance, the regions of Idatturai-rāḍu, Vanavasi, Kōlippākke and the camp of Maṅṅai, all of which were situated in the Mysore

State, except Vanavasi which was in Bombay Presidency. Mr. Venkayyah believed that these conquests should have been local victories against rebels. Rājendra's disposal of the Pāṇḍyas and of the Ceylonese was of the same nature. The valiant arms of Rājaraāja had brought them under the Chōla yoke; but Rājendra had to consolidate his power, and he took advantage, evidently, of local risings to accomplish his object. The hold over Madura he strengthened by the institution of a new Viceroyalty under the title of Chōla-Pāṇḍya and by sending his son to assume that office; and the hold over Ceylon he strengthened by a successful military expedition. Both the inscriptions of Rājendra and the Ceylonese chronicle *Mahāvamsa* refer to this expedition. The latter says that the Chōlas "took the queen (of Ceylon) with all the jewels and ornaments, and the crown that was the inheritance of kings, and the priceless diamond bracelet that was a gift of the Gods, and the sword that could not be broken, and the sacred forehead band." This statement is confirmed by the inscriptions which say that the king took the crown of the king of Ilam, together with the queen, and "the beautiful pearl-necklace of Indra;" but while the chronicle gives 1036 A.D. as the year of the invasion, epigraphy assigns it to 1017. In any case

the victory did not mean a *new* conquest. The same was the case with Kēraḷa and the 7½ lakshas of Rattipāḍi.

If in all these campaigns Rājendra subdued mere rebels, he set out on a new and remarkably enterprising expedition into North India, an expedition which ended in the conquest and acquisition of the sacred waters of the Ganges. The object of this grand expedition was, say the Tiruvāṅgāḍu plates, pilgrimage; but it seems that instructions were given to the officer in command (the Daṇḍanātha)—the king himself did not lead—to fight against those who opposed the Chōḷas. And the royal mandate, we are informed, led to the conquest of Uttira-Lādam (N. Berar); of Mahīpala identified by Kielhorn with Mahīpala I. of the Pala dynasty; of Govindachandra (of Bengal) about whom nothing is known; of Raṇasūra (S. Berar), Dharmapala of Daṇḍabhukti; of Kōśālanāḍu, of Oḍḍa-vishaya, of Ādinagar, of Indraratha of the lunar race, of Panchapaḷli and the good Māsūṇi-dēyam, of Sakkarakōṭam, of Maduramaṇḍalam and of Nāmaṇaikkōṭam. Venkayyah notes a very serious difficulty in regard to the whole affair, and that is the problem of the conquest of such a large territory by a single Chōḷa General, in the space of a single year. "There is also the further difficulty of bringing all the subdued kings together to the south," if the custom then, as now, was to actually to carry the sacred water from somewhere near Allahabad, to the south, to the Chōḷa capital. "As we cannot imagine that all Northern India was conquered by Rājendra Chōḷa's General in about a year, the only reasonable alternative seems to be that a few previously chosen tracts of country were actually invaded and if the inhabitants offered any

resistance a regular war was gone through. The names of the remaining territorial divisions with their rulers were ascertained and included in the list of kings overcome." Again there is the question of the topography of these kingdoms. *Māsūṇi*, for example, is a purely Tamil name and cannot be any part of N. India. To Venkayyah it seems to be the translation of Nāgadvā and he thinks it might be the Bastar country which was ruled over by the Nāga or Nāgavamsi kings. The personality of Govindachandra of Bengal, again, is very obscure.

However it might be, it seems certain that the Chōḷa General had friendly dealing with those kings who were reigning near Benares and Allahabad. This was the time when the Chōḷa influence was established in Kanauj, an influence which was exercised also by Rājendra's successors. Rājadhīrāja, for instance, gave the title of the *Protector of Kannakuchchi* to one of his relatives, and Vīra-Rājendra did the same. (See *S. Ind. Insens.* III, 56 and 62). In the succeeding reigns of the Chōḷa kings also the memory of this relationship was cherished with pride. All this time visits and revisits should have taken place between Gaṅgaikondachōḷapuram, the city which Rājendra rebuilt or founded in celebration of his conquest, and Kanauj. An inscription of Kulottuṅga I. gives, among his indigenous titles, the titles of the Gāḍavāḷa King Govindachandra of Kanauj, and shews that Chōḷa supremacy was felt and claimed over the North even then. The S'ārnāth inscription of Kumāradevi, again, says that this queen was the daughter of a chief of Pithi, identified with Pithapuram, and proves the connection between the north and the south.

Venkayyah points out the literary and

religious effects of this connection of the Chōḷas with the Northern powers. The Tamil language became more and more influenced by Sanskrit. Rājendra himself was honoured with the title Paṇḍita Chōḷa, a circumstance evidently due to his Sanskrit scholarship. The great grammarian Buddhāmītra, again, who was the contemporary of Vīrarājendra I. and who wrote the *Vīraśōḷyam* quotes the historical introduction of Rājendra Chōḷa's inscriptions in illustration of one of the metres, "and introduces into Tamil grammar, perhaps for the first time, terms like *pulṇer-chchamāsam* which is a clear translation of the Sanskrit *bahuvrīhisamāsa*." Saivism, again, which largely flourished in the time of Rājendra-Chōḷa was due, to a large extent, to an upheaval from the north. A commentary of Trilōchana Sivachārya's *Siddhāntasūtravali* distinctly tells us that when Rājendra Chōḷa went for a bath in the Ganges he "saw the best of Śaivas there and brought them with him to settle in his own country, in Kānchi and throughout the Chōḷa land."

THE CHRONOLOGY OF THE ŚĀḶVA AND TULUVA DYNASTIES IN VIJAYANAGAR.

In the opening article of *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, July 1915, Sir Robert Sewell fixes, from the chronological details of inscriptions, the dates of the Śāḷva and Tuluva rulers of Vijayanagar. The earliest date when imperial titles were wielded by Śāḷva Narasiṅga is Nov. 1, A.D. 1486. In July 29, A.D. 1485 Virūpāksha ruled, and the usurpation of Narasiṅga therefore took place between 29th July 1485 and 1st Nov. 1486. Narasiṅga's reign must have ended on some day prior to Sunday, Jan. 27, A.D. 1493. For on that day his successor Immaḍi Narasiṅha was, as inscriptions in Kadur

District shew (*Ep. Carn.*, VI, Mg. 54, 56 and 50), was ruling. Ferishta also confirms the evidence of inscriptions, for he says that in April or May of 1493 there was a war between Adil Shah and the young king of Vijayanagar, thereby shewing that the veteran Narasiṅga was no longer on the throne.

Immaḍi Narasiṅha, then, began to reign in succession to his father, at least as early as January 27, A.D. 1493. How long did he rule? When did his reign end? It is in deciding this that Sewell corrects the views of the Government Epigraphist. It has been hitherto supposed that the Tuluva usurpation of Narasa took place in 1501, that Narasa's successor Vira Narasiṅha came to the throne in 1502. Mr. Sewell now enumerates a series of inscriptions to show that Immaḍi Narasiṅha was on the throne till some day between Feb. 28 and July 15 or Aug. 14 of A.D. 1505. The conclusion he arrives at from this is that Narasa's usurpation did not take place till 1505.

As regards Narasa and his son Vira Narasiṅha, Sir Robert points out from the Nagarakere plates (*Ep. Carn.* X, Gd. 77) that Vira-Narasiṅha speaks of his father as dead in July 10 or Aug. 14, A.D. 1505. It is plain from this that Narasa was emperor for a few months alone. He should have murdered Immaḍi Narasiṅha on some day subsequent to Feb. 28, A.D. 1505, and seized the throne, and died some day earlier than July 16 (or Aug. 14) of the same year. As regards Vira Narasiṅha's terminal date, Sewell points out that the earliest date of his successor Krishna Dēva Rāya (*Insen.* 491 of 1906) is between Oct. 14 and Nov. 13 of A.D. 1509, while Narasiṅha's latest date thus far available is May 4, A.D. 1509 (Inscription 342 of 1892, Tāḍpatri). Vira Narasiṅha therefore died

some day between May 4 and Oct. 14 or Nov. 13 of A.D. 1509. Kṛishṇa Dēva Rāya's coronation took place on Jan. 23 or 24 of A.D. 1510 (*Hampe Inscr. Ep. Ind.*, I, 363).

THE ZOROASTRIAN PERIOD OF INDIAN HISTORY.

In the *March* No. of the *Educational Review* I summarised the epoch-making contribution of Dr. Spooner in J. R. A. S. of January 1915 on the Persian character of the Mauryan architecture, Mauryan sculpture, Mauryan inscriptions, and so on. In the *July* No. he continues his thesis and further elaborates the Persian theory. He begins with the startling statement that Chandragupta Maurya himself was Iranian in race and Zoroastrian in faith! The Mauryas, in other words, were a Zoroastrian dynasty! Dr. Spooner sees this confirmed "in the most direct manner possible by everything Megasthenes has told us of the inner life of Chandragupta's court" and by the fact that "no single fact of Indian history or archæology...is in any way incompatible with such a theory." On the contrary very many evidences, he asserts, go to prove his contention. The name *Maurya* itself, in the first place, which the Indian theory connects with Mura, an alleged Sudra wife of Nanda, in an apocryphal and incredible manner, is in reality connected, as Mr. Jayaswal suggests, with the Persian *Merv*, *Meru* or *Maur*, a place which is prominent in the traditions both of the Hindus and the Parsis, and which Dr. Spooner believes to be the same as the *Mervdasht* or *Murghab*, in which the Achæmenians first rose to power and on which Persepolis stood. The Indian *Mēru* is a holy mountain; at its foot were the Asuras, on its summit the heaven of the 33 Gods, and it was 84000 Yojanas high. Similarly the platform of Persepolis was built against a sacred

mountain, it was occupied by the Asuras (Zoroastrians), and the Nos. 33 and 84 (multiple of 12 and 7) were sacred to them. *Maurya* then is the Persian *Merv*, i.e., the Murghab on which stands Persepolis, and Chandragupta had Persepolis for his ancestral home.

The Mauryan palaces, again, are attributed by the *Mahabhārata* to foreign kings called *Dānavas*, and term *Dānava* was evidently a corruption, though philologically an inaccurate one, of the term *Dangavo* by which the Zoroastrians described themselves in their inscriptions. Numismatic evidences, again, confirm the Zoroastrian origin of Maurya. "It is conceded that the punch-marked coins are the oldest coinage in India. The Mauryans must have used them, as they cannot have been without coinage, and certainly used none of later type. That the weights of these coins agree, not with the system of Manu, as had been claimed, but with the Achæmenian system, has recently been demonstrated by a French savant." Now Dr. Spooner contends that the symbols also in the early punch-marked coins were essentially, if not exclusively, Iranian. The usual devices in these coins were (1) the simple solar symbol; (2) a complex solar (astrological?) symbol; (3) a branch; (4) a humped bull, with taurine; and (5) a Chaitya. Dr. Spooner has hitherto believed these to be Buddhistic symbols. He now revises his opinion and considers them to be Zoroastrian. The solar symbol is appropriate for sun-worshippers. The second is inexplicable. The third is the sacred branch of Hom in which the Archangels brought the Guardian spirits at the time of Zarathushtra's birth. "The humped bull is readily explainable with reference to the Bull of Mithra, which the taurine (never hitherto explained) reproduces the ancient

emblems of the Persians, which was in the form of a bull's head." The *Chaitya*, again, is not a *Chaitya* at all. It really represents a hill and from the fact that the Jains draw this figure as emblematic of a certain Tirthaṅkara and call it *Mt. Meru*, Dr. Spooner concludes that it must be the sacred *Merv*, or *Maur* of the Zoroastrians. The Mauryan coins, then, were Zoroastrian.

The silence of the Hindu books regarding the Mauryas, again, is confirmatory of their foreign origin. The silence has been explained on the ground that they were Buddhists. But that was only after Asoka's conversion. Chandragupta was a non-Buddhist. He was also the first emperor of India. And yet he is ignored by Hindu writers. Why? Because the Mauryas were foreigners. The later Brahmanical dynasty of the Sungas boasted of having freed the earth from low-born oppressors. Chandragupta, again, appears for the first time in the political horizon in the far north-west in company with Alexander. He conquered Magadha, again, if we are to believe the *Mudra-rākshasa*, with a largely Persian army. After the conquest he built palaces in Persian fashion, filled them with images and decorations of the Persian type, organized the court along Persian lines, observed Persian ceremonial, introduced the Achæmenian script which his grandson still imitated, and married the daughter of Seleukos, who ruled the realm of Persia in those days. "Would not all this be easier to understand, if Chandragupta Maurya were a Persian?"

Two objections are possible to this view—the connection of Chandragupta with the Nandas and the part played by the Brahman Chanakya. To the first Spooner answers that the Nandas, the last two of them, at all

events, are unfavourably described in Hindu treatises; they are said to have exterminated all the Kshatriyas; their achievements are as much obscured as those of the Mauryas; and all this can be attributed to the fact that they too, like the Mauryas, were foreigners. The term *Nava Nandas* should thus be interpreted *New Nandas*, and their proverbial wealth should have been due to the fact that they "came as merchant princes first, and won their empire, as the English did." With regard to Chanakya, Dr. Spooner points out that he first figures at Taxilla as a medical man, a suspicious circumstance for a Brahman; that he was a highly heterodox man as he attributes greater importance to the *Anvikshiki* (Sāṅkhya, Yōga and Lōkāyata) than to the Vēdas; that he attaches so much importance to magic that he enjoins all the orphans under State control to be educated in that art; that he places special regard to the Adharvan priest in the king's counsels as he alone is good at magic; and that in all this Chanakya closely resembles the magic-practising Magian priest of Persia. The triumph of the Atharva Veda, the Veda of magic, can be explained only on the basis that the Mauryan invaders were accompanied by their Magian priests; that at first there was serious rivalry between the latter and the Brahmans, but the affinity of race, the cognate nature of beliefs, similarity of practices, the royal support to the new priests and the superstitious terror of their magic resulted in the recognition of the Magi themselves as Brahmans, though at first as inferior Brahmans. For, according to Dr. Spooner, the Atharva Veda is of Persian origin, "a blend of imported Magian doctrines with those other similar and harmonious beliefs which the Magians found among the Hindus of their time." That is

why the Vishnu-purāṇa says that Angiras (of the Atharva) is from the Sākadvīpa or Persia.

The mention of the *Magi* takes Dr. Spooner to the question of *Magadha*. His contention is that it is a Persian term; that it has no Sanskrit etymology; that the Magas of Persia (who were afterwards identified with the Brahmins) and the Persian warrior-caste of the Magadhas were the founders of the Magadha greatness. Dr. Spooner enters into an elaborate examination of the Puranic literature to demonstrate the power of these foreigners in Magadha and elsewhere. Sanskrit writings speak of Magadhas in connection with Bāhlikas. The *Prabōdhachandrōdaya* says that Magadha was occupied by 'foreigners.' The Atharva Veda proves that similar conditions prevailed at the time of its composition. The *Bhavishya-Purāṇa* attributes the origin of sun-worship, in India to the Magas of Sākadvīpa; to in fact Sāmba, Krishna's son, who, it is said, went to Sakadvipa, cured himself of the disease of leprosy by worshipping the sun, and introduced 18 families of Magas into India with a view to spread the Sūrya cult. The Magas wore a *kūrcha*, ate in silence, worshipped the sun, had 4 Vedas including the Āngirasa, used the Avyanga or Parsi girdle, prohibited touching the dead, and thus closely resembled the Parsees of India, the followers of Zoroaster. The Magi thus came to India and had Magadha as their main centre, while Gujerat (Dvāraka) and Madhura were also the scenes of their activity. The Māgas are said to have come into India, moreover, by the Garuḍa vehicle, and the Garuḍa is for the first time mentioned only in the *Taittareya Āraṇyaka* which is a late development of Vedic religion as it includes many post-Vedic ideas and names, and which seems to give the geo-

graphy of the borderland of Magadha. The Garuḍa was also the customary figure of Ahura Mazda in Persia, and the Garuḍa-purāṇa speaks mainly of sun-worship, astrology and medicine and is evidently "the document of local Indo-Zoroastrian origin." In Magadha, again, the worship of the Great mother, the earth, prevailed, and women were more trusted by the king as body-guards, companions in chase, and so on; and both these were due to original Magi customs. Linguistically also we find that the language of the midland was different from the group of dialects of the outer band, i.e., of Orissa, Bengal, Assam and Gujerat, i.e., regions most under Magian dominance.

But why is it that Chandragupta, if a Persian, is not described as such by Megasthenes? Dr. Spooner answers: First, he *does* actually describe Persian institutions, rules of government, etc., in his description of Chandragupta's institutions, rules, etc. Secondly the fact was too notorious to be mentioned. Thirdly the Persian element had become so completely domiciled that all distinctions were gone. The identification is clear in the fact that the Magi seem to have had some effect on the Yajur Veda itself!

The concluding portion of Dr. Spooner's article endeavours to prove that the *S'akti-worship* and the Buddhistic cult were also of Persian origin. The most popular of the goddesses among the Persians was Ishtar, and are not the Tāntric system and the S'ākta cult, asks Dr. Spooner, a development on Indian soil of the magic rites in connection with this goddess! Mr. Haraprasad Sastri has noted the curious fact that the S'āka-dvīpin Brahmins were specially associated with this cult. (Here Dr. Spooner dwells on the question of the exact meaning

of *S'āka* and points out that, in early centuries, it should be taken to be identical with *Iranian*). The term *S'āka*, again, Dr. Spooner contends, is the origin of the term *Sakhyā*. The latter means the land abounding in *Saka* trees (the modern *Sāl*), and such a land was S'ākadvīpa, the land of the Magi. Sākadvīpa should have been the original home of the S'akhyas among whom Gautama the Buddha was born. The S'akhyas were then of Zoroastrian origin. This is proved by other facts also. According to one tradition Gaya was claimed as a temple of theirs by the Persians, i.e., it became an early seat of Magian worship and "Gautama as a religious student went thither as to the holy place of his own people, the Zoroastrians." The internal evidences in the Buddhistic system and in the Buddha's story shew the same thing. Many of the Buddhistic labels in the Gandhara sculptures of the Peshawar Museum can be given Zoroastrian labels with equal suitability. Many legends are common to Zarathushtra and Gautama. Dr. Spooner's argument is that the Sakhyā legends have, as a rule, been borrowed from the Zoroastrian. The Buddhistic theory of the origin of the Buddha as the combination of the characteristics of previous Buddhas and the Chakravartin is the same as "the Avestan doctrine of the passing on from ruler to ruler and from saint to saint of the divine, sacerdotal and kingly glory." Both the prophets dwelt in the region of eternal light before their birth; both had miraculous births; the advent of both was signalled by the rejoicings of nature; the childhood of both was passed amidst dangers of life; both reached enlightenment at 30; in both there is a remarkable similarity of legends about Māra and his daughters. "The iconographical evidence, as far as I can see, establishes

conclusively that the details of all the Buddha story, particularly in the Cycle of the Nativity, were brought into India before the Buddha's birth, and were then attached to his person with local adaptations, on his appearance in the rule of the enlightened one, though subsequently to his death, of course. This does not mean to imply that all the Magian elements in Buddhism are post-Buddha, still does it raise any doubt as to the Persian race of Gautama. The title of *Iranian sage* (Sākhya-muni) which Buddha wears, and the Sankhya legend told above, are to be taken in conjunction with these internal evidences, and in such conjunction not only prove that Buddha was a Persian, but explain how the Persian legends were fittingly associated with his person at a slightly later date." In Asoka, again, Dr. Spooner sees a copy of Vishtaspa, and his conversion to Buddhism was only a spiritual approach to the creed of his Persian ancestors which had been hitherto divided into two divisions by orthodox Magian exclusiveness (which had allied itself with Brahmanism) and the common religion of the people. He combined both and made his spiritual compromise the State creed.

A NEW GANGA RECORD.

Dr. Fleet next discusses the historical value of a Gaṅga record discovered at Pelukonda by Mr. Krishna Sastri in 1913-14. The record is unique for two facts. First it gives an unusual genealogy of the early Gaṅgas, as it gives between Madhava I. and Madhava II. (in whose time the record was made) a new king named Ayyavarman and not the two usual figures Harivarman and Vishnugōpa. Secondly it mentions the contemporaneity of Ayyavarman with a Pallava king named Simhavarman and of Madhava II. with another Pallava, Skandavarman. Thirdly, in its characters, its

language, its orthography, and its execution, it belongs, in Dr. Fleet's opinion, to somewhat before A.D. 500, and what is more, a genuine record unlike the almost all other Ganga ones. Now, Dr. Fleet discusses the question whether the exact dates of the two Pallava kings above referred to can be ascertained and, if a definite conclusion is possible, whether the relative chronology of the Gangas can be placed on an equally definite basis. On the ground that the new Penukonda record of Mādhava II. bears a close resemblance to the records of Simhavarman II. already published, Dr. Fleet sees in Ayyavarman's suzerian the Pallava king Simhavarman II. and in Mādhava's suzerain one of the two Skandavarman who figure in early Ganga chronology*. There are no inscriptional dates, unfortunately, either of the Śaka or any other era, to shew the exact dates of these Pallava monarchs; but a Digambara Jain work on cosmography entitled the *Lokavibhaga* recently brought to the notice of the world of scholars by Mr. R. Narasimha-char, says that it was originally translated from Prakrit into Sanskrit by Simhasūri and that a copy of it was made by Sarvanandin in S. 380 (A.D. 458), which is said to be the 22nd year of the reign of a Pallava king named Simhavarman. Dr. Fleet contends that the mention of a Śaka date as early as 380 in Southern India is incredible† and that it must have been put in by the copyist as a result of his own calculations, but the correctness of the astronomical details given in the treatise shows that a Simhavarman ruled Kanchi from 436-7 onward, and Dr. Fleet believes that this Simhavarman must be Simhavarman II. of the Māṅgalūr and Pikira records. From this Dr.

Fleet fixes the following detailed chronology in the Gaṅga and Pallava affairs :—

Simhavarman II. begins to reign.	A.D. 436
He crowns the Gaṅga Ayyavarman	,, 450
His 22nd year	, 458
Skandavarman III. begins to reign	,, 460
He crowns Mādhava II.	, 470
Mādhava's Penukonda record	, 475

THE BRAHMANIC BASIS OF THE ĀPASTAMBA ŚRAUTA SŪTRA.

Prof. Garbe believed that the *Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra* was indebted to the Brāhmaṇas of the Rig Veda only in those passages where the *Bahuvrcabrāhmaṇa* is directly quoted. Dr. Keith examines this statement and comes to the conclusion that *Āpastamba* must have had some other Brāhmaṇic work before, though we are unable to say definitely what it was. Keith points out that there are 12 passages in *Āpastamba* quoted from the Brāhmaṇas of the Rig Veda. Of these as not a single one is from the *Aitareya* it is plain that *Āpastamba* did not depend on this. In three passages *Āpastamba* seems to be indebted to the *Kausītaki* Brāhmaṇa, but the quotations are not direct. In nine passages *Āpastamba* quotes a *Bahvrca* Brāhmaṇa, but he "differs entirely in six, materially in two, and slightly in one." Dr. Keith therefore believes that *Āpastamba* must have had an unknown Brāhmaṇa as the source of his quotations. It is indeed curious that *Āpastamba* ignored the *Aitareya* and the *Kausītaki* which were certainly composed long before him; but the *Bahvrca* school on which he depended had some affinities to the *Kausītaki* and it is not improbable, in Dr. Keith's view, that *Āpastamba* took his Brāhmaṇa passages from a *Paingya* Brāhmaṇa which is frequently quoted in the *Kausītaki*.

THE ETHNOLOGY OF THE EARLY ARYAN PURANIC HISTORIES.

Mr. J. Kennedy dwells on the ethnological lessons which can be learnt from Mr. Pargiter's History of the Indian Aryas previous to the great war of the Kurus and Panchālas. When speaking of the final distribution of the lunar, solar and Yādava kingdoms, Mr. Pargiter gives, in Kennedy's opinion, a politico-ethnographical distribution of the Aryan settlers in Hindustan. According to the present ethnographical survey of India, the Indian Aryans fall into two groups, the Indo-Aryans of the Punjab and Rajputana and the Aryo-Dravidians of the United Provinces and Bihār. This division is seen in the map prepared by Mr. Pargiter. For according to it the Druhyus who were Indo-Afghans, the Anavas of the Punjab, and the Anartas of Southern Rajputana, Malwa and Gujerat formed a distinct race, the Indo-Aryan; while the Madhyadēsa, Kosala, Vidēha and Vaisali, occupied by the speakers of Eastern Hindi or Bihari form another distinct division, the Aryo-Dravidian. Bengal and Dakhan stand outside all these. The Puranic history should have been, in Mr. Kennedy's opinion, an Aryo-Dravidian production. "It is a production of Madhyadēsa in the most limited signification of that term; other legends and traditions have been partially woven in, more especially the legends of the Yādavas and Haihayas; but the main subject is the history of Madhyadēsa. Round this the history revolves; to Madhyadēsa the history returns. The compilers cared little for anything outside Madhyadēsa and the Yādavas. The traditional history of the Punjab, as we shall presently see, is a purely artificial production, and the solar line of Ayōdhya is thrown into the shade. And yet it was from Kosala and

Ayodhya that the first Aryan expedition set out to explore Southern India, an expedition as famous as that of the Argonauts, while Rama is the God and hero *par excellence* of half the Aryo-Dravidians." (p. 509).

The ethnological differentiation of Indo-Aryanism and Aryo-Dravidianism became thus a fact very early in Indian history. But the Aryans and Dravidians became so united that they lost all knowledge of the original Aryan invasion of the Kabul valley and the Punjab. Mr. Pargiter brings out the disappearance of this consciousness very clearly. The Aryo-Dravidian makers of Purāṇic history therefore fabricated legends to prove that the Punjab and other outlying areas were due to Aryo-Dravidian adventurers from the Madhyadēsa! Thus Anu is made the father of all the Punjab tribes. For these "begin to migrate from Madhyadēsa into the Punjab under Us'inaśa, who is in the 8th generation from Anu. Two of Us'inar's sons found the principalities of the Yaudhēyas and Ambasthas; two others found minor kingdoms; while his eldest and most important son is S'ivi, the founder of the S'ivis. S'ivi again begets four sons who each start a clan—the Madvakas, Kaikeyas, Sauviras and Vrishadarbbas. Here we have a list of the principal clans of the Punjab arranged in a genealogical succession." The Puranic history however gives a genuine account of the Yādava and Haihaya clans who took part in the Aryanization of Southern Rajputana, Gujerat and Malwa, and of the Aryas of the Kuru-Panchālā, Kōsala and Videha who aryanised the dense population of the Gangetic basin, and who, as they met peoples whose civilization was little inferior to their own, had to be subject to Dravidian influences on a larger scale. It was from these Aryo-Dravidian peoples that chiefs

* The Mangalūr and Pikira grants. See *Ep. Ind.*, VIII, p. 161.

† See pp. 476—9 for the history of the Śaka date,

went on adventure to outlying areas—Bengal, Deccan, etc.,—and carved out kingdoms for themselves. This is what the Puranic legends suggest. They also give the importance of the Brahmans in these new conquests.” “Had the Brahmans not come also, the Aryan conquerors being few must have been speedily absorbed. It was the Brahman who brought with him Aryan civilization and traditions and introduced the institutions of caste. Brahman missionaries paved the way, Brahmans accompanied the conquerors, Brahmans converted Dravidian potentates, and enabled them to inter-marry with the high-born Aryas. The Aryan spirit was kept alive by the Brahman, who owed everything to his Aryan heritage, not by the exogamous semi-Aryan, semi-Dravidian military chief. But without the protection of the chief the Brahman was powerless, and it was not the Brahman’s peaceful penetration but the military exploits of the chief that enthralled the popular imagination.”

AGNISKANDHA AND THE 4TH ROCK-EDICT OF ASOKA.

The fourth rock-edict of Asoka says that, for centuries, the country had been demoralised; that sanctity for animal life, fellow feeling, reverence to Brahmans and Bhikshus, and other virtues had been conspicuous by their absence; but that with the adoption of the Dharma by Asoka, all this gave way to a better order of things. The drums sounded in that ruler’s time were not war-drums but those of joy; the cars were not the chariots of war but the *vimānas* of temples; the elephants were not for fighting but for processions; the *Agniskandha* was not intended for discharging combustibles at the enemy but was a *bonfire* of festival; and in place of the terrible sights of fighting men

and war there were holy sights. Mr. S. Krishnasami Aiyangar points out this true significance of the edict by interpreting the word *Agniskandha* not as the simple *bonfire*, as Mr. Thomas does, but the peculiar kind of bonfire prevalent in South India in the Kartikai month, called the *S’okkappanai* (decorated palmyra). Mr. Krishnasami Aiyangar makes the ingenious suggestion that the palmyra lamp (which figures as the *beacon light* in early Tamil literature and which Mr. Krishnasami Aiyangar seems to consider to be connected with *S’okkappanai*) was perhaps intended by Asoka, and he sees in the great features of the Indra festival in the south described in the *Silappadikāram*, etc., the same features,—e.g., elephants’ activities, cars, horses, etc.,—which are mentioned in Asoka’s edict.

THE DATE OF HOYSALA VISHNUVARDHANA.

In J. R. A. S. of Jan. 1915, Mr. T. Narasimhaiyengar fixed the initial year of Vishnuvardhana’s reign in A. D. 1097 and the terminal year in 1156, correcting Rice who had hitherto assigned 1111–1141. Mr. Rice replies in the *July* No. and reiterates his old views. He points out that Ballala, the brother and predecessor of Vishnuvardhana was certainly ruling in 1106 (C.M. 169) and that, after this date, the earliest date for Vishnuvardhana which is available is 1111, and that the latter date was fixed by him on the understanding that any year between 1106 and 1111 is also possible, if any record is found to that effect. The authority of A.K. 110 which Mr. Narasimhaiyengar quoted in his favour is discredited by Rice on two grounds. First that inscription is irregular and uncertain and the No. 45 found there may after all be 65, and any calculation based on a doubtful figure cannot carry authority

Secondly, it is *certain* that Ballala was ruling in 1104, and to attribute Vishnuvardhana to an earlier period is absurd. He therefore still believes that Vishnuvardhana should have been converted to Vaishnavism before he actually came to the throne, i.e., when he was *Viceroy* at Tonnur. As regards the terminal year Mr. Rice clings to his old date 1141 (C.M. 96). He says that he is not ignorant of the General Bitti Deva. The latter, he points out, was yet living in 1162 (H S. 137). C.M. 96, however, he says, distinctly mentions the death of a senior king Bitti Deva in 1141 A.D., and this can only mean Vishnuvardhana’s death. His son and successor Narasimha Deva was a boy of 8 when he ascended the throne and his inscriptions sometimes mention his father’s name; the government was perhaps carried in the latter’s name for a few years. It is also plain that Narasimha Deva himself has the name of his father prefixed to his own in some of his inscriptions. At any rate as Narasimha’s inscriptions are regularly found from 1141 onwards, Mr. Rice concludes in favour of his old view.

V. RANGACHARIAR.

“NECESSITY FOR CONSERVATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.”

THE title of the subject may appear somewhat puzzling to those who are not accustomed to the language of science. Conservation lies at the foundation of all science, it means simply that the sum-total of things is a limited quantity.

* A lecture delivered by Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, M. H. School, Mayavaram, at a meeting of the Tanjore District Teachers’ Guild, held at Tirukattupalli.

Secondary education—and for the matter of that any education—should take account of the fact that the sum-total of the physical and mental powers of an organism is limited, and any scheme that does not take note of this fundamental law is bound to be faulty and sadly misleading, and if extended into practice, is fraught with ruinous consequences.

Education in this country is now passing through a peculiar stage—the second stage, as I may call it. For about a century educational questions were regarded as the sole business of a close or privileged body, the Syndicate or the Senate. Now, however things have changed and any parent who has a child at school, assumes the critic, and questions the wisdom of the authoritative bodies who lay down rules and principles for guidance and practice in education. The result has been that there is caused a great stir in the public mind regarding educational questions, and opinions of all sorts, and of all shades are freely advanced on the public platform and in the press; but as yet, there has been no organised attempt to give expression to any really well-thought-out scheme or plan. Neither have the official bodies shown any recognition to the opinions advanced by public bodies in educational matters. Thus has come about a state of affairs, in which, relieved of all sense of weighty responsibility people advance all sorts of theories for whatever they may be worth, in the field of education. The time has now come, I think, when those who are actively engaged in education will ponder on these questions and arrive at some definite and practicable scheme best adapted to the times, and the needs of our country, and the interests of the youth receiving education.

It is my desire that our Guild should take

up the duty of educating public opinion; and I propose to-night to confine myself to a few of the most glaring defects in our present system of education.

There are critics and critics, who view our educational system from diverse standpoints. There is a large body of teachers dissatisfied with the present scheme that excludes certain portions or certain subjects from the public examination. They deem it scant courtesy shown to these subjects and would therefore have them brought up for public examination. Again, most of us are agreed that in the present scheme adequate attention is not paid to the vernaculars. Some enthusiasts would have vernaculars brought under B. Group. Well, already the Syndicate has demanded a minimum in A and C group subjects, and should there be another set minima in B. Group subjects as some of these critics would recommend, would they not be aggravating the evil? In the first place there is no agreement as to what the term 'vernaculars' may connote. Some believe that it includes ancient languages, and that if so, ancient languages had better be studied exclusively by those who would aspire to be pandits. Thus there is no definite proposal brought forward capable of universal acceptance. Teachers, as we are, is it not our duty to study these questions and keep the public informed of the probable consequences of any particular scheme?

The present system to my mind is most at fault in not recognising the law of conservation in education. If the days and working hours be thrice as many and as long as they are now, if the physical and mental capacities of boys are thrice as great as they are found to be at present, then, and then only it might be possible to work out satisfactorily the present scheme of Secondary education.

The very same school of critics that bemoan the scanty attention paid to physical education at present urge in the same breath the extension of the field of study and the fixing of certain *minima* in the several subjects of study, which necessarily results in the imposing on the students already groaning under work, occupation to last all the waking hours of the day. 'A sound mind in a sound body,' has become a cant phrase indeed, and serves more for ornament than for use. It has not been the guiding principle at all events with the framers of our present system of education.

It is only too well known to us that the best sportsmen and gymnasts are by no means apt at their studies, and if they are retained in school, it is solely because they bring credit to it in the Local and District sports. For,—after all, the human mechanism possesses limited energy and if the body draws more than its due share upon the common fund, it must perforce to that degree starve the mind. Self-evident as this may seem, it is unfortunately ignored by those who govern and shape our educational systems. The greatest majority of our pupils come from homes, which neglect, if they do not positively forbid, the care of the body, and which extol mental and spiritual advancement above all things earthly. We have thus to wage war against long custom and tradition; and large numbers of pupils are every year going through this lopsided education as a matter of course.

It should be remembered that our ancient system of education was nothing like this. It demanded very little mental work, while it gave free scope to bodily exercise in the way of certain daily mechanical duties. The morning hours were devoted to washing clothes, gathering flowers for 'pooja' and such odds and

ends. There was no study or learning in the morning. After 'pooja', between ten and noon, the 'guru' had a *siesta* and the 'sishtyas' had their nap too. Now, the 'guru' would wake up at about 3 P.M., and gathering his pupils about him would teach just two or three 'slokas' which they had already committed to memory. The methods of exposition allowed for free discussion between the pupils and the teacher, which kept alive the attention of the pupils. In the evening again they were busy as in the morning, so that the largest part of the day was spent in some sort of physical work or other. There was the memorising of a few 'slokas.' But it never taxed them at all. Sixteen years were spent in this way. The first two or three years were taken up by a preliminary course of studies such as the 'Sabda' 'Amarakosa' elements of 'Vyakarana.' After this elementary course, the pupils were called upon to select some one subject of study such as literature, grammar or philosophy, whichever they proposed to specialise in. The acquisition of knowledge was thus a very easy and slow and gradual process and was never felt at any stage as very exhausting or irksome.

What a contrast to this is our modern system of education! There is in the first place the acquisition of a foreign language, the difficulty of which is not sufficiently realised by the public, not even by the teachers. I shall mention only one fact. English pupils studying English text-books in a school course covering a period of ten to twelve years find that a period of nearly two years is spent in mastering the language alone. It is not my opinion, but that of the Phonetic Society that the English spelling alone demands two years of hard study out of twelve years. If it is so with English boys, how much more arduous

must the task be to Indian students having to master the irregularities of English language and idiom, and how much longer must it take them to acquire a proficiency of the English language, such as we demand of our young aspirants to the College course! We may take it that the sum-total of their energy spent in this way would be seven out of eleven years. We thus get about a third of the total energy available, and this is expected to be spent in the acquisition of a knowledge of several subjects such as Mathematics, especially, our modern Mathematics. Whereas an English boy spends eight out of his twelve years, our boys spend only four out of their eleven years; and still our friends deplore that our Elementary Mathematics does not include all that it does in England or America.

Secondly under our present system, the various subjects of study are handled by specialists. What is the effect of this specialised system? Compare it with your recollection of the amount of strain you had in your Matriculation course. I believe that because I passed at a time when I was regarded as a 'scamp,' I am now here alive to give you the benefit of my experience. If I had closely followed my teacher's 'precious' directions, I don't believe you could see me here to-day. Some of my friends were excellent pupils from the teacher's point of view, but the majority of them are now gathered to their fathers. If this be the effect of a system of education when the amount of general knowledge was of a very elementary kind, what a disastrous effect must the present system of education have on the pupils that pass through it?

I must draw your attention to something which has been growing gradually without any public knowledge. Most of the critics who speak from public platforms and lay down

rules and principles for our guidance, understand by education that system which they saw in their teens, which included the study of such books as the 'Manual of Geography, Sinclair's 'History of England and India,' etc. All knowledge of Mathematics was then confined to the three books of Euclid and Algebra up to the Quadratic Equations. Science then meant the two Primers of Physics and Chemistry. What do these subjects signify in these days? What amount of knowledge is demanded in them in the School-Final course? It has been acknowledged even by those reputed relentless people—the University Examiners—that the average knowledge of English has been indeed raised. Let us take other subjects. What does our Mathematics mean? All that the old subject meant and a good deal more, not learnt by us even in the B.A. course. In modern Mathematics our High School boys require a knowledge of the properties of Squares, Triangles, Circles, and a very large portion of what passed for Algebra in the F.A. classes.

Let us take Vernacular Composition. You will agree with me that it was much easy work in those days to understand a few stanzas of 'Naladiyar' which enabled us to scrape through the examinations. There was the Translation paper besides to make up for any deficiency in grammar. But now, Vernacular Composition requires the reading of a number of books dealing not only with stories but also with technical subjects. A boy who prepares for a modern Vernacular Composition examination has to do much harder work than what we did in our days.

Coming to the B Group subjects, let us take Geography. Our old Geography teachers were just as wise as their pupils in the subject, because their knowledge of the subject was

derived from the same source as their pupils' own. Out of ten years barely six months were devoted to that subject. In these days, it requires nearly as many years.

Take Indian History. The materials of the Indian History of the present day are increasing and have increased, and we now are teaching things which in former days were sealed books to us. Compare a paper on Indian History in these days with one of the eighties. What a startling difference! Notwithstanding the complaint of Headmasters that Indian History is a neglected subject, we find that it is much better studied now, and studied so as to induce some amount of patriotic feeling and the study covers a wider sphere combining political with social and economic phenomena. Elementary Science too now covers four times the ground that the old Science Primers of the Eighties ever did. Drawing demands at least two out of thirty periods. I don't object to it at all, I welcome it, on the other hand, as a necessary diversion. But I only point out that a portion of their time has to be given to that subject. In our days Drawing was unknown.

Now there is a great deal of opposition to what is called specialisation, and even educationists object to the institution of what is known as a C Group, and advocate the comprehending of all subjects under A Group, that is to say, the making of the study of all subjects compulsory upon all. 'Something of every thing,' the blessed Baconian saying, is no longer practicable, nay even possible, 'Life piled upon life' were too little'. Certain subjects are supposed to be necessary, because every man of any education ought to know them. But there must be some limitation here. The amount of time in the school career is alas! too limited.

From this review, it is clear that an average student of the VI Form expends thrice as much energy on A and B group subjects alone as his predecessors of thirteen years ago did for their whole school course. He comes out none the better, none the wiser, for all the trouble he has been put to. The mind is a tool which requires wonderful adjustment, a tool which has to be sharpened; for education does not *create* capacities, it only *develops* latent ones. If the present C group subjects are brought under A or B, and all boys have to be passed through the same mill, it is my firm conviction that very little progress is possible, and their capacity to undergo a University career will be correspondingly diminished. Knowledge is ever growing from more to more in all departments of study, and any person who intends to acquire a decent knowledge of them has necessarily to specialise in some few at the expense of the rest. I know I shall have to face the objection that a graduate is not a specialist, but only one who has acquired certain capacities which will enable him to tackle, later on, the intricate social problems of life. But be it remembered that one who has bestowed special thought on any one department of knowledge will develop capacities in him which will enable him to acquire a knowledge in any other department if he but cared to do it. The old graduate had a very large residuum of mental and physical energy to apply in life. All that energy is now squeezed out of our students at a period when their body should develop freely. The field of education covered by the passing generation takes up twelve years; the result is that the mental acquirements of a modern School-Final boy and those of an old graduate are equal, but not their mental capacities.

Compare the life of an old graduate with that of a modern graduate. I can say that out of those public men that passed in the eighties who occupied positions of responsibility in public life, some are now alive doing useful work for the present generation, whereas 90% of the present graduates are now passed away. Every day I open a newspaper with trembling fear as to which friend's turn might have come next. Day after day, I find that men break down in the prime of life in positions from which they ought to rise much higher in course of time.

Let us therefore improve what opportunities we may have for physical culture. Every faddist-teacher must remember that the sum-total of a boy's capacity is limited and must allow him ample time to look after his physique. If that is borne in mind, we find that what is called specialisation is not specialisation but necessarily a conservation, for the field to be covered by the boy has become so extensive that the intellect can acquire proper training not by widening the area of knowledge, but by limiting it to some particular narrow field.

Take the S. S. L. C. syllabus in any one of the two subjects Physics and Chemistry. I find it practically covers the whole Intermediate ground. The Intermediate students learn nothing new in their old subjects for one year, and next year start anew. Our University professors who are mostly Englishmen, compare our syllabus with theirs at home; but they forget the limited amount of available energy that our students can give to these subjects. The prescriptions given by English experts are obviously untenable and unworkable.

Or take English History. Compare the S. S. L. C. question paper of the present day

rules and principles for our guidance, understand by education that system which they saw in their teens, which included the study of such books as the 'Manual of Geography, Sinclair's 'History of England and India,' etc. All knowledge of Mathematics was then confined to the three books of Euclid and Algebra up to the Quadratic Equations. Science then meant the two Primers of Physics and Chemistry. What do these subjects signify in these days? What amount of knowledge is demanded in them in the School-Final course? It has been acknowledged even by those reputed relentless people—the University Examiners—that the average knowledge of English has been indeed raised. Let us take other subjects. What does our Mathematics mean? All that the old subject meant and a good deal more, not learnt by us even in the B.A. course. In modern Mathematics our High School boys require a knowledge of the properties of Squares, Triangles, Circles, and a very large portion of what passed for Algebra in the F.A. classes.

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Now there is a great deal of opposition to what is called specialisation, and even educationists object to the institution of what is known as a C Group, and advocate the comprehending of all subjects under A Group, that is to say, the making of the study of all subjects compulsory upon all. 'Something of every thing,' the blessed Baconian saying, is no longer practicable, nay even possible, 'Life piled upon life were too little'. Certain subjects are supposed to be necessary, because every man of any education ought to know them. But there must be some limitation here. The amount of time in the school career is alas! too limited.

From this review, it is clear that an average student of the VI Form expends thrice as much energy on A and B group subjects alone as his predecessors of thirteen years ago did for their whole school course. He comes out none the better, none the wiser, for all the trouble he has been put to. The mind is a tool which requires wonderful adjustment, a tool which has to be sharpened; for education does not *create* capacities, it only *develops* latent ones. If the present C group subjects are brought under A or B, and all boys have to be passed through the same mill, it is my firm conviction that very little progress is possible, and their capacity to undergo a University career will be correspondingly diminished. Knowledge is ever growing from more to more in all departments of study, and any person who intends to acquire a decent knowledge of them has necessarily to specialise in some few at the expense of the rest. I know I shall have to face the objection that a graduate is not a specialist, but only one who has acquired certain capacities which will enable him to tackle, later on, the intricate social problems of life. But be it remembered that one who has bestowed special thought on any one department of knowledge will develop capacities in him which will enable him to acquire a knowledge in any other department if he but cared to do it. The old graduate had a very large residuum of mental and physical energy to apply in life. All that energy is now squeezed out of our students at a period when their body should develop freely. The field of education covered by the passing generation takes up twelve years; the result is that the mental acquirements of a modern School-Final boy and those of an old graduate are equal, but not their mental capacities.

Compare the life of an old graduate with that of a modern graduate. I can say that out of those public men that passed in the eighties who occupied positions of responsibility in public life, some are now alive doing useful work for the present generation, whereas 90% of the present graduates are now passed away. Every day I open a newspaper with trembling fear as to which friend's turn might have come next. Day after day, I find that men break down in the prime of life in positions from which they ought to rise much higher in course of time.

Let us therefore improve what opportunities we may have for physical culture. Every faddist-teacher must remember that the sum-total of a boy's capacity is limited and must allow him ample time to look after his physique. If that is borne in mind, we find that what is called specialisation is not specialisation but necessarily a conservation, for the field to be covered by the boy has become so extensive that the intellect can acquire proper training not by widening the area of knowledge, but by limiting it to some particular narrow field.

Take the S. S. L. C. syllabus in any one of the two subjects Physics and Chemistry. I find it practically covers the whole Intermediate ground. The Intermediate students learn nothing new in their old subjects for one year, and next year start anew. Our University professors who are mostly Englishmen, compare our syllabus with theirs at home; but they forget the limited amount of available energy that our students can give to these subjects. The prescriptions given by English experts are obviously untenable and unworkable.

Or take English History. Compare the S. S. L. C. question paper of the present day

with that given for the B.A. examination in the eighties. The old B.A. students who had gone through bulky volumes were not expected to answer those questions which are now unblushingly put to School-Final students. So in every department of study the syllabus has grown big and covers a far wider and more extensive field than ever before.

There are yet one or two points which have to be considered in this connection. I will first take the promotion standards in schools. In an English public school, a boy who attends school regularly and systematically expects his promotion as a matter of course. But here if we promote 50% of boys we pronounce the standard to be monstrously lax. Accustomed to the old Matriculation standards, we have come to think it but fair that a good percentage of students should be plucked. Well I boldly predicate that the average age of a modern High School student is not 11 or 12, but is 16 to 18. Ordinarily an average boy ought to finish up the course in ten years. We condemn every boy as unfit who does not give satisfaction to every teacher in the manner in which he wants it. If I had the complete control of my boys, I would say to them 'Do your best, boys; never mind promotion.' Any institution which does not promote 90% of its boys stands condemned on that very account. As teachers, we must think that any University which raises its standard so as to necessitate 80 or 90% of failures is not the sort of University we require. Proclaim it from the house-tops we do not want such Universities. In every school, if the teachers work honestly, and if the boys attend regularly, more than 90% of the boys must be eligible for promotion. The proper standard should be this: whether the boy's capacities have developed so far as

to enable him to profit by the teaching in the next higher class, and not whether he has secured any absolute arbitrary minimum fixed. It is a standing disgrace to the school, I say it again, which shows more than one % of failure in any class. Some time ago, I found in the newspapers a suggestion that boys who have been two years in a particular class should be promoted. I would say that if a boy two years old in a particular class is not fit for promotion, send him out of your school. There may be exceptional cases owing to illness or other serious causes. I maintain that in these cases promotion should be the rule, and detention the exception. Schools which pride themselves on their so-called efficiency are in my opinion veritable slaughter-houses, where boys are passed through mills, and they finally come out lean emaciated figures who cannot stand a breath of wind. If a boy spends eleven years of his life at school, and has not been able to deepen his knowledge much, but has understood just how to make use of the little knowledge he has obtained, I would consider him as really benefited by his school education.

Now we come to the co-ordination of physical culture with mental education. I wonder if any of you take the trouble of looking at your boys with their dress off. I insist on every boy's taking off his coat and shirt, when I attest his marks of identification in the certificate. I have often been pained to find most of them suffering from some form of skin disease or an other, and nearly 20% of them half-starved emaciated figures. Good many boys who attend our schools come from very poor classes; and in order to give their boys the schooling fees, the parents starve themselves and the boys. If an honest doctor should examine our boys, he is sure to order a full three years' rest and good feeding for them all. In this

wet district of ours we find ourselves confronted with additional problems besides starvation.

In olden days, rice sold dog-cheap, but dry pulses were luxuries, rare things to be had; and there are still lingering traces of those days in our homes where our grandmothers slide into our leaves huge mounds of cooked rice, but grudge us a spoonful of *dhal* and still less quantity of ghee. At a time when it was all open air and out-door work, large quantities of rice were not a bad bargain. Hard physical work demanded large quantities of carbonaceous matter. Now, however, it is all different; under conditions obtaining in our homes and schools, the digestive capacities of our children are gone down. The old grandmothers call it sheer disgrace of us that we should eat such small lumps of food, even which is more than many of our boys can digest. The truth is that our diet given in our homes is in perfect consonance with the conditions of life and work which prevailed in very ancient India. The working hours of our forefathers were morning hours: the noon was the time of digestion and rest, which, I consider as sacred as the meditations of a saint. Now, the school work begins some time before noon, and our boys snatch a hasty meal of the ill-cooked or half-cooked food laid before them, and donning shirt and coat and all such paraphernalia, run up to school in the hot sun, sweating, and gasping for breath. What wonder they are such puny bodies in schools! "Abolish the mid-day labour." I should say. Let us work in the morning and in the evening. It is this which suits our Indian climate, conditions, customs, and modes of life. Our present timing of school-work is wrong, is highly deleterious to health. Cannot this at least be done, where possible?

XXI

In the Primary school, ample scope must be given to free movement and at frequent intervals. Some method must be adopted of moving them about both in the mornings and in the evenings. The syllabus must be so adjusted as not to demand any mental strain of the boys at least for the first five years of school life; and no home preparation should be demanded of any primary school boy. Remember God is an educationist, and he knows better than we know to bring up his children. When parents complain that their boys are playing marbles, I say to them, "Let them play and play more." Let books, slates, and all appliances be left at school. In the Secondary classes, one hour's home preparation is more than enough, such as Drawing exercises, maps, references to the dictionary, which are purely mechanical. I should affirm that up to the V Form, boys should never be put to the necessity of reading in the nights; just two hours of home work may be given them and no more. In the VI Form just extend half-an-hour or even one hour more for home study. To make them work longer is to be guilty of man slaughter.

I close here. My object has been just to point out to you where the evils lie. I don't profess to have exhausted all the evils: neither have I suggested proper remedies for the evils I have detailed. I believe that once you recognise the evil, and the magnitude and the seriousness of it, you will set about finding the remedies for yourselves in all earnestness.

S. S. L. C. ENGLISH TEXTS FOR 1916.

DURING the last few months the S. S. L. C. Scheme, owing to the new-fangled and unsound principle of moderation introduced by the Madras University for regulating admissions into colleges, has been engaging the anxious attention of all interested in the educational progress of our Presidency. The scheme has now been in existence for nearly six years. At its very inception it was received but in a half-hearted diffident manner by those who were endowed with a little foresight. It was only the feeling of unprecedented and boundless unpopularity engendered in the public mind by the terrible slaughter caused by the Matriculation at that time that led to the reception of the School-Final Scheme without violent opposition. It was hoped, though without adequate reasons, that the new scheme would prove a panacea for curing many of the evils existing in the old system. To some extent these expectations have not been belied. The S. S. L. C. Scheme, with its belated recognition of the school-work of the pupils, the scope for specialisation—though sometimes premature—according to one's taste, the decrease in the number of subjects for the public examination and the promised minimising of the rigour and value attached to the public examination, has been in some respects an improvement upon the old order of things, though there are yet many radical defects to be remedied in the light of new experience gained in the actual process of its being worked out for half a dozen years. The public, including teachers and other persons interested in the education of youth, gave it a fair and reasonable trial for the last five years. Some of the old sores were being slowly healed when, to the utter

surprise and dismay of every one, came this thunderbolt of the ingenious moderation of marks, which has wrought so much havoc and created so much discontent and depression that even sane and sober-minded persons have gone to the length of condemning the scheme as a whole. The signs are ominous. We hope that the wise Government would not disregard the unanimous voice of the public expressed in no uncertain voice throughout the Presidency in the press and on the platform, but would institute an inquiry into the whole matter and set things right in time.

ENGLISH TEXTS.

The attention of the public has been wholly engrossed by the scheme in its totality and varied suggestions and criticisms have been offered by responsible headmasters and teachers with the righteous intention of bettering it. These are matters of momentous import. But there is another that has caused great dissatisfaction among those who are actually engaged in teaching English in the School-Final class; and that calls for a brief public comment. I think that the *Educational Review* is the fittest place for it. The English texts prescribed for 1916 are unsatisfactory from many points of view. As one who has been teaching English in the High School for over six years I may state that there has been a "progressive retrogression" in the literary quality of the texts prescribed from year to year. I don't think that any one who studies the matter carefully will deny the accuracy of that statement. It may be almost sacrilegious to question the infinite wisdom or capacity of our omniscient University, the custodian of our learning, in this trifling matter. Whether it is the lack of proper knowledge or rather the indifference born of

a sense of its own superior dignity which regards such minor details as beyond the province of its notice and attention, I shall not presume to determine. We wonder why the S. S. L. C. Board should blindly, and without any discrimination, adopt the texts prescribed by the University, if they are found unsuitable. I do not know whether this is one of the conditions of the acceptance of the School Final Examination being equivalent to the Matriculation as an entrance to a University career. Anyhow there is something rotten in the state of Denmark.

SOME GENERAL CRITERIA.

Those, who know any thing about the objects for which English texts are prescribed for study and the benefits expected to be derived from them by the students, will freely admit that they should, as far as our conditions permit, embrace and embody the different types of literature in prose and verse. They should be of such a high standard of literary merit, of course consistent with the capacity and ability of our young students to understand them, that a study of them should generate in the minds of our students a thirst for reading more books of a similar kind so that their literary taste might grow strong and develop along healthy and enlightened channels. The books should enlarge the bounds of their knowledge, widen their imagination, and cultivate in them a broad outlook upon life and liberal views about its problems. Further, they should be capable of exerting a healthy moral influence on their minds by appealing to their pure and noble instincts and rousing their dormant emotions and sentiments. Lastly, as literature is the mirror of the national life of a people they should aim at furnishing the students with a true knowledge of the aims, ideals,

aspirations and virtues of the English society, as depicted in the "winged words" of their immortal literature. How far do the texts of 1916 fulfil these conditions?

POETRY.

An examination of the poems prescribed for study during the last five years reveals the woeful truth that the poems have been gradually declining both in quality and quantity until the poetical flood has reached the lowest ebb this year. The poetical selections are: Matthew Arnold's *Rugby Chapel*, Wolfe's *Burial of Sir John Moore*, Longfellow's *The Village Blacksmith*, Mrs. Hemans's *The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers*, and Addison's *The Glories of Creation*. Any ordinary reader of English poetry would at a glance remark that, with the exception of *Rugby Chapel*, the poems are very easy, some of them mere trifles, inferior in poetical merit and utterly lacking in imaginative or emotional appeal; and every teacher of English knows that we used to teach them in the third or fourth forms, and most of our School-Final students are quite familiar with them. As such, what amount of fresh interest and lively desire to appreciate them will our students exhibit while the poems are being taught in the class? The contrast is all the more glaring when we compare the poems of the current year with those of former years. Among the poems selected from 1910—15 we find the following: Wordsworth's *Michael*, *Heartleap-Well* and *Simon Lee*; Tennyson's *Dora*, *Lady of Shalott*, *Morte D'Arthur* and *Charge of the Light Brigade*; Browning's *Incident of the French Camp*, *From Ghent to Aix* and *Herve Riel*; Byron's stanzas on *The Eve of Waterloo*, *The Coliseum*, and *The Ocean*; Shelley's *To Night*; Longfellow's *The Skeleton in Armour*, *The Bell of Atri*, and

Hiawatha; Campbell's *Battle of the Baltic* and Lord Ullin's *Daughter*; Drayton's *Ballad of Agincourt* and other poems. We have only to place the above-mentioned beautiful poems side by side with those chosen for this year to realise what a gruesome fall there has been! It comes to us indeed as a revelation of the poverty and barrenness of English poetry that of all the illustrious roll of English poets, Addison, the essayist and one of the most prosaic of writers, should be unearthed to give us his poem on *Creation* with its obtrusive moral tone and ideas opposed to all modern scientific laws. More need not be said in the way of criticism about some of the other poems which belong more or less to the same category. Again, in respect of quantity also, there has been a gradual decline. During the first three years there were about 1000 lines each, which during the last two years diminished to about 600 lines, until at last this year it has dwindled into 300 lines! Any unusually patient and slow teacher, dwelling in detail upon the meaning and grammar of each and every word, would not require more than three months at the most to finish the whole. What are we to do during the next seven months? I am tempted to ask seriously: are our students so unintelligent, dull, lacking in the sense of beauty and in the power of appreciating beautiful poems that such poems, far below their standard and capacity and lacking in most of the elements of poetical quality should be placed before them for study? Again, during the first four years the University published along with the poems short introductions and notes which, far from encouraging any tendency towards cram, were of great help both to teachers and students not only in clearing difficulties but in appreciating beautiful passages. What has led to the dis-

continuance of that practice? Is it not possible and advisable to continue it in future? If it be objected that an increase in the number of lines would make the portion too heavy for the year, I would suggest that the prose books for non-detailed study, instead of superstitiously remaining the number four, might advantageously be reduced to three and a corresponding increase might be made in poetry. If the study of English poetry is intended to enrich the mind by appealing to the imagination and emotions, we should have a better and finer type of poems than we are having now.

DETAILED PROSE.

In the choice of prose books for detailed study the University has been more happy. But there is one matter that deserves special consideration at our hands. After prescribing novels, in complete or slightly abridged editions, and books of travel or adventure, for the first four years, a novel experiment was tried last year. Instead of a complete book treating of one subject or story, typical selections were made from some of the masters of English prose like Burke, Lamb, Carlyle, Ruskin, Newman and others. The principle underlying this method is evidently to present some characteristic types and styles of English prose as represented in the immortal writings of the great standard authors and thus suggest some of the lines of the historical development of English prose from the 16th to the late 19th century. No body could reasonably raise, and in fact nobody actually did, any objection to this principle. Why has that plan been given up this year? If some teachers raised complaints about the prose selections last year, it was not on the score of their impropriety as such but of their being too difficult and too abstract to be

clearly grasped and assimilated by our students. This lack of consistency has been an outstanding feature in many matters connected with our University during the last decade. Coming nearer hand, *Tom Brown's School Days* is of course one of the classics of English prose literature which is specially attractive to the youthful minds of the students presenting, as it does, one of the happiest and best periods in the history of English Public Schools, prominently represented by Rugby under the great educationist and thinker, Thomas Arnold. There are some parts of the book which, by their treatment of some characteristic customs and manners of the English society of a bygone day,—though realistic in themselves—, are rather incomprehensible to our Indian students. But such things are sometimes inevitable in books of this kind, which aim at impressing some local colour on their pages.

NON-DETAILED PROSE.

The books prescribed for non-detailed study are the poorest specimens in this respect. The nature and qualities of the prose books have been fluctuating in varied degrees during the last five years until they have reached their lowest level this year. Some of the books selected in former years were: Ballantine's *Coral Island*, Reade's *Cloister and the Hearth*, Marryot's *Children of the New Forest*, Scott's *Ivanhoe*, Kingsley's *Heroes*, Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*, Hawthorne's *Tanglewood Tales*, Fennimore's *Peeps at Japan and Italy*, *Adventures of Ulysses*, *Stories from Chaucer* and others. We have only to compare them with Plunket's *Citizens of the Empire*, Gandy's *Wanderings of Rama*, *Two Heroines* and *A Health Primer*, the last two being anonymous, to see what a deplorable decline there has been this year. Not one of them is the work

of a recognised standard author or of one occupying any important place in literature. But we ask, why should these inferior books, lacking in many of the elements literary merit both with respect to matter and style, be chosen when there are scores and scores of other suitable books in English, which are in every way conducive to the healthy development of the intellectual and moral faculties of our youths? I do not deny that the *Citizens of the Empire* may increase the ordinary students' knowledge of the English constitution, the English laws, the government of the British Empire and the duties of its citizens; but I maintain that it can more appropriately find a place in history than as an English text. Again, *The Wanderings of Rama*, though the subject-matter of the story might be expected to be familiar to many of our students and likely to strike a sympathetic chord in their hearts, is defective in many particulars. The hero, in the hands of Mr. Gandy, loses completely the epic sublimity and heroism of the Rama of the Ramayana. Moreover Rama, the king of Ayodhya, should not be treated merely like the Greek adventurer and sailor Ulysses; because in the eye of the Hindu he is a semi-divine personage invested with all the ideal virtues of divinity and worshipped as an incarnation of God. The style of the book is affected, stilted, quite unnatural as it strives to be a kind of poetical prose without success. Much need not be said about the *Two Heroines* except that it possesses no great merits of any kind, though it treats about the lives of Nightingale and Joan of Arc—women who have played a heroic part in the histories of their respective countries. Apart from these, not a word of praise could be uttered in defence of the *Health Primer*. I

confidently, but humbly, state that if the members of the Board had seen the book, much less read a few pages of it, before selecting it, they would not have prescribed it as an English text. Though the anonymous author pretends to be rather original and interesting in his method of presenting hygienic principles and rules in a popular story form, it fails to attract, or to appeal to, our minds in that way. Even the dullest minds can penetrate through the thin cloak covering the apparent purpose of the author. Again, if this book is intended to improve the standard of English of our students, nothing more disastrous could be imagined. Because, to say the least, every page of this book bristles with mistakes both of grammar and idiom. Instead of bettering the language of our students, I am afraid that a close study of the book may very likely prove detrimental to their language and their power of correct expression. I cannot prevail myself to think that the Board seriously expects to improve the style of our students by reading, much less studying, books like these. We sincerely hope that such unhappy selections, certainly caused by ignorance, would not be made in future. We again maintain that intrinsic literary merits alone, combined with useful knowledge, should influence the choice of texts for public examinations.

A PARALLEL.

I propose to make my point clear by a comparison. It is well known that the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations, which are conducted at some centres in South India and in which many of our students pass creditably, are accepted as equivalents of our Matriculation for College entrance. Among the poems prescribed for 1915 and 1916 are Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel* and *Lady of the Lake*; Tennyson's *Coming of Arthur*, *Morte D'Arthur* and *Enoch Arden*; Longfellow's *Hiawatha* and *Evangeline*; Gold-

smith's *Traveller* and *The Deserted Village*. Among the prose books there are Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*; Scott's *Legend of Montrose*, *Ivanhoe* and *Rob Roy*; Ruskin's *Sesame and Lilies*; George Eliot's *Silas Marner*; Addison and Steele's *Essays from the Spectator*; Kingsley's *Heroes* and others. A comparison of the abovementioned text-books with our own for 1916 clearly reveals the miserably low standard and inferior quality of our books. Even making due allowance for differences in the standard of English knowledge between English students, for whom they are mainly intended, and Indian students, such disparity is inexplicable and reflects but poorly upon the powers of judgment of the University or the care bestowed by it on the selection of proper text-books in English.

CONCLUSION.

Let us not forget that the students, on passing the School-Final Examination, have to enter on a College course where they have to study Shakespeare, Milton, Keats, Tennyson; Addison, Sheridan, Mrs. Gaskell, Scott and others. Therefore the texts studied in the High School should, as far as possible, equip them for their new sphere by giving them a foretaste of what is to come. The English books should foster their intellectual and æsthetic powers by appealing to their imagination and sense of beauty. They should, further, furnish them with good models of prose style that are worthy of close study and imitation. Let us hope that our University, the centre of all our culture and light, will bestow careful attention in future on the selection of text-books in English; so as to make them suitable to the standard, the capacity and the taste of our students.

P. K. ANANTANARAYANA IYER.

POETIC JUSTICE IN SHAKESPEAREAN TRAGEDY.

IT is not unoften that a keen and sensitive soul has felt despair almost bordering on the belief, that this world is an unweeded garden which grows to seed and things rank and gross in nature possess it merely, and that it is not and cannot come to any good, while it ponders on the cruelty, the meanness, the treachery and the thousand and one ills to which human flesh is heir. It is in such moments that the peaks of humanity a Shakespeare or a Descartes—a Sankara or Ramanuja—remind us that that humanity which has sufficed to raise itself from the level of the bushman and the savage, to their level must have the seeds of good and beneficence in it. It is because they give us this strong hope and faith in humanity's ultimate goal that we turn with reverent gratitude to their names and return to our prosaic and humble occupations of life with the proud consciousness that we are the inheritors, albeit unworthy, of their names. We do but honour ourselves in seeking to honour one of the greatest, if not the greatest, peaks of humanity.

It has been remarked by a critic that no man considers himself to have done his work as a critic of English literature, unless he has tried his hand at analysing Shakespeare. In so far as this criticism is aimed at those who profess to know Shakespeare's mind better than he has expressed it in his dramas and through his characters, it is a well-deserved one; but, at the same time, it is a standing testimony to the greatness and universality of Shakespeare's mind that it should appeal to almost every class of English-speaking humanity. My attempt will be to examine in a reverent spirit, and with the help of

Shakespeare's text, to find out if there is poetic justice in Shakespearean tragedy.

By Shakespearean tragedy I mean only his four great tragedies: Hamlet, Lear, Macbeth, and Othello.

Most readers of these tragedies—for, in this country, there has been no chance of our seeing any of these tragedies acted as they ought to be—must have felt the benumbing effect which these tragedies produce at first. Often must the reader have asked in bewilderment; in rebellion or in despair, the ever-recurring questions—Why should Ophelia, Desdemona and Cordelia die? Why should Hamlet, Lear and Othello die? Why should King Duncan and poor Macduff's wife and children die? Various answers have been attempted to be given to these perplexing questions and my attempt will be to justify the one possible answer to these questions, namely, that imperfect as this world is, still it is governed by a law, which, for want of a better word, I characterise, as moral, which is ruthless in its action, but,—and this is important, if you would understand Shakespeare aright—which never lets evil triumph even once and which never makes the good suffer for the good that is in them but for the evil and only for the evil which is inevitably and humanly mixed with the good in them, and which in the very process of making them suffer, makes them grow better. This is what I mean by poetic justice.

But one caution—I do not mean, when I say that there is poetic justice in Shakespearean tragedy, to talk in the tone of the cheap and shallow optimist, according to whom virtue always triumphs and vice always goes under, his triumph and going under being translatable for him only in the language of worldly wealth, position and power.

In that sense it is a psychological untruth and it is a blasphemy to attribute this to Shakespeare. To that shallow optimist, it would be in the fitness of things that Hamlet should marry Ophelia and settle down, execute King Claudius after a public trial, get reconciled to his repentant mother, make Laertes and Horatio, if possible, his bosom friends and counsellors and reign over the kingdom of Denmark for a long time. To him again, Lear should have been rescued by Cordelia who with her husband should reign over France and England, after having got rid of the cruel monsters Goneril and Regan, Cornwall and Edmund, and having rescued from misery and suffering; Kent and Edgar and perhaps also the fool; or the old king must be replaced on his throne of England.

To him again, Othello must have discovered Iago's treachery in time, found out Cassio's true worth and lived ever afterwards happily with Desdemona—producing—shall I say?—Italo-Moors or Moor-Italians. And to him lastly, King Duncan should have just escaped the stroke of Macbeth and after having rendered him up to justice, should have reigned till the succession passed after his natural death to Malcolm; or at least Macbeth should have been found out in time to prevent the later and what seemed in inconsequent murders.

My optimism is of a more robust type. As Professor Bradley says, "Whatever may be said of accidents, circumstances and the like, human action is after all presented to us as the central fact in tragedy and also as the main cause of the catastrophe.....The critical action is in greater or less degree wrong or bad. The catastrophe is, in the main, the return of this action on the head of the agent."

It is an example of justice; and that order which present alike within the agents and outside them infallibly brings it about, is therefore just. The rigour of its justice is terrible, no doubt, for a tragedy is a terrible story. But, in spite of fear and pity, we acquiesce, because our sense of justice is satisfied." To that extent therefore man suffers, not as the victim of an inscrutable and capricious fate. But I go further and maintain that what seems to us "suffering and agony" is only so because of a difference of values. It will be easily granted that there are different standards by which men judge of suffering and surely the sufferer's estimate is a by no means negligible one. And in the sequel, I hope to show that Shakespeare's characters who seem to suffer most, speak in a tone of triumph and joy which must rudely shake the croakings of the cynic and the misanthrope, who ever is a coward afraid of death, who exclaims when Hamlet, Othello or Lear dies, not in Kent's words nor in Horatio's words, nor in Othello's words, but in his own words, "there is no hope in this world, where evil triumphs and good is annihilated." I may then re-state my conclusion in these words: "I speak simply of good and evil. I understand by these words primarily moral good and evil, but also everything else in human beings, which we take to be excellent or the reverse; and I maintain that the ultimate power or order which governs this world is moral. It is moral in that it does not show itself indifferent to good and evil, or equally favourable or unfavourable to both, but shows itself akin to good and alien from evil. And by poetic justice, therefore, I mean this moral order reacts through the necessity of its own moral nature both against attacks made upon it, and against failure to conform to it."

I will now try and substantiate this statement by considering these four tragedies in turn. And first I take Macbeth, because it is the easiest from this point of view. King Duncan is introduced to us as a mild, just, and beloved king, but now too old to lead his army. He is incapable of distinguishing between man and man, for, he says "there is no art to find the mind's construction in the face," and Macbeth is easily able to impose on him, as to make him say "that more is his due than more than all can pay." And in a gush of confidence he unburthens his purpose of making Malcolm practically his successor. Thus King Duncan enters the castle of his peerless kinsman to return no more alive. I will not make the profane statement that he deserved his death. One cannot help feeling sympathy with the old and trustful king who was done most cruelly to death, by the hand of one whom he had but recently delighted to honour. But his death does not create in us any feeling of despair or of rebellion, for we know that his murderer and his wife met their well-deserved fate. And my thesis is not that evil mishaps do not occur in this world but that the doers of evil are sooner or later and more or less adequately punished. And in this tragedy this feeling is strengthened by the almost immediate and paralysing effect which the doing of the deed has upon the doer. Macbeth's pathetic statement that he could not say "Amen" when they did say "God bless us," and that he heard a voice cry "Sleep no more. Macbeth does murder sleep," while he was murdering Duncan, convinces us that evil breeds its own destruction and prepares us for the suffering which almost from this moment attends on Macbeth and his wife.

It is often sought to make out that Mac-

beth's was a noble nature which by the temptations of the witches and the promptings of his wife gradually degenerated, until it fell into a bottomless abyss. This theory errs in more than one respect. While it is certainly true that Macbeth, to begin with, was not so wicked as he later turned out to be, still it is untrue to imply that, but for extraneous influences, Macbeth would have remained what certainly he was, a general of extraordinary prowess who had covered himself with glory in putting down a rebellion and repelling the invasion of a foreign army. But it is a tragic fact in life that however good a man is, unless he has the positive goodness to resist evil, he will inevitably succumb. Most of us are passively good but how many of us are actively so, to be able to resist the temptation, which Macbeth had to resist, his yielding to which is the tragedy of his life? It has always seemed to me that the story of Viswamitra—that prince of Indian sages—who by his own exertions raised himself to such heights whereon he could command the unwilling admiration of his quondam superiors but now his peers, not the least of whom was Vasistha—yielding to the wiles of Menaka, is intended to enshrine the tragic but human truth that the power to resist temptation does not always accompany goodness in other respects. But in Macbeth there is worse than this. He has a pre-disposition to evil. And nowhere is Shakespeare's master-hand so evident as when he marks the different effects which the prophecies of the witches produce on Macbeth and Banquo. Macbeth soon after hearing the witches' prophecies says "This supernatural soliciting cannot be ill, cannot be good. If ill, why has it given me earnest of success commencing in a truth." To which the significant answer comes from Banquo,

"but it is strange and often times to win us to our harm, the instruments of darkness tell us truths, win us with honest trifles to betray in deepest consequence." There is no doubt that if Macbeth the Banquo had interchanged places, Banquo would never have acted as Macbeth did. And herein lies the tragedy.

It is also true that Macbeth never becomes wholly a monster of cruelty in spite of his undoubtedly cruel acts. If he did, he would cease to interest us, for he would become a mere type as in the morality plays. We hear searchings of the heart in him which, while they do not succeed in making him repentant, yet give a relief to his otherwise dark character. One cannot help feeling that there is more than mere conventional sorrow expressed in these lines of Macbeth's:

"Had I but died an hour before this chance
I had lived a blessed time; for from this instant,
There is nothing serious in mortality,
All is but toys; renown and grace is dead,
The wine of life is drawn and the mere lees
Is left this vault to brag."

And at least one of his later crimes is prompted by the maddening feeling that all this crime of his might have been in vain. There is no beauty in the sentiment of the criminal who says "I am a criminal, I know that, but let me have at least the fruits of the crime." But in Macbeth's statement there is a pathos, for, we feel that Macbeth practically confesses to us that he has committed the crime because and only because high stakes were at issue. And there is the lurking feeling in the lines, at least I feel it, that he would wish the crime undone.

"If it be so,
For Banquo's issue have I filed my mind
For them the gracious Duncan have I murdered;
Put rancours in the vessel of my peace
Only for them; and mine eternal jewel

Given to the common enemy of man,
To make them kings, the seed of Banquo's, kings;
Rather than so, come fate into the list
And champion me to the utterance!"

And on the last day of his life, when the death of his wife was communicated to him, he says

"Out, out, brief candle
Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,
And then is heard no more; it is a tale
Told by an idiot; full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing."

Thus both before and after his murder of Duncan, Macbeth shows an inward struggle which in another nature might have made it turn back on its path. Only it is not evident what Macbeth could have done with himself, even if he had repented.

But Macbeth's circumstances conspired against him. Here is one of the tragic facts of life, as Lewis Campbell says "In a less turbulent age, in a constitutional state where the crown was not synonymous with absolute power, if otherwise mated or if removed by birth from all expectation of the throne, such a nature might have passed through life, if not as a model of exalted virtue, yet with well-deserved distinction and untarnished name. But there is in him, unknown hitherto, even to himself, a lurking demon of ambition which once awakened, all the better counsels of his higher nature, all his knowledge of the world, his love of approbation, his milk of human kindness, his imaginative visions of the better life are powerless to control or to repress."

For his besetting sin is ambition and once the demon is awakened in him, he knows no rest,—so he thinks—until at last he strides from crime to crime, though his soul never ceases to bar his advance with shapes of terror or to clamour in his ears that he is murdering

his peace and casting away his eternal jewel. But he faces the world and his own conscience, desperate but never dreaming of acknowledging defeat. And here a quality which is ordinarily a virtue becomes his undoing—personal courage. But towards the end of his life his courage shines triumphant and almost blinds us to his crimes.

I have no doubt that, if Macbeth had died a peaceful death, he might have had time to feel remorse keenly, and win from us, some sympathy that he had after all seen the error of his ways. As it is, we only see him killed as he would like to be killed, fighting, but he never totally loses our sympathy. We never feel towards him as we do to those who appear as born children of darkness. We can never feel that evil was congenial to his soul. And the lesson is enforced on us that there were possibilities of good in Macbeth which were however repressed by him as well as by other agencies. Thus we feel a sense of satisfaction, not the vulgar one, that Macbeth deserved his fate—every sessions trial of murder may give that feeling—but the far higher and more æsthetic sense that Macbeth while he suffered was yet, while on the one hand degenerating, on the other was feeling the futility of crime. But he would not allow us to see the workings of the redeeming feeling in him, for was not his a proud and defiant nature?

A few words will suffice to dismiss Lady Macbeth. Lady Macbeth is usually painted as the very demon of cruelty but there is the other side to her character, as for example, her statement that she could not murder Duncan because he resembled her father. But I am not concerned with that question here. To me it is enough to point out that Lady Macbeth contributed her share to the

tragedy, but had not the strength to survive the effects of her own actions. It is a striking feature of this drama, that while in the earlier scenes Lady Macbeth is the more powerful, in the later scenes she is not so such as heard of. No doubt she is responsible for the actual murder of King Duncan in her castle. But she was only prompting a man whose hesitation was due not to any moral scruples so much, as to want of nerve to execute the deed. May it not be that there was some truth in Lady Macbeth's gibe to him "Wouldst thou live a coward in thine own esteem: letting, I dare not, wait upon I would." And whatever her sins may be, one feels that she suffered enough for it. And I confess to a sympathy, speaking you may call it, with Lady Macbeth's death. Thus it seems to me the tragedy of Macbeth illustrates my main thesis that evil never triumphs to the end.

Next I take the tragedy of *Othello*. I know it is a dangerous task to try and justify the death of Desdemona, the one inexplicable fact in the tragedy. For if Desdemona was done to death most unjustifiably and *Othello* knew it, nothing would become him better than the leaving of his life. I will however essay the task with the preliminary and important reservation that Desdemona's fate is certainly pitiable. But I am only concerned to make out that she did not die the absolutely helpless victim of a hateful and an overpowering fate. I maintain that there is a causal connection between her character and her fate, however disproportionate that may be.

When Desdemona met *Othello*, he was much older than she and belonged to another race. And the tie between them is a rather curious one. She falls in love not so much with *Othello* the man as with *Othello* the warrior. Let *Othello* speak "She loved me for the

dangers I had passed and I loved her that she did pity them." That may not be witchcraft but surely it is an uncommon foundation for love to exist on. And her love for Othello is so impetuous that she is prepared to leave Venice with him soon after the marriage. And in her reply to her father there is a tone of pride and defiance that shocks us. Surely an old father with an only child and his wife dead, deserved better treatment at her hands. And where Cordelia would have hastened to her father's aid and comfort, Desdemona, when offered the shelter of her father's home where she had lived till then, declines it most unceremoniously.

And surely there must be something strange in a nature which could fall in love with such a strange and alien nature as Othello's, for the mere tales of his heroism and valour. The moment that Desdemona leaves Venice with Othello, she seems to forget the existence of her bereaved father. The only reference that she makes of her father in the later scenes is a most cruel slander on him. She suspects her father of being responsible for the replacement of Othello by Cassio, and wantonly disowns him. And it seems to me but her due that even her superfluous renunciation of her father which may have been intended as a reminder of what she has given up for Othello's sake seems to have no effect on the already jealous Othello. And what a father! He was essentially just. He was shocked—but who would not be to see his daughter marry a Moor? Conceive the feelings of the English community in Madras, for example, in the twentieth century, if an English lady of the rank of Desdemona were to marry one of our Indian heroes in this war with his begrimed and black visage, because she falls in love with him for his tales of

valour. But Brabantio rises superior to any father ancient or modern under similar circumstances.

He says:

"Come hither Moor:

I here do give thee that with all my heart
Which but thou hast already, with all my heart
I would keep from thee—For your sake, jewel,
I am glad at soul I have no other child;
For thy escape would teach me tyranny,
To hang clogs on them."

The next reference we have of this kind old father is when Gratiano says "Poor Desdemona, I am glad thy father is dead. Thy match was mortal to him, and pure grief shore his old thread in twain."

When Desdemona could give up such a father without even thinking of him once in her death scene, we know that whatever the nature of her love for Othello may be, still her filial love had something very defective in it. Look on this picture and on that of Cordelia towards a far worse father. And in her relationship to her husband too, there is not that mutual confidence which one would ordinarily expect to find at least in a newly-married couple. No doubt we find Othello and Desdemona talking to each other fondly, but there is not that frankness and openness which one sees in true love. Othello was, as already remarked, much older than Desdemona and belonged to another race than hers. What wonder that on her side Desdemona felt unconsciously joy no doubt, but felt it all the same that here was an uncommon marriage! And on Othello's side, long before jealousy took hold of him, he had a feeling that he was more happy than he deserved to be.

In the later scenes one often feels that if Desdemona had taken her courage in both her hands and challenged Othello, all might

have been different. As it is, she helplessly drifts on in the face of circumstances against which she ought to have asserted herself, and thus brings about the catastrophe in which she involves herself and her husband. It is often forgotten that Desdemona by a timely action which almost any other of Shakespeare's heroines would have taken, could have saved herself and Othello also. She knows or ought to know Othello's jealous nature, and yet she presses Cassio's suit in the most inopportune moments with the most disastrous results. And is it merely an accident, that at the psychological moment when Othello just before her murder tells her that Cassio is dead, she says "Alas, he is betrayed and I undone"?

Surely this is lack of perception, and combined with her other qualities mentioned above makes us feel, that her death was not altogether a bolt from the blue on her. In saying this I do not seek to minimise the sympathy which all well-regulated natures should feel towards Desdemona and her fate. But it seems to me that her death was the sacrifice from which both herself and Othello, rose the higher and the purer.

With Othello I need not concern myself very much. He is a hero and a gentleman, a warrior and a poet. And he seeks to do his duty by the State. He is frank and open but unfortunately credulous, and here was his tragedy. He had one more quality which made him a tragic figure. It is pointless to ask whether he was jealous by race and temperament, but it is sufficient for our purposes to know that he had a feeling about Desdemona which bordered on some suspicion that his happiness was too good to be true. And Iago, the cleverest of Shakespeare's villains, plays upon his feelings so dexterously,

Cassio comes in so handy for the effectuation of Iago's purposes, Desdemona is so foolish and passive as not to do anything effective to prevent the catastrophe, that one feels its inevitability almost from the beginning of the plot. But Othello never, except when he loses his temper, falls below his ideal of nobility. His murder of Desdemona was to be a sacrifice, and he would have died gladly with Desdemona even if circumstances had not conspired to make him do so. He had garnered up his treasure in Desdemona's love and it was gall and wormwood to him to find disappointment there. But there is nothing profane in his love or jealousy. When he later on finds out that he has been grossly deceived by Iago he does not whine or whimper, but simply wants to know why Iago practised this deception on him. For, I say this with hesitancy but I feel, that Othello had no idea of surviving Desdemona. And his death he looks upon as a blessing. He is proud enough to say "For nought did I in hate but all in honour." And of Cassio he asks pardon. And his last soliloquy is a magnificent utterance, not of one who has been triumphed over but has himself triumphed over enemies.

There remains for brief consideration Iago. He gets what he deserves and deserves what he gets. I wish to express only one caution against a prevalent conception. He is *not* regarded by every one who knows him as honest Iago. At least Montano and Lodovico speak as if they knew him for long to be a villain. No doubt Iago is exceptionally lucky. But Othello is gullible and jealous, Cassio a drunkard, Desdemona weak and passive, and Emilia certainly a fool. And if the world had produced Iago at that time it had also produced Emilia and Cassio, Desdemona and Othello.

I now pass on to consider the tragedy of Lear. Evil characters there are so numerous and their fates are so well deserved, that I need not dilate on Goneril and Regan, Edmund and Cornwall and Oswald who are such monsters of evil that it would be terrible if they were allowed to prosper. But they do not prosper; on the other hand they are allowed to destroy themselves and each other. If for the period during which they were in power they were able to inflict suffering on others, we are made to see that others were mostly made the better and the purer for the suffering.

Cordelia's fate shocks us, but should it? Here again I do not say that her death is deserved or anything like it; but I do say that there are elements of imperfection in her character which, in a world like hers where it comes into collision, with worse and coarser natures, is unequal to bear the strain imposed on it. Thus where under ordinary circumstances Cordelia would have been a loveable and a loved being with father and sisters like hers, she contributes to the tragedy quite as much as any other. She must have known her father's weakness and she must have humoured an old man in his innocent and harmless fancy. But she puts him to shame by the heartlessness of her answers. And to her father's anxious questions she answers, "Nothing, my Lord." Pressed further she simply says "Unhappy that I am. I cannot heave my heart into my mouth. I love your Majesty according to my bond, no more or less." If we do not import into this scene our knowledge of Goneril and Regan gleaned from later scenes, we see that while they have to a certain extent overstated their passion, there is nothing very unseemly in their having protested their love to their father in the way

they did. And Cordelia might have followed her sisters' example without doing much violence to her sentiments. To Lear's heart-rending question "So young and so untender," she returns the almost frivolous answer "So young my Lord and so true." Prof. Bradley commenting on this passage says "that this is heavenly truth," and blames Cordelia on another ground. But I question even this. Is it true? Does it follow that because a daughter marries, her love for her father must undergo a consequent diminution? Rather is it not true that love grows by what it feeds on and the more Cordelia loved her husband the more could she have loved her father? Compare her love for her father in later scenes.

Again is Cordelia incapable of expressing her feelings in language which, according to her hypercritical test in the first scene, must be considered extravagant? In Act IV, Scene VII, Cordelia addresses Kent thus "O thou good Kent. How shall I live and work to match thy goodness? My life will be too short and every measure fail me." Indeed the Cordelia of the later scenes is not the unconscious prig which we see in her in the earlier scenes. She has gone through suffering on her father's account and knows now the force of love. And in her treatment of her father at the end we see a heavenly change in her. No doubt Cordelia's death is one of those accidents which happen in life. And one certainly regrets the accident. But her death is a comparatively little matter. Her tragic roll is fulfilled. She has come before us as the angel ministering comfort to her father and I do not think it will be consistent with our experience of life that Cordelia should have survived Lear. And her death does not create in us any feeling of des-

pair; but rather the feeling that upon such sacrifices as hers, the gods themselves throw incense.

To the average spectator King Lear is more sinned against than sinning; but it is his childish whim which is practically the cause of some at least of the tragedy. It was a political mistake that he should have divided his kingdom. It was worse that he should have thrown himself so unreservedly on the mercy of his daughters, especially as he ought to have known, but for a criminal denseness, that his two eldest daughters were not paragons of virtue. And in his impetuous renunciation of Cordelia and peremptory banishment of Kent he shows signs of dotage, which indeed are noted by Goneril and Regan and tend to make his tyrannous instincts pathetic.

I am not prepared to grant that Goneril and Regan were in the initial stages absolutely responsible for Lear's suffering. His nature is such that even with far gentler beings, he must have rubbed them on their wrong sides. But here again it is true that Lear suffers much more than he may be said to deserve. But in his suffering there is an element of relief. As and when he suffers he develops a keen sympathy with the poor and the wretched and the Lear whom I love is the one who utters the famous passage which begins "Poor naked souls, wheresoever you are." And Lear and his friends look upon his death with joy. He says "you do me wrong to take me out of the grave." And Kent who perhaps knows him better than any body else says "He hates him that would upon the rack of this tough world stretch him out longer." And Lear himself dies in the consciousness, albeit wrong, that *Cordelia lives*.

Hamlet is perhaps the most popular of Shakespeare's tragedies. The more or less

evil characters, Claudius, Gertrude and Polonius, Rosencrantz and Guildenstern meet their appointed fate in one way or the other. But the tragedy of the play consists in this, that Hamlet, Ophelia and Laertes meet their fates too. Of Hamlet I will say this that he dies, not vanquished but triumphant. There is no worse calumny than to say that Hamlet was too irresolute to do what he wanted to do. He was a man of resolute action. Witness his killing of Polonius, his duel with Laertes, his challenging him in Ophelia's grave, his substituting his doom as that of Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, his escaping to Denmark, his final killing of the King, his preventing Horatio from dying. Hamlet himself feels in his dying scene that his purpose was achieved. And almost in his last speech he asks Horatio to live behind him so that he may tell his story. And Hamlet at least believes that when his story is told it will be found that he has not left behind him a wounded name. If in achieving his purpose, Hamlet also dies what is the wonder that to suppress evil, even the sacrifice of one's life is not unoften necessary!

Of Ophelia it is not easy to speak. For when she appears on the scene she is so gentle that it is hard to say that she too was responsible for the tragedy. But that is the truth. She has no word to say in protest to Laertes when he asks her not to set much store by Hamlet's love for her. She obeys her father and renounces Hamlet almost without a murmur. Worse, she falls easily and without protest into a plot to unmask her lover. And in that scene she almost begins with a harsh remark that she wants to return his presents to him. And she lies in the course of the scene that her father is at home, when she knows that he is watching them from behind

the scenes. And in the soliloquy she utters almost at the end of the scene, there is not that outburst of passion which ought to characterise any woman with spirit. And in the play scene when they meet again she seems to have almost forgotten the closet scene. And she turns mad and drowns herself accidentally after her father's death. She never feels the tragedy around her. She is too passive to resist it, even if she feels it. And the one serious thing which she did really know unsettled her weak brain. Thus while her death evokes in us sympathy, she is not a character of tragic proportions and probably our sympathy is largely coloured by the regret which we feel with Gertrude that Ophelia might perhaps have saved Hamlet.

This rapid and, in many respects, incomplete study of Shakespearean tragedy is offered as a point of view from which we may look at them. I have tried to be true to Shakespeare himself. If my theories have startled any of you, I can only ask you to go back to Shakespeare himself or to plead in cases where I may be wrong, my inadequate understanding of Shakespeare. As I said in an earlier part of the paper, I do not want that I should be understood as pointing to any cheap and superficial optimism in Shakespearean tragedy. For it does not exist. But I do say that the world of Shakespearean tragedy is not chaos but a moral order; not indeed in the sense in which a robust optimist, like Robert Browning, says of this world "All's well with the world; God's in his heaven," but rather in the chastened and humble sense of Lord Tennyson who says "We can but trust that somehow good will be the goal of ill, and every winter change to spring."

S. SATYAMURTI.

THE NEW SCHOOL FINAL.

THIS is only a utopian scheme reader; do not startle. It is no *make* of the Madras Educational authorities, no *moderation* of the vexations to the teacher and the taught. It is a suggestion of a labourer in the educational field, whose mind may entertain schemes for his emancipation, but whose voice however will be nothing in the making of himself or the children entrusted to his care. Still I venture to come out with the *scheme*, that it might interest readers of my profession, might make them feel alike on educational matters, and thus unite them more closely for resisting the inroads of lay people into their province.

They have shown a marked indifference in directing education in this Presidency. To me it seems to be due not to any want of sympathy on their part for child suffering but entirely to their ignorance of the mode of relieving it. A state of desperation has been reached, and like dabblers, they have made the tangle worse by their manipulations of it, and would still experiment upon it and tear it to pieces. Professional opinion they do not seek; and if they appear to seek it, off and on, they do not value and give effect to it with a due amount of sincerity. The University find the students of the Intermediate classes quite ill-equipped for their work, and accuse Principals of Colleges of misusing their powers, and making bad another hand point to the increased strain put upon the faculties of boys of 15 in the school, and quite pardonably question the motive of into the Colleges. A School Final Board was created. They denounced the Matriculation as a great strain and curse upon the country; but undertaking to lighten their burden, they have brought forth a child more perverse and

inflexible than the one they killed. The strain upon the student has been increased, but the breach between the College and the school has only been widened further. The School Final student works much harder than before, learns certain subjects in an advanced fashion, and all others in an elementary manner, devotes his entire attention in English only to composition and literature, but does not cram grammar or *general English*. Howbeit, this prodigy of the new *make* is usually found unfit for the College. If admitted into it by the *favour* or indiscretion of some Principal he is sure to be thrown out at the end of a two years' course. Is the pass course of today more difficult than the old B.A. or the Honours than the M.A.? Why then such rigour?

Of all reasons suggested for the enormous failures in the Intermediate the most potent seems to be the defective training of the School Final student. The scheme is over-ambitious in its grasp. It is too exacting to promote self-help. It fritters away energy without securing efficiency and thoroughness of work. Further it is in a sense immoral as it elevates certain subjects to the rank of compulsory ones, but degrades them, in practice, to the level of the B subjects such as they are. Any one fairly well acquainted with the working of schools, now-a-days, will readily perceive that the defect must be in the scheme, but not in the teachers and pupils responsible for its fulfilment.

To assimilate knowledge, as to digest food, requires lapse of time between one course and another. To present pictures before the mind's eye in rapid succession is not to impart knowledge, but it is to kill all previous concepts and leave the mind a confused muddle. This is exactly the condition of

many an average student in the Intermediate class. He lacks self-help, and lacks the leading-strings of his Secondary teacher. He feels adrift and desolate like a city after a bombardment. Leisure of a well ordered kind is absolutely necessary in education as well as in agriculture; and for want of it the student will become poor of mind and poor of body. The experimental method of study which is now more commonly adopted in the schools is slow and taxing the mind. A great deal of patience is required for it. It will not serve therefore to have too many irons in the fire. The beautiful tints of the spectrum when presented deliberately and well before the eye produce a very pleasing effect; but, when rotated in a disc rapidly, will only serve to dazzle and stupefy the mind. Is this not true of the A, B & C subjects of the present School-Final Scheme?

Before advancing my own suggestions to improve the scheme I beg leave to make my views clear as regards the B subjects and Elementary Mathematics in the present curriculum. I must say that most of them are out of place in the VI Form while a few others are taught there only redundantly. For instance, a student takes up English History, and studies, in a most rational and advanced manner, the whole of the outlines of it and a special period or periods for minute study. He is expected to become acquainted with the source-books, should read at least a few of the historical novels of standard authors, and cultivate a *taste* for research work in history. But it is laid down also that in the VI Form, he should be further saddled with Indian History, Geography, Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science, and a host of other subjects. Again another student takes up Mathematics

and Advanced Physics, but in the VI Form he is thought to need also Elementary Mathematics and Elementary Science, and thus a grounding (grinding?) is given him in these and many other subjects, while he is hard pressed for time and energy. This is irrational as an advanced study can be taken up only after the preliminary training is over.

In my opinion the place for Elementary Mathematics and the subjects of the B group would be the IV and V Forms and not the VI Form. No bifurcation of studies should be introduced into those two Forms. The pupils should not be taught to prefer some and despise other subjects of their studies, while all of them are calculated to complete Secondary education and befit them for life. With a real regard for Indian History and allied subjects and with no special subjects, to engross their attention, the pupils should certainly learn more of these in the IV and V Forms than they are now doing in all the three Forms put together.

As for the special subjects a knowledge of them has become necessary to qualify students for admission to the College. They should be taken up therefore in the VI Form; but then, the pupils should not have the B subjects also to mind. They should have only English, two optionals, and perhaps vernacular composition. It need not be feared that, if this plan were adopted, the course will become incomplete and the present syllabuses cannot be followed. I will point out that by the abandonment of a number of subjects, nearly twice as much time will be gained for the C subjects alone as the pupils have now. Experimental study will only then be possible and cram avoided. It would form a good finish to Secondary education, and a sincere beginning for the College.

N. VENKATACHARI.

THE BLIND PILGRIM.

ONE afternoon I met a man,
Past prime of life he seemed
Whose face with brightness all so strange,
Of furrowed wrinkles, beamed.

His looks declared how old he was,
But the observing eye
Could howe'er easily find the truth
That cleverly did they lie.

There on the platform stood he alone.
He waited for the train,
For he was on a journey bound,
As I did ascertain.

I felt that something in his face
Did draw my soul to him:
And where he stood I passed him by
The lonely man and slim.

A figure tall, with forehead broad,
Eyes small and deeply set,
A strip of cloth about the loins:
So was the man I met.

But soon I passed into the crowd
That noisily knocked about;
From far I looked behind and saw
Him 'lone and lost in doubt!

Once in the train, I was with him;
And anxious more to find
Who he might be, I stepped to him
And saw—a beggar blind!

I asked him how he went alone,
Had he no mate, no wife?
Where did he go—and did he go
Thus lonely all through life?

My queries moved the man to smile;
He spoke: "The world is wide
And kind are men. God is my friend,
Of helpless folk the Guide!

Blind born, I early lost my Ma,
My father later went,
The only sister that I had
She too was shortly sent,

HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

A KNOWLEDGE of the means to maintain bodily health must be added to the subjects taught in Elementary Schools, as part of the necessary equipment for the battle of life. This conviction has been gradually gaining ground in a few places, though at present the Education Department still holds the subject as optional.

Children are taught in all schools the importance of fresh air, pure water, proper clothing, and personal cleanliness, and the advantages of work, rest and play to both body and brain. But it is scarcely too much to assume that dirt and disease will be considerably scarcer than they are now. We may reasonably expect a diminution of sickness and sorrow in the face of hygiene taught in the manner—how to make homes healthy and happy; how to conduct cleansing operations properly in them; how to ventilate them and how to take care of babies—throughout the whole educational system. It is education on these lines that will save people from some of the attendant ills of poverty—ignorance, apathy and prejudice. Instead of coming upon the subject in later years with all its avenues unknown and all its possibilities un-dreamt-of, children so instructed will be endowed with a fair knowledge of what is requisite for the maintenance of health, and also some capacity for the conduct of its preservation. This desirability of imparting instruction in sanitary matters is important as it would lead the poorer classes of society to estimate cleanliness, decency, and propriety at their true value, and to apply their instincts of self-preservation to the prevention of disease. Charles Kingsley was among the pioneers who said that 'sanitary teaching

I know no home, no single clime,
On pilgrimage I move,
The passerby—he gives me rice,
The gracious One, His love."

As thus he spoke a silent tear
And hot coursed from the eyes;
But then he saw it not nor hear
Could he the surging sighs!

The shades of darkness fell in fast
Around the country side,
As mile on mile we hurried through
And serpent-like did glide.

The glorious sun adown his course
O'er hill and dale did blush;
And even on the pilgrim blind
In loving warmth would rush.

Across the fields the zephyrs blew.
They gently kissed his face.
They soothed him for I saw him smile
With brightest heavenly grace.

There was no more the thoughtful look
That did a conflict mark
And facing me again he spoke
"Child! Is it now quite dark?"

I answered 'No'—whereon he sang
A song of melody sweet
With folded hands, in praise of Him,
In language choice and meet.

The russet sun still smiled on him
With splendour most divine.
I too with him in prayer knelt
And so did long remain.

I now recall not how or when
I crossed my hands to pray;
But when I woke my eyes were wet
And over was the day.

S. SRINIVASAN.

would be a necessary element in the school course by the side of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The two difficulties in the path are, the fear of adding to the existing burden of teachers—to say nothing of fresh mystification arising from an addition to the multiplicity of matters to be tackled by the scholars, and the fear of overstraining the capacities of pupils! The first is met by the opinion of Sanitarians that lessons of half-an-hour's duration once or twice a week would have a recreative character. The second difficulty, again, is removed in the certainty that the practical nature of the particular kind of instruction places it in the category of a recreation.

Home is the axis around which life revolves. Light, air, space, surroundings, cleanliness and aspect should be considered in reference to it; and the danger of dirt, the importance and values of foods, the care of the person, with preservation of personal health as well as of that of the community enter into it. Each successive standard or class would admit of a development of the subject till everything is included that goes to make a home healthy and happy. How to keep sinks clean, the dangers arising from ill-constructed drains, bad ventilation, overcrowding, &c.; the risks incurred by eating unwholesome food, would be thoroughly explained till the understanding was reached. When this kind of elementary teaching is adopted all over the land, we may hope, in the course of years, for a considerable difference in the returns of the Sanitary Commissioner.

E. R. SANKARA AIYAR.

PRESS NOTE.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

No. 2534: *Bombay Castle*; 28th August 1915.

In January, 1914, the announcement was made public that the Governor in Council had gratefully accepted the offer made by Sir Muhammad Yusuf Ismail, Kt., of a donation of Rs. 8,00,000 for the promotion of the higher education of Muhammadan youths, and that the question of the best means of utilizing this fund would receive early attention. Since then this question has been subjected to careful consideration; and His Excellency in Council is now in a position to indicate the broad conclusions to which he has been led.

2. In making his offer the donor, while leaving to His Excellency the Governor full discretion as to the particular objects to which his donation should be devoted, indicated a preference for the foundation of a Muhammadan College affiliated to the Bombay University. In deference to this wish, which was known to have the support of a considerable body of Muhammadan opinion, this proposal was given priority of consideration and has been carefully and sympathetically examined. The Governor in Council is unable to avoid the conclusion, however, that for the present it is not possible to proceed further with the idea of utilizing the donation for the immediate establishment of a college. Apart from the difficulty in regard to the question of funds—for it is evident that the amount in hand would suffice to cover a fraction only of the total cost of building and endowing such an institution—he is not satisfied that at this stage a separate college for Muhammadans constitutes the most urgent

and insistent need in connexion with the advancement of the higher educational interests of the Muhammadan community. For the systematic and orderly development of Muhammadan education it is, in his opinion, essential that, in the first instance, attention should be more especially concentrated on the secondary, as distinguished from the collegiate, branch of instruction, so that any further developments which may in course of time be found possible of realization may have a broad and substantial basis to rest upon. At present the number of Muhammadan students attending Arts colleges in this Presidency is comparatively small, and that number is dispersed over several institutions situated at distant centres. The reason for this paucity of Muhammadan students is to be found primarily in the relatively scanty attendance of Muhammadan boys in the secondary schools of the Presidency. It appears, therefore, that the first step which should be taken is the enlargement of the field of Muhammadan education in the secondary schools, and this, it is considered, can best be effected by the provision of special schools for Muhammadans which will more especially devote themselves to the preparation of boys for a University career. Proposals are already being formulated for the establishment in Poona of a special school for the secondary education of Muhammadan boys. But there is ample room for another institution having a similar object in view, though not necessarily proceeding on the same lines. When these and perhaps other institutions of the same kind have been established and are in working order, there will, it is hoped, ensue a steady flow of Muhammadan students from the schools to the University, and the time will then have come for the serious consideration

of the question of the foundation of a Muhammadan college.

3. The scheme which the Governor in Council accordingly now has in view provides for the establishment of a school for Muhammadans teaching the full high school course. It will be exclusively a boarding school, designed and equipped in accordance with modern educational and hygienic ideas. Its location will be fixed in some convenient and healthy spot in Salsette, and there will be ample provision for the accommodation and recreation of the boys. At the head of the staff will be a specially selected headmaster experienced in the administration of high grade boarding schools in England. The school will, as desired by the donor, be a Government institution, controlled by the Education Department; but associated with its administration will be an Advisory Board on which the family of the donor and the several sections of the Muhammadan community will have adequate representation. The presence of this consultative body, whose function it will be to keep in close touch with the work and needs of the school, will ensure that the views and wishes of the Muhammadan community receive due consideration in the management and the development of the institution.

4. The Governor in Council, while he believes that the reasons for its departure from the original proposal will be accepted, is conscious of the fact that the scheme thus outlined does not entirely fulfil the wishes to which the donor gave expression on the occasion of making his offer; and he therefore recognizes the obligation, in so far as circumstances later on may come to justify this, to do all that is possible to ensure that the object which the donor had more im-

mediately in view shall ultimately be secured. In these circumstances he desires to give the assurance that, as soon as the development of the proposed school reaches a stage which indicates the existence of an effective demand for a Muhammadan college, he will be prepared to give direct assistance towards the promotion of a scheme for the establishment of such an institution, probably in close association with the school. He is at the same time in a position to announce that the Government of India, while they are unable to say with any certainty when and to what extent funds will be available in future for educational grants, will be prepared, should it be found possible hereafter to devote money to this object, to consider sympathetically a grant for the college as having an early claim upon any grants that may be made for education, provided that the scheme eventually worked out commends itself to them. A scheme for the foundation of a Muhammadan college may be regarded as the logical outcome of the project now actually in contemplation, since it would make provision for the extension into the higher branch of education of those special arrangements for the instruction of Muhammadans which are already in operation so far as the primary stage of education is concerned, and the advance of which into the secondary stage will now be brought about.

5. With this statement of the considerations which have influenced him in dealing with this matter, His Excellency in Council trusts that the members of the Muhammadan community will recognize that the decision now announced offers the best solution of the question how to utilize to the greatest immediate advantage the funds which Sir Muhammad Yusuf Ismail's munificence has

made available for the furtherance of Muhammadan education in the Bombay Presidency, while at same time ensuring the ultimate fruition of the object which the donor himself and a considerable section of the community have specially at heart,

REPORT ON THE UNITED PROVINCES SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION, 1915.

The written examination was held from April 6th to April 13th at 38 centres (including one at Fatehgarh, which was made a separate centre this year under special circumstances).

The oral examinations in English and the practical examinations in Science, Commerce, Manual Training, Further Mathematics, and Agriculture with Surveying were held on different dates between January 1st and March 31st *in situ* at the various schools. The number of candidates admitted to the examination was 1,971 from 61 schools. The candidates who actually appeared in the whole or part of the examination numbered 1,916, and were thus distributed according to the optional subjects taken:—

Sanskrit	...	...	...	...	360
Persian	...	...	...	...	567
Arabic	...	...	...	...	21
Commerce	...	...	...	...	132
Science	...	...	...	...	598
Further Mathematics	...	...	...	...	16
Agriculture with Surveying	...	...	...	...	13
Drawing	...	...	...	...	183
Manual Training	...	...	...	...	26
One thousand one hundred and forty-nine offered Urdu as their vernacular, seven hundred and fifty-eight offered Hindi, and four offered Bengali.					

Five candidates, who had obtained certi-

ificates last year, appeared in further optional subjects only.

The results of the examination may be thus summarized:—

Forty-nine passed in division I.

Nine hundred and sixteen passed in division II.

Four passed in further optional subjects only.

Two hundred and fifty candidates gained distinctions in one or more subjects.

Nine hundred and forty-seven failed.

Extracts from the reports of the Examiners are printed for general information and for the special consideration of School Managers, Head Masters, and class teachers.

Extracts from the Examiners' reports on the School-Leaving Certificate Examination, 1915.

FROM THE REPORT ON ENGLISH.

The most important feature of this examination is the *in situ* inspection by oral examiners. That the majority of schools benefit greatly from these reports, there can be no question. I wish I could say that this is true of all. But there are some schools whose teachers clearly do not study either the oral examiners' or the general report on the examination, or apply what is pointed out in these year after year. As a consequence of this difference in the attitude of teachers towards the work, the difference between school and school is more marked than the difference between individual pupils. Thus a school A passes only 30 per cent. of its candidates; a school B, examined by the same oral examiner, passes 80 per cent. In some cases the downfall of a school is due to laxity in

promotion. In one case, an extreme one, only 4 candidates pass out of 21. The examiner's comment is: "I consider that the real reason for this year's disaster is the wholesale admission of the obviously unfit." On the other hand the majority of schools are doing satisfactory work. Thus, of the 61 schools examined, only 15 have failed to pass 50 per cent. of their candidates, and 13 have reached the high level of passing over 75 per cent. Amongst the latter, it is a pleasure to note, are schools which in previous years did badly.

Another special feature of the examination is that Head Masters are asked to record their opinion regarding the fitness or otherwise of each candidate. It is gratifying to find amongst Head Masters a desire to co-operate loyally with the examiners. There are however some who do not seem to understand why they are asked to make recommendations. For their benefit it is necessary to explain that the fundamental principle of the School Leaving Certificate Examination is that the verdict of the teacher, familiar as he is with the work of each pupil, should be accorded a real and substantial influence in the decision between "pass" and "fail." As a first step in the application of this principle, he is asked to say whether in his opinion the candidate deserves to pass in English. As I have indicated, many Head Masters give a clear and decided opinion, which has been confirmed by the oral and written examinations. Some however leave an ominous blank opposite the names of particular candidates; some again base their recommendations on moral grounds and characterize the candidate as "plodding," "diligent," or "well-behaved" as if these excellent qualities were the equivalents of a

knowledge of English; others make remarks which are wholly irrelevant, as for example "burdened with family cares," "advanced in age," or "failed last year."

In practically all the schools the teachers' diaries and mark registers are well kept. As regards the former, it is suggested that there should be a separate diary for each branch of the subject, as it is difficult to follow the progress in one particular subject, when the same diary is used for all. Head Masters do not make sufficient use of the diaries as a means of making suggestions to teachers; as a rule their "remarks" are confined to initials.

The examiners' verdict on note-books is on the whole favourable; but there is a tendency in some schools to be less careful in this respect than formerly. In a few schools the standard of neatness and legibility is very low. Carelessness in the formation of letters is frequent; thus "p" and "b," "n" and "u," "o" and "a" are often indistinguishable, while there is a common fault, peculiar to Indian boys, of writing a final "k" as a capital.

Turning to the examination, I find that the most encouraging feature this year is the marked improvement in dictation. "I am convinced," says one examiner, "that the great improvement in nearly all the schools I examined is due to the constant practice the boys get." In most schools there are weak candidates, but the disgraceful exhibitions of a few years ago are much rarer than they were. Failures in Dictation are due mainly to two reasons. In the first place the candidates concentrate attention in the sound and miss the sense. To quote from a report: The first sentence said, 'The boats of the Spaniards were manned and armed,'

and the second began, 'They rowed towards the shore.' Quite a number of boys wrote 'rode.' This was due to want of thought not to ignorance of the difference between 'rowed' and 'rode.' Again, the last sentence was, 'which they had so long desired to see.' In reading, the sounding of the letter 'd' at the end of 'desired' must be almost imperceptible, as it is followed by another dental; but there is no excuse for omitting the 'd,' as some did, because obviously the auxiliary 'had' requires a past participle." The second reason for loss of marks in Dictation is bad punctuation. Here again failure was frequently due to want of thought. When the examiner is dictating phrase by phrase, he naturally pauses in many places where there is no need for a comma, but many candidates put commas at these places without regard to the sense.

As regards reading there is certainly an improvement; but there are very few boys who read English fluently and naturally. In most cases the expression is affected, mechanical, or monotonous. As in Dictation, the secret of success is to think of the sense. As one examiner remarks, nothing elaborate in the way of expression is required. Only slight modulations of the voice are necessary in order to convey clearly to the listener the meaning and force of the passage that is being read. For any considerable improvement in reading we must look to systematic training in the lower classes, where, it may be noted, the value of restrained recitation as a means of cultivating distinct articulation has not yet met with the recognition which it deserves.

To systematic oral work in the junior classes we must look also for an improvement in conversation, the weakest feature of the

examination. The opinion of examiners is that, although conversation is generally fluent, it is spoilt by ignorance or disregard of English idiom and of the rules of grammar. It is too frequently a jumble of words and phrases, without any regard to grammatical accuracy. Another failing in conversation is that candidates wander from the point. "Supposing," says one examiner, "the candidate be asked to explain why some character in the passage acted in a particular way, he will probably attempt to give the gentleman's life history or a summary of the book." This irrelevancy is perhaps due to nervousness in some cases; but I fear it is not always artless. As one examiner remarks, "Candidates find it difficult to give short answers, and tend to ramble on with matter not really connected with the question. This may have been meant for bluff; if so, it would be wise for the Head Master to tell the boys that men with experience in the ways of boys are appointed as examiners, and that, when ignorance tries to bluff against experience, ignorance always loses."

As regards pronunciation, it cannot be said that there is much change for the better. There is a striking variation between school and school, but the standard is not high: "s" for "sh," as "saking" for "shaking," and vice versa; "sh" for "s" as "shailor" for "sailor"; "wasched" for "watched"; "heels" for "hills"; "selling" for "ceiling," and so on, are common. To improve pronunciation we must remember the proverb "Well begun is half done," and, as in reading, look for improvement to systematic and careful training in the junior classes. The teachers, it is to be feared, set a bad example, but those who are conscious of their defects may

accomplish much by the simple expedient of taking pains.

No language course can dispense with the intensive study of good prose. Examiners were asked specially to enquire this year regarding the thoroughness with which "text" is taught in the schools. The impression I gather from the reports is that, although a sufficient amount of text is taught in most schools, it is not studied by pupils with sufficient care. Most Head Masters seem to realize the importance of the study of text, and, where the discipline is exceptionally good, pupils are made to take it seriously, but in many schools the study is perfunctory. In three out of the six schools which I personally examined, pupils failed to answer straightforward questions on the meanings of words and phrases taken from their text. Thus there is a danger that one system of examination tends to encourage "learning without tears." The same danger is being realised, it is comforting to note, even in Scotland, which has probably the most efficient of all School Leaving Certificate systems. Sir J. Struthers in his report for 1914 says, "More rapid progress on the oral side, greater interest in the living language, a rejection of all useless grammatical lumber, are too dearly bought, if the price paid be the loss of habits of clear thought and hard work the acquisition of which is, after all, the main end of teaching in every subject alike." A remedy that will ensure this acquisition without infringing on the freedom of Head Masters is difficult to find, but we are feeling our way in this examination and experiment and adjustment are inevitable in the early stages.

Reports indicate that schools understand more clearly that hitherto what is meant by

"rabid reading," but there are many schools in which the amount attempted is inadequate. Thus one examiner writes: "The amount was by no means adequate for rapid reading, and I think it is time that further efforts were made to induce the schools to direct more energy to compelling the students to read *books* and not merely a few pages from an additional text book."

It seems therefore necessary to repeat what was said in last year's report that, in addition to the text, pupils should read at least one complete book each session; this book should be easier than the text, it should be interesting, and chosen mainly with the view of inculcating a liking and cultivating a taste for healthy reading. As regards method of treatment, the chief function of the teacher should be to pilot the pupil through confusing detail and to draw his attention to special features of the story.

Coming to the written papers, we find that here also the difference between school and school was more marked than the difference between individual pupils. In some schools all the written work, grammar, unseen, translation, and composition, reached a high standard, and teachers had evidently taken great care to eliminate mistakes and to secure neat and thorough work. In other schools teachers had evidently been content with "second best."

The first "unseen" gave candidates an opportunity of showing whether they could collect the chief points in a story, and draw easy inferences. Many were unable to do this, and rejected altogether the instruction "in your own words." Instead of confining themselves to the passage, they made romances of their own on the story of Columbus. The answering on the second "unseen" was on

the whole better, though many do not understand the need of accuracy when they explain phrases.

As regards parsing and analysis, in some schools both are neglected, and teachers do not realise the need for insisting on accuracy in expressing "relation," whether it be of a word to other words in a sentence in parsing, or in analysis of a clause to other clauses in the sentence. "N to A" is not a satisfactory rendering of "noun clause, being object to the verb 'asked' in 'A.'" And few paid any attention to the connecting words which presented the real difficulty in the sentence, and should have been noted.

I would like to see a greater application of the rules of grammar. Many boys showed much more knowledge of rules than the examiner can boast, and were able to quote rival grammarians; but, when it came to applying these rules, it was clear that they had much to learn in this direction. There is a considerable improvement in spelling of grammatical terms and on the whole an advance in grammar, save in a few schools where the general standard is exceedingly low.

In the composition paper the translation was done much better than the "free" composition. In the former the knowledge of English words was satisfactory, and their use in impossible combinations was less noticeable than in previous years. Candidates were as a rule free in their renderings of vernacular idioms, but those who attempted to use indirect narration in the first passage nearly all came to grief on the sequence of tenses.

The passage for punctuation was moderately well done, but there was a fairly general ignorance of the use of quotation marks. As pointed out above, the comma is overworked in dictation. In translation and composition

the semicolon is ignored. There is clearly a need of systematic teaching of the principles of punctuation and their application to *all* the written work of pupils.

The "free" composition was disappointing. The majority of candidates seemed to have dashed at the essay without any preliminary arrangement of their ideas; consequently the essays were rambling and incoherent. There was little attempt at paragraphing, and much less care than in translation in construction and in the choice of suitable words and phrases. In some schools, however, the standard has risen considerably. The "account of the imaginary adventures of a rupee" was attempted by a small proportion of candidates, but yielded the best essays. I suggest that more essays of this type be given in the schools; for boys delight in the full play of imagination. The best set of essays which I encountered in my oral examinations were on "the visit of a tiger to class X room."

Several schools have benefited by the remarks in last year's report regarding the correction of composition exercises. The system of signs which some teachers adopt is, however, too elaborate. Probably better results would be achieved by reducing these to two—one sign for mis-spelt words and a line drawn under all mistakes of idiom, grammar, &c. In correcting mistakes of the latter kind, boys should rewrite enough of the context to make the correction intelligible without reference to the original.

In some schools there is too much "oral" work in composition, at the expense of independent written work; when the work is done "by teacher and class," the latter usually means a few of the best boys. The independent individual exercise is the only means of developing the power of self expression.

FROM THE REPORT ON ARITHMETIC AND ALGEBRA.

The candidates on the whole showed good knowledge of the subject and, in the majority of cases, the answers were written in neat form and the processes were accurate. There are, however, a few points which in my opinion every teacher should impress upon the students. In the question on interest a large number of students wrote in the answers: Rs. 3 annas 4 per cent. which indicates that the boys have not grasped the notion of percentage. An appreciable number of candidates after cancelling all the terms of the numerator, in the question on simplification, put one instead of zero for the result.

Some candidates managed to find correct answers in some questions, which their working did not justify. Such attempts are useless, as correct process and wrong answer are more profitable to a candidate than the right answer and incorrect process.

FROM THE REPORT ON GEOMETRY AND MENSURATION.

The conclusion which I am driven to is, that a great deal yet remains to be done in order to secure results which could be regarded as really satisfactory. Although a large number of boys have succeeded in obtaining a decent number of marks, it is only in a very few cases that the candidates have shown a thorough grasp of the subject, and have been able to express their ideas clearly and logically. Only too often the answers have been slipshod and woefully marked by a lack of comprehension of the logical sequence of the various steps involved in the process of reasoning. The majority of the candidates had some sort of notion about the answers to the different questions, but their ideas were too hazy and

confused to find expression in intelligent, clear cut, and logically connected steps. The inchoate character of their ideas is evidenced by the fact that the simpler a question was (for instance question No. 1), the less accurate and pertinent was the answer. The question paper was made studiously simple, but of a nature that could not be tackled successfully by mere cram. The result is that it has brought out the fact of the students' brains being often stuffed with a lot of ill-digested loose notions which have not served any useful purpose, and in consequence they failed to bring out in a large number of cases the important points, essentially vital steps being sometimes omitted altogether. Much greater drilling, both oral and written, is therefore necessary to ensure a clear and sequential statement of a proposition, with a thorough understanding of the successive steps and their relative importance. Another point which deserves particular attention is the clumsiness of the diagrams when drawn free-hand. Not only are the lines and angles badly drawn, but there is no attempt at securing any degree of accuracy. It is highly important that neatness and accuracy in the drawing of ordinary diagrams free-hand should be insisted upon. On the other hand it must be confessed that the figures drawn with the help of instruments were generally neat and accurate. It is, however, surprising to find that, even when the figures were neatly drawn, there should have been so many cases of wrong measurements. Greater practice in the measurement of straight lines and angles is therefore necessary.

FROM THE REPORT ON HISTORY OF INDIA.

The chief weakness in the history of the schools, as a whole, is in the answers to the questions on the Moghal period. Practically

no student gave a decent answer on Aurangzeb, though many attempted it, and comparatively few could describe Akbar's revenue system at all well. The map-drawing has improved, but a very great number of the boys still do not answer the question asked, *e.g.*, when asked to show Akbar's dominions, showing the additions he made to Humayun's kingdom, instead of distinguishing between the smaller and larger kingdom, a good many contented themselves with showing Akbar's kingdom, giving unnecessary details, and then filling in the other kingdoms or powers in India. There is still a good deal of learning by heart. Most of the candidates obviously answered the questions, not in their own words but in the language of the books prescribed, or in that of published notes, or they had occasion to use their own words they made bad mistakes in grammar and idiom. But a fair number were able to use their own words at times, with a noticeable freedom from gross errors, and these were the candidates, broadly speaking, that succeeded in obtaining fifty per cent. or more marks.

More attention should be paid to the order and arrangement of answers. In many cases candidates had a certain amount of knowledge, but could not group it. They also have a way of plunging at once into a subject without anything in the way of introduction, *e.g.*, the answers to certain questions began, as a rule, with "Malraj resigned the governorship of Multan and the Sikh war broke out" or "Warren Hastings abolished the double government of Clive," and there is no mention of the reason that led to "resignation" in the one case or "abolition" in the other. As long as boys learn History by memorising language as much as facts, this is bound to continue.

Though Lee Warner's "Citizen of India" is prescribed, not much attention seems to have been paid to it. Very few of the candidates that wrote about the administration of an Indian province seemed to have read the book with any intelligence or care. Much more emphasis should be laid on neatness. The candidates from some schools are neat and tidy in their work, from others nearly all are extremely careless and untidy.

FROM THE REPORT ON GEOGRAPHY.

The Geography papers show a considerable improvement over those of last year, as a whole; though there is still a long way to go to reach a really satisfactory standard. The work did not display any brilliancy; but on the other hand few candidates failed to get somewhere near pass marks.

In writing their answers, too many candidates ignored the form of the question, and conveyed the necessary information almost as if accidentally in the midst of a mass of irrelevant matter. Particularly was this noticeable in question III. An overplus of verbiage was also a common fault. Facts, not words, are needed.

The maps were, on the whole, well done, as far as the knowledge displayed was concerned, but the report of last year, advising that more practice is required in writing names, and also advising the use of mapping pens, does not appear to have received the attention it deserved.

The English struck me as a considerable improvement over some of the Matriculation work that I have this year seen. Writing and English were generally satisfactory. Spelling, even of names printed in the paper, varied amusingly however, one common error being 'streamers' for 'steamers,' possibly due to

a mistaken association of ideas. More attention is required to be given by Head Masters and other concerned, to secure better spelling.

Questions 1 and 2 were very fairly answered. The entries made in the map of Africa were often surprisingly accurate. The Nile was, however, often drawn as if its course were straight, and in many instances was shown entering the sea to the west of its delta.

Question 4 was generally answered by a garbled quotation from the text book, and very few boys made any reference to the effect of the Arabian Sea branch of the monsoon. The explanation of the difference in annual variation of temperature between Singapore and Allahabad was mostly incomplete, the effect of the difference of latitude not having been grasped.

Question 5 was badly done. The terms Latitude and Longitude were used in the loosest possible manner. To some boys they were lines, to some distances, to others places. The meaning of a degree and of angular measurement in this connection have not been understood.

Question 7 was very fairly done, though a question of this sort should have been illustrated by a sketch map, to show the relative positions and sizes of the physical divisions. A sketch map would have been far more illuminating than any amount of description, and should not have been beyond the capacity of the boys.

In question 8, c, few or none of the boys pointed out the difference in government between tribal territory and that directly administered by the British, or appeared to realise that there was any difference.

Generally the knowledge shown was confined to the limits of the text books.

FROM THE REPORT ON FURTHER
MATHEMATICS.

The school records appeared to be carefully kept on the whole; in certain cases they are still too scanty, and it is important that it should be realised in *all* schools that the *whole* of the work done in school by the pupils should be ready for inspection at the time of the practical examination. Schools which neglect to pay proper attention to this matter unnecessarily handicap their students, since, although in marking records quality of work is of first importance, evidence of steady and industrious application throughout the school period is of considerable value. The chief impression gained from a general survey of the records is, that Indian schools do not appear to attach sufficient importance to the development of their pupils' powers of working under pressure.

The records of experimental work are improving, but the following extract from the report of one of the sub-examiners is of value in this connection, and draws attention to a defect which needs specially watching in schools such as Gorakhpur and Moradabad, where the classes in Further Mathematics are undoubtedly making headway and increasing in numbers:—

"There appears to be more method shown in entering results of experiments and describing them than is exhibited in some of the same students' record books for 1913-14. No use has been made of squared paper, and the figures drawn are often small. Further examination showed that—

- (a) On each day one and the same experiment had been performed by the whole class.
- (b) Only one set of readings had been taken in each experiment.

(c) These readings were the same in all record books.

(d) From this one result each 'deduced' (!) the same general law (in cases where a law was to be arrived at), and cheerfully ascribed any discrepancy to errors of observation and friction!"

Records such as these are largely the fault of the teacher, and are due to his experience and unfamiliarity with laboratory work. It is desirable for this reason that teachers having charge of classes in Further Mathematics should have taken a Science course at their University instead of an Arts course.

The same sub-examiner whose remarks are quoted above offers the following suggestions, to which the attention of all teachers having charge of classes in Further Mathematics might profitably be directed:—

"(a) When there is not a sufficient number of sets of apparatus, several different experiments can be conducted simultaneously by different students.

(b) When the experiment calls for more than one student to perform it successfully, the class can be divided up into batches of two for that experiment.

(c) Several readings must be taken and the mean of these employed in calculations.

(d) A list of experiments to be performed and of instructions thereon must be written out and kept in the class room."

With reference to the equipment and accommodation available at the different schools, there is still room for much improvement. Several schools have apparatus on order or about to be ordered, and it seems

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advisable, now that the department has issued a list of suitable apparatus, that Inspectors should be requested to pay special and careful attention to this matter at the times of their inspections, and to insist upon compliance with the minimum requirements of the list already issued.

In certain cases the only accommodation available is a table or bench in the Science Laboratory; this is a highly unsatisfactory state of affairs, and it is time that special attention were directed to the proper fitting up of a mechanics' laboratory at each school accorded recognition in Further Mathematics.

FROM THE REPORT ON SCIENCE.

There has been a distinct improvement in practical work since I last acted as examiner. The chief faults in most schools are—

- 1.—Lack of sufficient apparatus.
- 2.—A tendency to treat Physics and Chemistry as different subjects, and to allot one day to Physics and the next to Chemistry.
- 3.—Lack of repetition of bad work and of correction by the teacher.
- 4.—Lack of deductive power on the part of pupils, due to the making practical work too mechanical. Little is done to stimulate imagination.
- 5.—Untidiness in work and note-books.
- 6.—Frequent changes in the teaching staff. Records of the 9th class were not available in some schools, the previous teacher having removed them.
- 7.—In some schools the course had not been completed. There can be no valid excuse for this.
- 8.—Calculations are almost invariably made badly. Few boys have any idea as to the degree of accuracy of their results.

and often show four or five decimal figures where it is doubtful if one is within the limit of error. Contracted calculations are unknown. The results of the whole class should be written on the black board. After the teacher, in discussion with the class, has eliminated widely discrepant results, the average result should be calculated and recorded as the class average. This is a means of introducing the pupils to scientific method, and incidentally incites rivalry as regards individual results.

One examiner notes that in one school he found that pupils were not allowed to take their note-books home. I agree with him in thinking that pupils cannot get full benefit from their notes unless they are able to refer to them at home.

Students should leave two or three pages at the beginning of their books blank for the subsequent indexing of their work.

The work of the candidates in the Chemistry paper is very satisfactory and is a decided improvement on last year. The writing on the whole was quite fair, but there were a lot of spelling mistakes. In most cases the diagrams were neatly drawn.

In the Physics paper candidates have shown a good average standard of work and there is a distinct improvement on the last year. Some of the schools have done much better than others. This is undoubtedly due to better teaching by *properly qualified* teachers and to *smaller* classes. The schools sending up a large number of students have not done so well as the schools sending up fewer students.

As in the "practical work" so in the "theoretical work," no attention is paid to the order or the magnitude of the quantities involved. Examples are worked out to four or

five places of decimals though the observed quantities are not even correct to the first decimal place. Moreover, it is high time to emphasise the relative merits of the alternative methods involved in the measurement of physical quantities. No distinction is made between a method for measuring the thickness of a book and a method for measuring the thickness of a platinum-foil.

2. Careless and slipshod work is noticeable in some cases. For instance, a convex lens was confused with a concave lens and even with a concave mirror! Some confused the thickness of a piece of platinum-foil with its breadth. Some were so much obsessed with the bit of knowledge that pressure determines the boiling point of water that in question (5) instead of giving the difference in the effect of heating a vessel of water at the top and at the bottom, they wrote about Mount Everest, the Alps, and coal mines.

3. In very few cases was the direction of a ray of light indicated. All quantities having a direction should have their direction indicated by some means, say by arrows.

4. There appears to be a tendency on the part of teachers to draw a sharp line of demarcation between the lecture-room work and the laboratory work. Such experiments as are meant for lecture demonstration and are not prescribed to be performed by the students are never properly performed and the boys are left to commit to memory the description given in the book. The laboratory work is meant to supplement and to amplify the lecture-room work. It should not under any circumstances replace the demonstrations and experiments performed for illustrating the lectures. Whether a boy describes something that he has actually seen or whether he reproduces a paragraph from the book is only too evident in some cases.

FROM THE REPORT ON FREEHAND DRAWING

The increase of the diagram this year to a defined 8-inch measurement has without doubt increased the difficulty of this subject, but in very few drawings has there been a marked deviation from the size specified.

In fully 90 per cent. of the drawings the proportion was good, and in 50 per cent. the curvatures were closely adhered to, but the type of line used in the diagram and the character of the subject represented were not closely observed.

FROM THE REPORT ON MODEL DRAWING.

Though the work as a whole is still of a low standard yet the majority of the drawings submitted were of a considerably higher standard than last year. Nine candidates only should not have been presented for examination.

The drawing of the foreshortened shoe is not easy, but many of the efforts were creditable.

Few candidates drew the inside of the box correctly.

Very little attempt has yet been made to study and represent the character, colour, and texture of the different objects and surfaces.

FROM THE REPORT ON GEOMETRICAL DRAWING.

In this subject a fair standard of work was shown, but the answers were very untidily presented.

Question 1.—About 30 per cent. do not seem to understand the word "sloping" and 60 per cent. failed to realise that after initials stops are necessary.

Question 2.—Depends on careful reading of the question, and was generally fairly answered, but 50 per cent. failed to draw the scale.

Question 3.—Only five attempted this question, of which two were approximately correct. Many were frightened of this very simple question by the calculations they thought were necessary.

Questions 4 & 5.—These are questions involving the accurate use of instruments, and, though attempted by a large proportion of the candidates, very few were able to obtain full marks.

Question 6.—This question was on the whole quite well answered.

Question 7.—A variety of inaccurate answers were given to this question, which though attempted by 90 per cent. secured but few marks for most of the candidates.

FROM THE REPORT ON COMMERCE.

Further improvement is needed practically everywhere in dexterity of manipulation in typewriting. This is especially the case in regard to the typing of tables of figures, and in carbon manifolding.

One examiner again touches on a point of which I have made much in past years, the general untidiness of, and lack of neatness and accuracy in, the work of many students. My own experience entirely bears him out. Inaccuracy, the lack of neatness, the untidy sprawling writing, the blots, and the ugly scratching out of errors, combine to do much towards defeating the object and purpose of the examination in commerce.

Whether it is that the advent of the typewriter is taken as an excuse for disregarding the advantages of good penmanship and neat method in writing I cannot say, but it is increasingly evident from year to year that the handwriting of the students presenting themselves for examination in commerce is degenerating. This degeneration can be seen school

by school, and is thus, to my mind, entirely traceable to lack of supervision in caligraphy in the lower classes in those schools which particularly err in this respect. I quote as an example the case of one school in which, as compared with previous years, very considerable improvement has been achieved in the theory and practice of book-keeping and in commercial method. The typewriting results both in the written and practical tests are satisfactory, but as a whole the handwriting of the students is disgraceful, and few if any would stand a chance of securing good posts as junior commercial clerks, because of this failing.

One examiner has in his report made a suggestion, the practical value of which appeals greatly to me. He says:—"With regard to commercial correspondence, I would suggest that the principle of connected commercial transactions be introduced in all schools so as to give a more realistic character to the students' work. I am of opinion from my examining work and also from my teaching experience that many students are taught the subject in a rather 'scrappy' fashion, and that, although they understand the meaning of the terms employed and the nature of the documents used, they do not understand the part each has to play in the commercial world. I am of opinion therefore that a system of connected commercial transactions be introduced connecting together both Commercial Correspondence, Book-keeping, and Typewriting, as is done in many schools in London, and on the Continent."

I entirely endorse this suggestion, and trust it will be found possible to give it effect. Evidence of the lack of coherent understanding of connected commercial transactions

has been amply furnished in the examination of 1915, in commercial correspondence.

In the paper set, students were required to make out an invoice of goods sold, and were then in the next question required to prepare a receipt as from the seller of the goods, for the payment of the amount of the invoice. Quite half the students either drew a bill of exchange or gave a promissory note of the amount.

On the whole the results of the 1915 examination in Commerce were not satisfactory. Book-keeping continues to be the weak subject and a large percentage of the answers given showed that the elementary theory of the subject has not been grasped. No Balance Sheet was asked for, but a considerable proportion of the students insisted on preparing one, neglecting the preparation of the trial balance, which was essential and particularly required.

More attention seemed to have been given than formerly to the Cash Book, but judging from results even this elementary and most necessary portion of the subject had not been grasped by several candidates.

One noticeable feature in the Book-keeping results was that in many cases the students did not seem to have been warned to look through the answer book supplied in order to find the correct places in which to enter their answers and make their postings. Thus, Cash Account entries for the Ledger were given on the pages set aside for the Cash Book, and the Trading and Profit and Loss Accounts were in many cases given in the Ledger columns. It might be advisable to issue a specimen answer book to each school to enable students to be prepared in this matter.

In Commercial Correspondence the weakness shown in previous year in Com-

mercial Arithmetic was again apparent, although the calculations required were of the very simplest. The subject of discounts seems to have been very badly explained in all schools, with the result that not more than three or four candidates out of the whole number examined qualified for full marks in the Invoice.

The definitions of commercial terms were fairly correctly given by the majority, and the knowledge of postal rates was on the whole good, but these matters really are of comparatively minor importance.

The typewriting results are perhaps more satisfactory than those of the other subjects included in "Commerce."

FROM THE REPORT ON MANUAL TRAINING.

Theory (drawing):—The theory paper in Manual Training was not as well done as the practical work.

In question 2 many of the candidates read "gouging" as "gauging," and so wrote their answers all wrong.

Most of the boys were unable to answer question 4, which dealt with saws.

Scale was quite overlooked in questions 1 and 6. The former asked for a freehand sketch of a one-inch chisel about half size. Many boys drew the chisel full size, and some less than a quarter; some drew the handle more than twice the length of the blade, and others the blade twice the size of the handle. This surely shows want of observation, and also that the sense of proportion is lacking. Manual Training is supposed specially to cultivate these qualities.

Question 6, which demanded the plan and elevation of a cylinder standing on one of its ends, was apparently not understood at all by many of the candidates,

In making sketches of inkstands and boxes, dimensions were generally left out altogether. This seems to indicate that the students do not first draw their models, or that they have not been taught to realise that drawing, however rough, must be a real guide to the practical worker.

The drawings were very rarely nicely finished there should always, I think, be some clear-lining, and what it is necessary to rub out should be thoroughly done.

Lastly the spelling was often very bad. In a report on Manual Training perhaps spelling ought not to be criticised, but it is discouraging to find boys of 17 and 18 spelling "tongue," "tang,"—"ferrule," "fraul,"—"dimension," "diamensions,"—"planing," "plaining." With the exception of the mistakes pointed out, the sketches and the isometric projection were fairly well done.

PRACTICAL WORK.

Generally speaking the practical work is good. In some schools the educational aspect of the subject requires more attention. The majority of the schools that sent up candidates are well-equipped, but one school should be provided with more up-to-date benches and vices.

In one school a good course of cardboard modelling has been devised for classes V and VI which has proved very popular although it is optional. It forms a good introduction to the woodwork in class VII.

FROM THE REPORT ON AGRICULTURE WITH SURVEYING.

Two schools sent up candidates in Agriculture, one for the first time. The boys from the school which sent up candidates last year also showed an intelligent acquaintance with the subject, and had obviously been carefully taught. They would benefit by more equipment and better facilities for more extensive

practical training. The boys from the other school were not so good, and showed an indifferent knowledge of the subject. It had apparently been impossible to give them a systematic course of teaching.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

The Raja of Kurupam on "True Education."

In the course of his address at the Prize-distribution of the National High School, Trichinopoly, the Raja of Kurupam said, there are some persons in this country who think that higher education is quite unnecessary. I need hardly say that I do not agree with this view. Knowledge should be pursued not merely for the sake of earning a livelihood, but for the uplift and refinement which it gives. I admit that education gives an external polish to good as well as evil. And it is our duty to direct the channel in which the advantages of education flow. We must so educate a man that the increased power which knowledge gives is utilised by him for good purposes and spent on behalf of noble and righteous causes. This can only be done by making education a means of forming character. Knowledge without character is a source of danger to the community. But you may ask how can a noble character be formed? My opinion is that secular knowledge by itself cannot produce good impulses. These can only be created by religious training. It has been said that the fear of God is the beginning of wisdom. I humbly believe it is so. Science without Religion is the enemy of mankind, as you can very well see for yourselves in the present War. The Germans know Science very well, but they have no fear of God. They would otherwise not have perpetrated those atrocities in Belgium, which will make their name a byword in history for centuries to come.

True education in the sense which I have described above improves a man all round, mentally, morally and physically. It teaches him a sense of duty to others—duty to parents, to the King, to the country and lastly to himself. It teaches him to curb all his lower passions and to rise above selfish desires and ambitions. It teaches him how to use his privileges. People are sometimes very keen about their own rights, but indifferent to the rights of others. That is so because they do not know how to use their privileges for the public good. They will do anything to gain their object,—they will even forfeit

their independence. Their selfishness prompts them to yield to temptations which an unselfish man will turn away from, with contempt. They do not understand that public life demands sturdy independence and the sacrifice of personal interests. A man should work for the good of the community without caring for personal aggrandisement. Devoting himself to a cause, he should work for it steadily and faithfully even as a soldier works loyally and with implicit obedience for the King whom he has sworn to serve.

This is the sort of education which I wish should be given to our young men. It is the duty of every parent to see his son, educated on proper lines. What these lines are we should decide not by taking the opinion of a single individual, but by watching lives of men who, by overcoming obstacles thrown in their way, have achieved success in life and risen to eminence and also by studying the direction which the progress of the country takes. Each generation has its peculiar opportunities and tasks and it is the duty of the parent to educate his children in such a way that they may be free from the defects and disadvantages of his own education and be wiser than himself in their day and generation, and thus contribute to the advancement of the country.

For instance, there are at present various indigenous arts and professions which are declining day by day. A man who thoughtfully studies the situation will at once see that it would be useful to the country if the children of the men practising these professions are educated in such a manner that they do not give up their ancestral arts and crafts, but improve them with the aid of modern education and foreign travel.

Another thing that strikes a patriotic observer is that progress is impeded because education is confined to men, and the women remain uneducated. For modesty, obedience, self-sacrifice and similar virtues our ladies are all that can be desired. There is nothing wanting in them in these respects. What they want is some education which without injuring their national characteristics and peculiar graces will help them to understand what men are doing and to co-operate with them intelligently.

However clever we men may be, we cannot progress as a community unless our ladies are able to help us in our patriotic endeavours. This does not mean that women should be taught to do all that men do. Woman has been created differently from man, and different things are expected from her. Woman in the home and

man in the country should work towards one end, namely, the rearing up of healthy intelligent children and the elevation of the country in the scale of civilization.

Another thing which occurs to me on this occasion is with reference to the education of the children of the landed aristocracy in this country. In former days it might have been necessary to keep these boys separate and to give them a separate education. But times are changed and we are living in democratic days when the middle class people are highly educated, and I believe that the best education which a Zamindar can give to his sons is to send them to a public school in which they may rub shoulders with intelligent and well-behaved sons of educated parents. Mixing with intellectual equals gives rise to healthy emulation and dispels all unhealthy notions of self-importance. When the son of His Majesty the King-Emperor goes to a public school and loses nothing thereby but gains a good deal on the other hand. I do not see why our sons should not follow His Royal Highness's excellent example. Yes, it is by moving with intellectual equals and discussing questions from different points of view that our sons will become fit to take part in public life and to serve their country efficiently.

The Study of Mathematics, by Mr. K. S. Appaswami Ayyar, B.A., L.T.

At the inaugural meeting of the Mathematics and Natural Philosophy Association, Kumbakonam College, which was held recently, an address on the "Study of Mathematics" was delivered by Mr. K. S. Appaswami Ayyar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Secondary Training School, Tanjore, with Mr. Statham, Principal of the College in the chair.

The lecturer referred to the supreme attraction which the mathematical study had for its devotees who seemed to feel themselves an intellectual aristocracy and said that the reason lay in the perfect form of reason which the mathematical argument provided. Its methods were characterised by thorough analysis, rigorous proof, and a combination of extreme subtlety with perfect clearness. Mathematical studies had a high training value and tended to strengthen the power of sustained abstract thought and the capacity to grasp details and to follow close reasoning. Whenever the mathematician had other intellectual interests also, and he applied himself to intellectual work along those lines, the high value of his training came out conspicuously.

The lecturer desired that, both in the teaching and in the understanding, the philosophy of mathematics which consisted in reviewing and describing in general terms the processes and again in interpreting and realising operations and results, must come out more explicitly. The student should be always neat in his work and should apply himself to his work repeatedly and with clearness of understanding, should think, rethink, review and assimilate it. He should try and comprehend the subject in its wholeness, should not look on problems as mere sports, but should see how they arise, what their importance is and by what methods they are soluble and have been solved. He must put forth sustained energy and develop a spirit of research. The standard of mathematical work in Secondary Schools in this country was low. It seemed to be lower than in modern European and American schools where an elementary knowledge of the differential calculus and the integral calculus, which does not form part of the B.A. pass course of this University, seems to be imparted. What was required was that Arithmetic as it was should stop earlier than now and should not form a subject for examination at the eleventh or the twelfth year of a pupil's course, that more advanced work should be done in the higher forms and that plainer and clearer methods of teaching and examining should be adopted. The University pass course in Mathematics was right in principle in that it combined Mathematics and Physics but the standard could be raised a little. He desired that instead of one rigid public examination dominating the secondary courses, there should be room for secondary courses to improve and that there should be intellectual people not merely to do their little bit in the process of keeping the machine moving but also to think of the courses and how they must be improved. It did not appear that the Headmasters as a body were helping to do this or even conceived that this was their function. There should be also for the University more people who understand the courses in all their details and feel it their duty to suggest necessary alterations both for dovetailing them to the secondary courses and for improving them in various other directions.

The Scope of Literature, [by Mr. T. L. Crombie, M. A.]

Under the auspices of the Young Men's Literary Association, Triplicane, Mr. T. L. Crombie, M.A., delivered a lecture on "The scope of Literature," at the Kellett Hall, Triplicane, when Mr. S. E. Ranganatham, M.A., of the Pre-

sidency College, presided. The meeting was attended largely by students. Mr. Crombie said that in the course of his lecture he would give some practical hints. He first gave the various definitions of literature. The scope of literature he said should be partially realised by oneself. He asked what the world would be if there were no literature. The result would be that they would be deprived of the great medium of conveying their thoughts in a speedy manner. They would be deprived of the knowledge of foreign countries, the history of nations and the knowledge of philosophies and religion. He referred to the growth of literature from early times when the spread of literature was limited to a few. With the aid of the Printing Press they were now able to spread literature on a vast scale. What had literature done? India had contributed to the literature on spirituality. Greece on works of art and beauty, Rome on law and administration. There was no subject at present not touched by literature. Without literature they would know nothing of the success or the failure of the armies in the Great European War now going on. Without literature they would know nothing of the scientific experiments. Literature influenced people in these ways. Poetry aroused emotions (Shelly, Keats and Sarojini Naidu were instances). Literature influenced the masses. Influenced by the German literature the German people were under the belief that they were fighting a most just war. Literature had its individual scope. Each individual must share his education with the women and the ignorant masses. They should not slavishly borrow others' ideas but use literature as a stepping stone for knowledge and think for themselves. English literature had done a great good to India. English language tended to make Indians into one nation. In conclusion he asked them to do some service to England as Englishmen had done to India. Could not Indians write novels and poems showing Indian life and Indian aspirations? They should look at Dr. Sir Rabindranath Tagore and see what a tremendous stir he had made in Europe.

The educational use of Museums.

A Correspondent writes in the "Times Educational Supplement":—"The annual Conference of the Museums Association, held in the Victoria and Albert Museum, by invitation of the Board of Education, was occupied mainly in discussing the varied help that museums as such might render to the national cause. It recognised the increased importance of bringing up the new

generation in bodily and mental fitness, and rightly claimed for museums a large share in this urgent task.

The best education is experience of the world. The method of teaching most remote from this is by books alone. We seek therefore to introduce practical work into all branches of education that permit of it, and in others we attempt to teach through sight and touch rather than through hearing. Description is necessary, but must come from the pupil, not from the teacher; must be based on the pupil's observation, not on the teacher's exposition. But much of what we would teach so far transcends in time and space the bounds of the school-room that it would perforce be conveyed by words alone were illustrations not available. Here the graphic arts and cheap reproduction help, misleading though they often are, especially to the untrained eye. Far better illustration is given by the object itself. Thus one realizes what powerful aid may be lent by museums, which for this purpose may be defined as permanent exhibitions of objects so selected and arranged as of themselves to enforce lessons on the beholder.

The potential value of museums in education has, we believe, long been realized by their curators, especially in the provinces, even more than by professed teachers; and at their conference the question was discussed from many points of view, such as that of the general public, the undergraduate, the technical student, and the elementary school child. Of all these the last group is perhaps the most clamant, and certainly the most difficult to satisfy. A brief statement of its special problem is all we can attempt in this article.

Difficulties arise on the side both of the museum and of the school. Museums are made for the grown-ups; for them are intended the vast halls, the high cases, the systematic order, the long-worded labels. In America they have special cases, or a separate room, or even a whole museum, directly devised for children; but towards this desirable end our own country progresses but slowly. The occasional school museum, with collections made and mounted by the children themselves, has a totally distinct aim. Meanwhile the ordinary museums are there, and might as well be utilized. Setting aside their physical unfitness, consider the intellectual. Objects which may appeal instantly and fully to the initiated are beyond the ken of the child. The problem to be solved, then, is to bring these objects into relation with the child's limited world.

In a public museum it is hardly possible to do this by either labels or arrangement, both of which must be aimed primarily at the adult, although from the standpoint of the uninstructed adult both still leave much to be desired, even in museums professing this aim. Nor can we expect children to buy and read guide-books, even if one were written specially for them. It follows, and is generally conceded, that the link must be furnished by a human interpreter. But who is to be the interpreter? Already many curators have taken classes round. To this, however, there are objections of two kinds. First, the curator is thus taken away from his proper work. Secondly, the curator, though he may be the person best acquainted with his specimens, is not familiar with the mind and needs of the child, and thus far fails as an interpreter. Many a museum has tried to meet similar difficulties in regard to the general public by appointing a guide or docent; and at the Imperial Institute, for example, Dr. H. B. Gray has been lecturing to young people. But since no docent can reasonably deal with more than 180 visitors a day, it is clear that asking him to teach all the school children in the district served by his museum would be like putting a mouse to eat a mountain.

We are forced, then, to the not unnatural conclusion that the task of teaching must devolve on the teachers. But the difficulties are not thereby turned; they are only met from the other side. Even assuming that museum visits are to be accounted for righteousness to teachers as well as taught, still, what with time at the museum, time on journeys, and time spent in preparation, the task is beyond the strength of our elementary schools as at present staffed. Again, though the teacher knows the child-mind, he does not know the objects in the museum; he does not understand the principles of its arrangement, and he has not as yet been trained to this branch of work any more than the curator. First, then, we must teach the teachers, and already the attempt has been begun by the officers of the Natural History Museum, and some others; but this also makes a sad inroad on the curator's time, and must end too often in his becoming a mere lecturer on various branches of art or science. Manchester, as Mr. Spurley told the Conference has attempted a compromise: 20 schools being on half time owing to the war, it has been possible to send a selected school teacher from each to be trained by the curator in the art of museum-demonstration. This move is welcome as a recognition of the value and the difficulties of museum teaching;

but it does not entirely solve the problem. The selected school-teacher becomes a museum docent, and while retaining his educational training, ceases to be personally familiar with the individual children. Again, the museum lesson may take two forms; first an exposition starting from and based on the objects in the museum; second, an illustration of the lesson already given in the ordinary school-course. The latter, without doubt, is the more useful. For each visit the pupils should be carefully prepared. The teacher should know what he wants and where to find it, so that he may give his demonstration promptly and get his charges away before they are museum-weary. A good plan is to set questions to be answered from the objects (not the labels) in the museum. Thus we are forced back on the old conclusion that the museum teachers must be those actually engaged in school work.

The nature of the difficulty should now be clear. It is not insuperable, but we cannot strike 12 all at once. Gradual progress can be made, given good will on both sides. The Education Authority must be convinced of the value of museum lessons, and must give the utmost facility. The museum must direct the teachers to the objects illustrative of their teaching, and must welcome their suggestions of desirable additions to the exhibited series. Lastly, if the curators cannot instruct the teachers personally, their Association should, as Professor J. A. Green recommended, prepare a pamphlet on the use of museums in general, to which each Director could add notes on his own museum, designed solely to set the teachers on the right way.

The Standard of the present Students, by Rev. W. W. Wallace, M. A.

Rev. W. W. Wallace, M. A., Principal, American College, Madura, attributes the large percentage of failures in the recent examinations to the low standard of the present day students. He says:

The results are not very flattering to the college, especially in the Intermediate. An analysis of the list of 68 failures shows 63 failures in English, 29 of whom failed in English only. This does not differ much from the results for the Madura centre as a whole, which had a total of 133 failures, 115 being in English, or for Trichinopoly which had 395 failures, 353 being in English; or for the Presidency as a whole which had 2674 failures, of which 2354 or 84 per cent. were in English and 684 or 25 per cent. in English only.

The University lays a large share of the blame for this lamentable failure on the Principals of Colleges for laxity in admissions, and for sending up students who are ill prepared. The public cries out against what it thinks to be undue severity in University examination standards. The Principals lay the blame on the students for not doing as well as they were expected to do. A few well-known considerations of an ideal as well as practical character may not be amiss: There is a lack of a real love of learning. Students aim merely at passing an examination and securing a bare minimum of marks. The University examination is the be-all and end-all of education. Culture having no marketable value is discounted or ignored, in the rush for real gain. The craze for University degrees is a passion, blinding and stifling to all the higher impulses to study; while the mere possession of such a degree is regarded as a substitute for, rather than a guarantee of, culture and character. Another common mistake on the part of students is the low estimate placed on the value of a college education or perhaps I may say, a very materialistic estimate. A year of study which does not result in the students' passing an examination or being promoted, is regarded as wasted. This means that there is little real enjoyment in study or in College life; that study is not really a part of life, and that the period devoted to study is an interruption of life. Whatever serves to correct these errors is a real aid to education and a direct contribution towards success. What we love to do becomes easy for us. When study becomes a delight to the student he will no longer fear the results of an examination, nor be content with a bare minimum of marks. Real students of history, of science, of literature, will find in these subjects food for life: will find in the persecution of these studies that they are living quite as essentially as in that later imagined period when they shall have no more to do with them; will find that a University degree marks but the beginning not the end of study; will find that life is something more than position,—it is capacity for enjoyment and opportunity for service. When such a love for learning begins to possess the mind of the students we shall no longer be humiliated by such enormous percentages of failures. Here lies the real task of the teacher—to set for the worthy aims, to create interest, to stimulate enthusiasm, to entice his flock into new pastures. In the light of these remarks, it might appear that the standards of our University are not too high. They do not place too high value on

culture and character and conduct, in education. It might appear also that the standards of the students are too low, and that when they aim higher, they will hit higher marks.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

Question of Accounts.

The adjourned meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held in the Senate House on the 28th ultimo in the presence of a fair number of members. Mr. W. A. J. Archbold moved that the Senate requests the Syndicate to publish a full statement of accounts of the University, including a balance sheet, as an appendix to their annual report. Each year this statement of accounts should show in detail all payments of money with the exception of payments on account of petty cash. Mr. Archbold said that he did not wish to cast any reflection on the Syndicate or to suggest that there was anything wrong in the accounts. There should be more detail, the Library Press and Law College accounts all being kept separate. The public expected a clear statement of the University accounts in a clear and easily accessible form.

Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikary seconded the motion. Sir R. N. Mukerjee moved as an amendment that the accounts should be published as heretofore and that facility be given to the members to examine the account books of the University. In the latter case the member should give timely notice to the Registrar and should state the object of the inspection. He said that if the previous resolution was carried, it would mean printing the whole of the account books. This was never done in the case of limited companies. It would give an idea that the Senate had no confidence in the Syndicate and the members of the latter body would probably resign. Mr. Osten Schmidt said that he had no apprehension that this would be the case. Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikary said all enquiries should be welcomed. There was an impression in some quarters that some payments had been made in an arbitrary manner, and until this impression was removed and confidence restored, it would be best to publish the accounts. In spite of the eagle eye of the Government auditors, large sums of money had been paid to a certain examiner, and this went on year after year until some new auditor noticed it and brought it to the notice of the Government,

when the examiner had to refund the large amount.

In reply Mr. Archbold said that the University was a public trust spending public money. Accounts were consequently of public interest. To suggest that we should go into the accounts ourselves is a counsel of impossibility. Many of us have not the time, and if we had we should not understand the accounts in the books. I merely ask for the primary principles of business. It is our duty as the Senate to see all the accounts, and then, if possible, find ways of economising.

Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikary, Vice-Chancellor, said that no examiner had been paid sums of money for which he had no right. To a certain Government officer was inadvertently paid certain sums to which he had no claim, and when the error was discovered he repaid these sums. He congratulated the Syndicate on the spirit in which it had received the demand made by certain people. The Syndicate had nothing to conceal. He was prepared to make everything as clear as possible, and as an earnest of his intention he mentioned that he had arranged for the printing of a list of salaries. He did not think demand was a criticism, but a legitimate desire for information. As a matter of fact, we are overburdened with the work in the press, and if this resolution is passed, we cannot do the work for some time.

Mr. Archbold said, it is the duty of the Chairman to sum up a discussion. I think you are making a party speech against my motion.

Dr. S. P. Sarbadhikary said, I always very carefully refrain from doing what Mr. Archbold imputes to me. I am trying to put both sides as fairly as possible.

On the amendment being put, it was carried by 15 to 11, and on being put as a substantive motion was again carried by 17 to 8.

University Lecturers.

The Syndicate of the University of Calcutta has invited the following gentlemen to deliver a course of lectures next cold weather on some subject that they may select:—

Dr. Sir Rabindranath Tagore; Dr. J. C. Bose; Dr. P. C. Roy and Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Shastri.

Efforts are also being made to secure the services of one or two lecturers from England.

It has also been resolved that Messrs. C. C. Cadler and E. Vredenburg be appointed University Lecturers in Botany and Geology respectively for the session 1915-16.

Reviews and Notices.

"FIRST YEAR COURSE IN MATHEMATICS—GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY": BY K. J. SANJANA, M. A. (K. & J. COOPER, BOMBAY). Rs. 1-12-0.

This book has been written specially for the use of students reading for the First Year Course in Arts of the Bombay University, and covers the course in Geometry and Trigonometry laid down in the curriculum. Geometry is given the first 150 pages, while the remaining 90 pages are devoted to Trigonometry. The course in Geometry is a continuation of the Matriculation course in it, of which a summary is given at the outset. There are several praiseworthy features in this part of the volume. While doing full justice to the theoretical treatment of geometry, the author has set appropriate exercises in practical geometry and calculation, and has expressed the geometrical results in algebraic form. The exercises, both theoretical and practical, are numerous, varied and interesting, the most important ones being fully worked out. The correlation between Geometry and Algebra is a special feature of the book.

The second part of the book deals with the "Trigonometry of one angle," only angles less than 180° being considered.

The printing and get-up of the book are commendable.

"SQUARING THE CIRCLE": BY E. W. HOBSON, SC.D., LL.D., F.R.S. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS, 1913.)

In this small volume Dr. Hobson gives a very clear and interesting account of the history of the famous problem of quadrature of the circle which, after engaging the minds of men for thousands of years—along with the sister problems of the trisection of an angle and the duplication of a cube—and having almost been regarded as a folly of science, has at last been finally answered, though the answer is of a negative character. The impossibility of the problem subject to the implied conditions has been conclusively established.

The problem of "squaring the circle" is that of determining by Euclidean construction a square whose area shall be equal to that of a given circle. It has from very early times attracted the enthusiastic attention of many persons, but the solutions offered by them, though

showing various degrees of skill, exhibit a misunderstanding as to the nature of the conditions under which the problem is to be solved, and an ignorance of the distinction between an ideal geometrical solution and an approximate construction. Dr. Hobson gives in some detail the various modes in which the problem has been attacked by people of various races, and the various approximations to the value of π used by them. He divides the history of the problem into three periods marked out by distinct differences in regard to the method, aim and mathematical equipment of the circle-squarer. The first period, from the earliest times to the invention of the Calculus in the middle of the 17th century, was the "geometrical period in which the main activity consisted in the approximate determination of π by calculation of the sides and areas of regular polygons in- and circumscribed to circles." The second period—from the middle of the 17th to about the middle of the 18th century—was marked by the suppression of the geometrical method by analytical methods which led to the determination of π in the form of convergent series and continued fractions, and which enabled enthusiastic votaries to calculate π to hundreds of places of decimals, the record being scored by W. Shanks in 1874 with 707 places of decimals. The original problem of the ideal geometrical construction, however, still remained unsolved. In the third period, from the middle of the 18th century until late in the 19th century, analytical researches showed π to be transcendental, and that it therefore "does not admit of construction by a Euclidean determination or even by a determination in which the uses of other algebraic curves besides the straight line and the circle is permitted."

"THE BRITISH EMPIRE": SIX LECTURES, BY SIR CHARLES P. LUCAS, K.C.B., K.C.M.G. (MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.) 2s. net.

Much has been written in recent years about the position of the Colonies and India in the Empire. In the 18th century, Turgot's well-known saying, "Colonies are like fruits which cling to the tree only till they ripen" and the metaphor of the 'grown-up son' found ready acceptance. Such free-and-easy theories no longer satisfy us. In a series of illuminating lectures, Professor Seeley sketched out the main stages in the 'Expansion of England' and pointed out how this movement furnishes the only clue for the interpretation of the leading events in English History during the 18th and 19th centuries. Since then, many books have been writ-

ten on this great theme. One of the best of these is the book now before us. The subject is one of perennial interest and the need for understanding the real nature of the ties that bind England to the other component parts of the Empire was never more pressing than now. Germany, fighting for a "place in the sun" has a formidable indictment against England's Colonial policy. The Colonies and India, it is said, were acquired by force and fraud; they were and are exploited for the benefit of England; England has never cared to understand the genius of the races inhabiting them and these are down-trodden and on the verge of a rebellion—the Empire is, in short, 'an evil in the world which ought to be wiped out.' To these absurd misrepresentations, a plain narrative of the facts connected with the acquisition of the Colonies and India—such an account as is found in the book before us—furnishes the most complete answer.

The book contains one of the best accounts we have seen of the growth of the Empire and of England's policy towards the Colonies and India. It describes how England established her Naval supremacy of England and the various steps in the formation of the Navy. The growth of the English nation is succinctly traced and then, the motives that led to the colonisation of distant lands—how discovery led to trade, and trade led to settlement. We see how little there has been of aggression. The process is one of 'expansion.' Most of the Colonies were 'new' countries and in India, annexation was strongly discountenanced and resorted to only when it had become inevitable. The assumption of State control over Colonies came later; at first, the control was nominal, vague and undefined: later, definite constitutions varying, in each colony, according to local circumstances, were evolved. All these processes are described lucidly. The most valuable portion, however, of the book is that devoted to 'the meaning and use of the Empire,'—its real significance. The Empire is peopled by diverse races who are allowed to develop their own genius in perfect freedom, to become young and vigorous communities, full of life, which are a source of immense strength to England at the present moment. This, then, is the secret of the success of the policy of England—there is no striving after uniformity and no crushing-out of the individuality of races; but each member of the Empire is allowed to develop independently on lines suited to its own genius. The Empire is all the richer for this variety—"if wisely handled it means partnership and co-operation and the whole, which includes such diversities, includes all the elements of life in their full vigour."

That this policy has justified itself is abundantly demonstrated by the part played by the Colonies and India in the present war. What, on the other hand, is Germany's record as a "world-power"—a role which she is so anxious to assume? This is the verdict of history. We quote from Professor Cramb:—"The history of Germany as an Imperial power in the 17th and 18th centuries, centres in the records of the Habsburgs in Italy: and it is impossible not to observe that the presence of the Habsburgs in Italy is synchronous with the defeat and obliteration of Italian art, Italian literature, Italian religion and Italian patriotism. And, in the 19th century, Germany's power in Italy centres in the name of Metternich, that minister who stands in the annals of European history as the synonym of reaction and oppression, the man who employed the dungeon and fortress as the chief instruments of an enlightened Government." This, then, is the real issue at stake in the present war for the Colonies and India. This is the danger against which the Empire is fighting.

The Colonies and India are as essential to England as the connection with England is to them. Michelet has remarked that the whole history of England can be summed up in the single sentence "England is an island." This statement is now only partially correct. As Sir Charles Lucas points out:—"Home defence on land has become more important and England is now exchanging the position of a unique European power, unique because of her sea-girt shores, for that of a European power, somewhat less easy to attack than the others, not by any means in the first rank in area and, in population, far below Russia and Germany. In order to hold her own with the other first-class powers she must, in a more real and a more vital sense than ever before, include in her estimate of herself and in the estimate which others form of her, the area and population of her overseas Empire." This, then, is the moral of the Empire complete identity of interests between England and the various parts of the Empire. This great central fact is clearly brought out in Sir C. P. Lucas' book. We think it unnecessary to refer to other portions of the book in which questions of great importance are discussed—those, for example, causes which brought the Empire into existence, the services rendered by England to the Colonies and India, and the causes of the British success in administration beyond the seas. We trust that Sir C. P. Lucas' book—which is a most valuable contribution to the subject—will be widely read in India.

"THE STUDY OF SANSKRIT: A PLEA FOR ITS REVIVAL," BY SHREE MAHABHAGAVAT OF KURTKOTI, DHARWAR.

The changes made in the Curricula of Studies for the various examinations of the Madras University under the charming name of specialisation are known to have been mainly responsible for the step-motherly treatment accorded to Sanskrit, the national language of India and to the Vernaculars. These languages rich in their literature, arts and sciences which are admittedly full of beauty and grace would appear not to have excited any interest in the minds of those who were responsible for the changes. As a consequence of this, they have been shelved in a corner by having been placed in one of the many groups of subjects for the Intermediate and B.A. degree examinations. The Indian student not unknown for his apathy for his mother-tongue prefers the groups where Indian languages do not find a place, the number selecting the group where they have a place being negligibly small. The attempts made both from patriotic motives and in the interests of sound national culture to restore them to their usual prominent position both by the public and a few members of the Senate proved abortive by the united front offered by a large majority of the members comprising that body. The position assigned to Sanskrit in the course of studies for the School-Final Examination is in no way much better. Even in large High Schools having more than a thousand boys on their rolls it is no phenomenon to see not more than half-a-dozen pupils sitting in classes where Sanskrit is taught. Madras seems fairly on its way to rear up a race of educated men who will be neither European nor Indian in their thoughts, tendencies, feelings and habits. This is a state of things which no one anticipated and which is much deplored by the generality of the public.

It is opportune that at a time like this Pandit Lingesha Vidyabhushana has brought out his excellent book entitled: "The Study of Sanskrit, a Plea for its Revival." In this book written in a graceful and flowing style, the Pandit makes a general survey of the contents of the Sanskrit Literature in their various departments of knowledge and in the end points out methods for the revival of the ancient lore. Sir Gopala Krishna Bandarkar in his introduction to the book seems to think that the revival for which the Pandit puts forward his plea has already begun and is fairly on its progress. It is to be much regretted that, highly learned in

Sanskrit as he is, he should view the position assigned to that hoary language with a feeling of complacency. In our view much more than a nominal recognition has not been given to Indian languages, a substantial recognition being yet to come. The critical remarks that the Pandit offers in connection with the phases of the Sanskrit Literature he deals with are well worthy of a careful perusal by those who are interested in the education of the rising generation of this great country. We particularly commend the closing pages of the book to the close attention of educationists, scholars and the responsible Government officers wherein the author deals with the methods of revival. He appeals to the Government, the Mathadhipatis and the people to do all that lies in their power for the revival of the ancient learning. We are quite in agreement with him in his view that "mere titles and degrees will be to no purpose, if the Pandit gets no sufficient means of livelihood." The recent Siromani examination instituted some years ago by the Madras University is no doubt a forward step in the right direction, but we fear that the examination may not become popular unless some encouragement is given to Siromanis by the Government by making them eligible for Government service up to a certain rank. The Mathadhipatis ought to do much in the spread of Sanskrit culture. Instead of this legitimate duty being attended to in Maths, they are, according to the author of the book under review "little better than choultries, for they are lavishing all their money in indiscriminate distribution of food among the priestly class." The author would have done well to have brought the richly endowed temples of India with large incomes within the purview of his book. A great impetus can be given to the spread of the ancient learning of India by diverting a portion of the temple incomes in the cause of Sanskrit culture. As matters now stand, much of the temple incomes is either misused or misappropriated without effective check and control. Probably the author is not aware that there are temples in the Madras Presidency, some of which can fairly vie with the Vatican in wealth and splendour.

The author is a Pandit and scholar of high attainments, who can speak with authority on the subject he deals with. Many of his views are thoughtful and suggestive. We heartily recommend the book for careful perusal by the responsible authorities both of the Government and of the Universities. While we hope that the learned Pandit will persevere in the cause that he has taken up for the revival of Sanskrit,

we have also to express our regret that those who draw handsome salaries as Sanskrit Professors in Government Colleges neither seem to move much beyond their daily routine of work in the direction the learned author is endeavouring in, nor show much evidence of research work to unearth the beauties that lie concealed in the many fields of Sanskrit Literature yet to be explored.

HANDBOOKS OF HINDU LAW, BY H. D. CORNISH, B.A., BAR.-AT-LAW, PUBLISHED BY THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS. PART I: THE JOINT HINDU FAMILY; PART II: PARTITION AND MAINTENANCE. Price 9s. net each.

It is an interesting sign of the times that the Cambridge University Press should have undertaken to publish these excellent handbooks; and not less interesting is the fact that such a work should have been produced by a writer, who, so far as we are aware, is not much concerned with Indian practice. The volumes before us carry out admirably the professed object of the writer, viz., to present an accurate view of Hindu Law, as it is administered to-day, in the Courts in British India. The author has throughout preferred to express himself in the language of authoritative judgments, so much so, that the work looks like a long series of quotations strung together. But the quotations are so well chosen and arranged that they run on well into one another, so as to give to the presentation a remarkable unity of its own. These books are of course not intended to supplant the use of Mr. Mayne's classical work or that of Messrs West and Bühler. The writer makes no attempt to deal with the history of the law and never stops to enquire what the law on any point ought to be. The law as laid down by the cases is all that he is concerned with; and so faithfully does he discharge his duty in this respect that on points of conflict he sets out both views and never ventures to criticise or even indicate his own inclination. Opinions may vary as to whether the book may not have been even more useful but for these limitations which the author seems to have imposed on himself, and we are not without doubts as to whether the book is not too full of case law and yet too terse to be used by the law student. But we are sure that any one, whether student or practitioner, may safely turn to the book to find what the latest view is on any point of Hindu Law; and the work will form a most valuable addition to any collection of Hindu Law books.

The first part deals with the law relating to the Hindu joint family, under the heads of (i) the joint family and its property; (ii) characteristics of coparcenership; (iii) alienation of joint property; and (iv) survivorship. An introductory chapter discusses the scope of the application of Hindu Law and the sources and sub-divisions of that law. The second part deals with the topics of partition and maintenance under the head of (i) the right to partition; (ii) partible and impartible property; (iii) methods of partition; (iv) re-union; (v) maintenance of disqualified heirs; (vi) parents and children; (vii) the wife; (viii) the widow; (ix) concubines; and (x) claims for maintenance. A well-arranged list of cases and a full index greatly enhance the utility of the books. We await with interest the appearance of the other parts of this valuable work and confidently recommend it to all who are interested in the study or the administration of the Hindu Law.

TRAVELS IN THE MOGUL EMPIRE: BY FRANÇOIS BERNIER, TRANSLATED BY ARCHIBALD CONSTABLE; SECOND EDITION, REVISED BY VINCENT A. SMITH (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS.) 6s. net.

Among a number of European travellers who visited India in considerable lengths of time during the period of the Great Moguls there stand out a few which are of the first importance to the student of the History of India. These have all been made accessible to the English reading public at different times, thanks to the industry of various scholars. The chief place in this galaxy will have to be given to the last of them all, in point of time, the late Mr. Irwine to whom we are indebted for the 4 Volumes of the *Storia-de-Mogar* of Manucci whose work has hitherto been accessible only in an inaccurate paraphrase by Father Catrou, S. J.

Belonging to the same group and having lived in the same period Bernier has been deservedly more popular and had a vogue justified by the accuracy of his information and the brilliance of his narrative. He bore his own part—though not a direct one—and had access to first-hand sources of information from those that played their part in the Rebellion of Aurangzeb.

The first translation of this work was made by Henry Oldenburg, the first Secretary of the Royal Society in 1671-72, and inspired the drama, *Aurangzeb* of Dryden. Even so it was only about a quarter of a century ago that this important work received the attention that it deserved at the hands of Mr. Constable who brought out in 1891, the

first critical edition with notes, as the first book in an Oriental Miscellany Series. For some time even this edition had become hardly available and a new edition was called for for various reasons. "Critical scrutiny has revealed the need for numerous minute emendations in order to correct misprints, typographical defects, mis-spellings of proper names or foreign words, mistakes of interpretation, and errors in sundry matters of fact." The Oxford University Press which has recently been evincing commendable enthusiasm for subjects of Indian History, &c., have brought out under the very careful and learned editorship of Vincent A. Smith this second edition of the book, which in its present form, would be a welcome addition to the library of a student of Indian History. This edition corrects the various shortcomings indicated above and makes two changes in the bibliographical references of considerable importance. The references to Fryer's 'A New Account of East India and Persia' have been altered to suit the new Hakluyt Society edition rather than the inaccessible old edition of 1698 now rare. What is more, the references to Manucci through Catrou have been altered to suit the four volumes issued by Mr. John Murray recently. Various other small emendations are also made but any reference to them in detail seems hardly called for in a review. The work itself is so old and so well-known that any review of it will be superfluous. We owe the Oxford University an apology for the delay which was due to pressure of work and other circumstances beyond control of man.

THE PARTITION OF EUROPE: A TEXT-BOOK OF EUROPEAN HISTORY 1715—1815, BY PHILIP GUEDELLA. (OXFORD: THE CLARENDON PRESS).

This is a handbook, one of a series as it seems, of European History extending over a century from the Reconstitution of Europe by the peace of Utrecht to its reconstruction by the Congress of Vienna. This is the formative period of contemporary Europe and is quite aptly called the partition of Europe which in fact was the leading characteristic of the period. This century is almost wholly occupied for the Continent with the rise to prominence of two very unimportant, nay insignificant powers, one of which has now risen to essay a world-domination and the other struggling manfully against the unmoral forces arrayed on that side: we mean Prussia and Russia. The book before us begins with a clear analysis of the position of the various countries in

Europe as a consequence of the eleven treaties which brought about the pacification after the European War of the Spanish Succession. The Rise of Prussia, the Seven Years' War, the Eastern Question, the American Revolution and the Reign of Diplomacy, are all of them treated briefly and yet clearly leading Europe on to the French Revolution and the Empire.

In the treatment of every one of these subjects the influence of Geography upon History is kept before the eye whether it be in the division of powers, diplomacy or war. There is a refreshing clearness in the treatment of the various problems that demand attention in the course of the narrative and we would commend the book to the notice of those engaged in the teaching of the subject.

EXERCISES IN THE GROUND-WORK OF ARITHMETIC: BOOKS I, 4d. II & III, 6d. each, BY M. PUNNETT (LONGMANS GREEN & CO.).

The exercises are varied and are taken from the several aspects of a child's life. We should like to see such exercises taken from Indian life so as to appeal to Indian children.

PENDLEBURY'S NEW CONCRETE ARITHMETIC: FIVE YEARS' COURSE IN FIVE PARTS. (G. BELL & SONS.)

The exercises are really concrete. The subject of Arithmetic is successfully developed on the principles "from concrete to abstract" and "from the known to the unknown." There are no separate Teachers' books. We are afraid that in the first year course Multiplication and Division are introduced at too early a stage and there is no meaning at all in making the children familiar with exercises like

1) 5 sticks; 1) 2 balls.

BELL'S OUT-DOOR AND IN-DOOR EXPERIMENTAL ARITHMETICS: FIVE BOOKS FOR FIVE YEARS. (G. BELL & SONS.) I, 3d. II, 3d. III, 3d. IV, 4d. V, 4d.

These contain very good exercises of a kind which would interest the child, keep him active and train his hand and eye. We do not know whether such out-door exercises as are given here, are given to the pupils in our Elementary Schools. The appearance of these booklets will, it is hoped, stimulate our teachers to give such exercises to their pupils.

LONGMANS' EXPLICIT ARITHMETICS: PUPILS' BOOKS I, II AND III & TEACHERS' BOOKS I, II & III. 8d. each.

The pupils' books contain merely exercises whereas the teachers' books contain 'answers,' 'methods in teaching' and 'model lessons.' The teachers' books are well planned and we have no doubt that an Elementary School teacher following the instructions contained therein will surely prove a successful teacher of Arithmetic.

NOTES ON BLACKMORE'S LORNA DOONE, BY K. RAMACHANDRACHAR, B.A. (THE TRAVANCORE TIMES PRESS, NAGERCOIL) Price 8 As.

This is a useful booklet for students preparing for the Intermediate Examination, containing summaries of all the chapters and a fairly successful attempt at characterisation. We are not quite sure of the work of summarising a story should not be left to the students themselves. The students may with advantage read the book just before their examination.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

General Phonetics for Missionaries and Students of Languages, by Noël-Armfield. Cambridge: Heffer.

The Hindu Philosophy of Conduct, Vol. I, by Rao Bahadur M. Rangacharya, M.A. Madras: Law Printing House. Rs. 5.

Geography of the British Empire in Telugu, by M. Sitarama Rao, B.A., L.T. Rajamundry. 10 as.

Stories from the Bharatam in Telugu, by M. Sitarama Rao, B.A., L.T. Rajamundry. 3 as. 6 ps.

A Conscience Clause for Indians in Indian Education Codes, by the Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, B.A., L.T. Triplicane. 2 as.

Selected Telugu Proverbs. C.L.S. Madras. 8 as. Satsamaya Vilakkam, by the Rev. H. A. Papley. Madras. C.L.S. 4 as.

The Pupils' Class Book of English History, Book IV, The Hanoverians and Modern Times, by Ed. J. S. Lay. London: Macmillan. 8d.

Stories from the Earthly Paradise, by O. S. Evans. London: Edward Arnold. 1s. 6d.

Akalikai Venba, by V. P. Subramania Mudaliar. Madras: Ripon Press.

Elements of Commercial Arithmetic, by T. Brown. F.R.S.S., London: Pitman. 1s. net.

Practical Geometry for Indian Schools, by R. D. Karve, M.A. Part I, 12 as. Part II, Re. 1-6. London: Bell.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

A Memorial Meeting: the late Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar.—There was a memorial meeting held at the School of Commerce Hall on Friday, the 3rd instant, at 5-45 P.M., under the presidency of the Rev. H. Jones, M.A., Chaplain, Calicut, to concert measures to perpetuate the memory of the late Headmaster, Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar.

PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

Gentlemen,—I feel sorry that I have to preside over this meeting to-night. I have been trying to recollect how and when I first made the acquaintance of the late Rao Sahib. I met him at the Jubilee Town Hall in 1910 or 1911 when I had the pleasure of presiding over an anniversary meeting in connection with the school. I seldom met a man more universally esteemed and admired than the late Rao Sahib and seldom was any town more moved than Calicut over his death. His death was strikingly in keeping with his life. Though the most active of men, teaching, speaking or expounding some theories of life he was the gentlest, quietest and the most modest of men. He made no display of his busy life. He did not walk about with a flurry of trumpets.

Well, if you ask me to mention the outstanding virtue of Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar I should mention sincerity first. He would do or say nothing which he believed to be wrong and if by chance he had said or done anything amiss he would be the first to make amends for it. He was eminently of an open-minded nature and even the slightest mistakes revealed this uprightness of character. Yet he was uncompromising in his loyalty to convictions. He was a reformer and as a reformer he held very definite and convincing opinions. He was again one of the strictest disciplinarians and as such I believe he was a man who would not exempt any of his pupils from the punishment which he deserved.

There is another element of his character which I must reveal to you and that is Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar as a public speaker. His chief characteristics as a speaker were to my mind primeness, elegance and finish. Primeness is prosaic but you could

seldom meet a man who has such control and command over the English language. He had a very terse way of speaking and his speech and delivery resembled a well-laid-out, carefully planned and very nicely trimmed garden of bushes. There was no forest with dark recesses and ambiguous whisperings in his utterances. His mind was of a clear and precise type which delighted in analysing facts and in presenting truths already verified. And this brings me to my last point and that is the man's personal character. He was strict without being curt. He was kind to all and at the same time discriminating. He loved the artless and the men of talents. He had his own gallery of men whom he honoured and those entitled to a place in that gallery were men with some real merit. He rose to a high, social and intellectual altitude. The loss of Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar is indeed irreparable.

It is to honour the name of such a man as this that we have come together to-night. We can do very little for him now. Yet I can imagine some one asking what is the good of doing anything and to that question I reply 'The best things in life worth doing are the things that do not pay.' Does he know what we are doing here to-night. We cannot tell and we cannot prove that he does. And we cannot prove that he does not. But whether he knows or not what we are going to do will be done in love for the memory of the man who has sacrificed his life to the welfare of the community and to whom the community at large owes a priceless tribute.

Mr. Mangeri S. Rama Aiyer, B.A., B.L., moved the first resolution, which was "That this meeting of the students and admirers of the late Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar resolve to perpetuate his memory by a fitting memorial, the nature and form of which may be decided by a Managing Committee to be appointed."—Mr. Rama Aiyer in moving the resolution said that in the death of Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar many of them lost a friend and a trusted colleague and his students a very beloved teacher. He would recall certain important incidents of his life. Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar was born in 1862 in the village of Srivanchiam in the Tanjore District. He was educated in the Kumbakonam College. Early in life he embraced the profession of teaching and became a teacher in the Rajahmundry College. While at Rajahmundry he acquired his knowledge of Shorthand and became an ardent enthusiast in Phonography. Subsequently he became a Shorthand instructor in the new School of Commerce attached to the Pachaiyappa's College, Madras. It was during this time that his services were requisitioned by one of the leading dailies of Madras, *The Hindu*, for reporting some of the public lectures delivered by Mrs. Besant at Madras. His reports were always very thorough. It was not thought of either by Mr. Aiyar or any of his friends that he was soon after to become a staunch and faithful follower of the great lady—Mrs. Annie Besant—whose lectures he was engaged to report. In 1895 when the Government started the School of Commerce at Calicut

he was taken over as Assistant to Mr. K. Subramania Aiyar, the then Headmaster. Mr. Subramania Aiyar shortly after the founding of the school left for Bombay and Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyer became the Headmaster. The history of the next 20 years of the School of Commerce was a brilliant record of progress achieved in all directions. It seemed to the speaker that Mr. Aiyar's career and activities might broadly be classified into two:—(1) Educational and (2) Civic.

As to his educational activities, the commodious building in which they assembled that evening and the strength on the rolls amounting to the record of 386 students were sufficient monuments. As regards his Civic activities he would draw their attention to the fact that whether it was a Famine Relief Committee, a Durbar, a Religious Conference or an Inter-Collegiate Tournament of Sports, Mr. Aiyar was sure to be one of the Secretaries or prominent office-bearers. It was his interest in the physical regeneration of the young men that made him found the Cup for Football in the West Coast.

The speaker, in the course of his interesting and graphic speech, read out extracts of references and compliments paid to Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar by several distinguished personages. Among those were included Lord Ampthill, Sir Arthur Lawley and Herbert Spencer. In conclusion Mr. Rama Aiyar said that he was confident that he could imagine that the late Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyer must be as busy in the world beyond as he was here, joyous, glad, serene and peaceful.

Mr. S. S. Gopala Krishnan, B.A., L.T., First Assistant, Basel Mission College, in seconding the Resolution, briefly summed up the history of the Calicut School of Commerce and Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyer's connection with the same. After paying a touching and eloquent tribute to the memory of the deceased as one of the ablest exponents, the speaker said his activities were not confined merely to the four walls of his School but extended much further. There was in fact no phase of public life at Calicut with which the late Rao Sahib was not intimately associated in some capacity or other. He was for some time a useful Municipal Councillor, a trusted Honorary Magistrate, and latterly the President of the Zamorin's College Board of Management. It was in 1910 the Government conferred on him the title of Rao Sahib in recognition of his services to the public. His speeches, full of well-arranged thought and eloquence, fine felicitous expressions, rich varied vocabulary, delivered in a charming manner with sweet modulation and correct intonation were very impressive.

Mr. K. Krishna Menon who supported the proposition said that to his students Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar was a bean-ideal of a teacher. But in making a larger appeal to the public for funds he would draw their attention to the fact that the genius and services of Mr. Vaidyanatha Aiyar were of the most varied order and that his splendid powers of mind were at the disposal of every good cause till the end of his days.

The second Resolution appointing a Managing Committee, composed of the following gentlemen:—Messrs. M. S. Rama Aiyar, B. A., B. L., L. T. Anantanarayana Sastri Headmaster, School of Commerce, S. S. Gopala Krishnan, B. A., L. T., V. P. Achutha Menon, B. A., L. T., V. K. Menon, B. A., T. S. Krishna Sastri and K. Krishna Menon, were proposed by Mr. K. N. Chidambaram Aiyar, B.A., Commercial Asst. Government College, Managalore, and seconded by Mr. V. K. Menon, B.A., Manager, The Furniture Co., Ltd., Calicut.

A subscription list was taken round at the close of the meeting and an amount of Rs. 248 was collected on the spot.

The meeting dispersed after the usual vote of thanks by Mr. V. P. Achutha Menon, B. A., L. T., Assistant, School of Commerce.

The function was a unique success, and great credit is due to our present beloved Headmaster, Mr. L. T. Anantanarayana Sastri who organised the whole function.

The American College, Madura.—The Anniversary and Prize-giving of the American College was held in the Assembly Hall, Tallakulam, on the 24th instant. Major Dewan Ganpat Rai, I.M.S., District Medical and Sanitary Officer, presided on the occasion. The spacious hall, which was tastefully decorated, was crowded to its utmost capacity. A beautiful stage was specially erected and the students of the College enacted creditably well select scenes from Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice, Julius Cæsar and Hamlet. Mr. P. R. Krishnaswamy, Lecturer in English, recited Mr. Kipling's "Tommy."

Rev. W. W. Wallace, M.A., Principal, read the report of the College for the academic year 1914-15. The year was noteworthy as marking the maximum enrolment of students, including the first B. A. Class, 11 in number, to appear for the University Examination. The average number on the rolls was 292, of whom 50 per cent. were Brahmmins, 25 per cent. Non-Brahmin Hindus, 25 per cent. Christians and 2 per cent. Mahammadans. 154 students were residents in the College Hostels. After the prizes had been given away by Miss Noyes of the Mangalapuram Girls' High School, Major Ganpat Rai, the Chairman, made some interesting remarks. With the usual vote of thanks proposed by Mr. S. Mahadeva Iyer and with the singing of the National Anthem, the meeting terminated.

The Karandai Tamil Sangam at Tanjore.—The fourth anniversary of this Sangam took place on the 18th instant at Karanthattankudy, Dewan Bahadur S. B. M. Ramaswamy Chettiar, Chairman of the Chidambaram Municipality, presiding. The attendance was large despite the inclemency of the weather.

The report read showed progress in the various spheres of activity that the Sangam was engaged

in to improve the Tamil language and its literature, such as original investigations, the examining and editing of certain existing works, the publication of a periodical journal and generally, in the spread of the movement over all parts of the Tamil country.

The President in a lengthy address delivered by him took a comprehensive retrospect into the distant past of Tamil, touching a vast variety of unexplored and uninvestigated topics. Dwelling on the present condition of Tamil, he deplored the scant consideration that it has received from the University, which had relegated it to a very inconspicuous place in the curriculum of studies in the schools and colleges. Tamil Sangams, all over the land, should endeavour to do, what the University has failed to do, using to the utmost of their power and resources and opportunities for the re-vivification of Tamil, its language and its literature and for the restoration of it to the position of eminence it once occupied among the refined classics of the country now reduced to neglect and decay for want of support from the State and the people alike.

A Hostel for the Salem College.—The opening ceremony of the Salem College Hostel was celebrated with great eclat on the 8th instant with Rao Bahadur T. Subramania Aiyar, Chairman of the Salem Municipality, in the chair. Mr. P. Seshadri, the Principal of the College, in inviting the Chairman to declare the Hostel open made an interesting speech on the importance of residential life among students and on the excellent examples set by the English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Though the Madras University was mainly an examining body like the University of London, he was glad to see that the projected Universities of Dacca, Nagpore and Benares and the Mahomedan University of Aligarh would be residential as well as academical and thus make their influence far-reaching. He then gave an account of the origin and development of the scheme and closed with a few words of advice to the students.

The Chairman in response to the Principal's invitation made an eloquent speech in the course of which he traced the various stages, the scheme for the Hostel had to pass through before the institution became an accomplished fact. He could gladly associate the name of his predecessor Mr. E. S. Ramaswamy Aiyar, Rao Bahadur, with the scheme though he had the good fortune to be in the position to start the hostel. The Chairman further commended the services of the Educational Committee of the Council and especially of Mr. T. M. Balakrishna Chettiar in the working out of the scheme. He took the opportunity to state that the Hostel was one of the numerous things connected with the College for which they were beholden to the new Principal. The party then moved into the spacious apartments of the building and after inspecting the kitchens and the dining hall, dispersed.

F. L. and B. L. Examination.—A meeting of the students of the Law College was held recently in the Law College with the Hon'ble Mr. F. H. M. Corbett, Advocate-General, in the chair, to pass a Resolution to request the University to hold half-yearly examination for F. L. and B. L. examinations under the Old Regulations.

The Chairman, in his opening remarks, said that the object of the meeting was to request the University for an extension of their indulgence to the students who suffered from the alteration in the course of the studies. He personally believed that two years course was insufficient and he would not sympathise with those who objected to an extension, but he did feel that they were entitled to sympathy in regard to the number of examinations left open to them. In England they had four chances every year. Therefore it seemed to him that their request was quite justified.

A telegram of sympathy received from Trivandrum was then read.

Mr. E. Sankaranunni then moved the following Resolution:—"That the students of the Law College assembled in meeting humbly pray the Syndicate to recommend to the Senate that half-yearly examinations for the F. L. and the B. L. under the Old Regulations be held till after 1918."

The mover, in an able speech, pointed out after quoting statistics, that there would be at the end of 1918 over 300 disappointed young men left adrift if the present rules were not amended. If the examinations were made half-yearly a greater number would be able to get through and he asked whether it was not better that a less number should be left adrift than a greater number.

The Resolution was supported in able speeches by Messrs. I. L. Venkataraman, R. Venkatarama Murthi and C. V. Krishnayya and was carried unanimously.

A Resolution requesting the Chairman to communicate the Resolution to the University was then passed.

The Tanjore District Teachers' Guild.—A meeting of the Guild was held in the High School, Tirukattupalli, on the 4th instant, Rao Bahadur S. Appu Sastriar presided and Mr. K. Seshu Aiyar, Headmaster, Municipal High School, Mayavaram, delivered a very interesting and thoughtful lecture on 'The necessity for the conservation of Secondary Education.'

The first business transacted was the discussion of the rules of the Guild which were adopted with a few alterations. It was thought necessary to make the Tanjore District Secondary Teachers' Association more comprehensive by changing its name to "The Tanjore District Teachers' Guild" so as to enable it to enroll as members, teachers in Elementary Schools and lecturers of Colleges. By another important rule power was given to the Council of the Guild to recommend for Honorary Membership distinguished managers and members of managing bodies of institutions. With a view to enable the Guild to start a quarterly journal of its

transactions and to establish a Central Educational Library and Bureau of information on educational methods and movements in progressive foreign countries the rates of subscriptions were slightly enhanced inducements being, however, given to teachers in a particular locality in the shape of a reduced, lump subscription to form themselves into a local Association and affiliate the Association to the Guild.

The Pasumalai High School.—The seventieth Anniversary and the Prize-distribution ceremony of the American Mission High School and Training Institution, Pasumalai, was celebrated on the 3rd instant in the Washburn Hall under the presidency of Rao Bahadur W. L. Venkataramayya, District and Sessions Judge of Ramnad. The Hall was tastefully decorated with flags, festoons and foliage plants and a very large gathering of gentlemen, students and ladies was present. The meeting began with an introductory recitation and the singing of the Battle Hymn of the Republic. Rev. J. J. Banninga led the audience in prayer, after which the boys went through a varied and interesting programme of songs, recitations and dialogues.

Mr. Mannickavasagam, Headmaster of the High School presented the report for the past year, in the course of which he said that the institutions at Pasumalai have stood their ground with unflinching resolve and despite difficulties and discouragements advanced their labour of love of equipping and training nearly 600 boys for entering upon the battle of life with hopes and ambitions to achieve success. Referring to the work of the High School, Mr. Douglas, Inspector of Schools, remarked:—"The school continues to deserve the respect which it has never failed to receive from every one who is connected with its aims, methods and achievements."

The Chairman spoke on the value of manual training imparted in the school and congratulated the authorities responsible for the institution of this course of study.

Mrs. W. Wallace gave away the prizes and certificates. The National Anthem was sung and the meeting came to a happy close.

Annual Report of Government Technical Examinations.—The annual report of the Hon'ble Mr. H. S. Duncan, M.A., Acting Commissioner for Government Examinations, on the Technical and Special Test Examinations, etc., held under the control of the Commissioner during the year 1914-15, gives indications of a steady increase in the number of individual candidates registered and in the number of passed candidates in the several examinations during the year. In pursuance of a G. O. No. 1177, Educational, dated the 15th October 1914 the date of the examination in Minor Sanitary Engineering was altered from June to December. The examination was therefore held twice during the year in June and in December. The examination in the subject of Vernacular Short-hand which was

included among the subjects of the Technical examination scheme was conducted for the first time during the year and several candidates appeared for the elementary grade in Tamil, Telugu and Malayalam Short-hand. There was a distinct increase in the number of candidates registered for all three grades of the short-hand examination. In the Special Test Examinations the percentage of passes was better than that of the previous year in the case of the Translation Test (Higher grade), the Account Test, the Civil Judicial Test, the Code of Criminal Procedure (Lower grade) and the Jail Test; the lowest percentage was in the Precise-writing Test. Mr. George Maddox, the Secretary to the Commissioner, and his diligent staff deserve high praise for their good work.

Subsidising Enemy institutions.—The following Order—1096 L., dated 7th August 1915, relating to the question of subsidising educational and other institutions directed by Germans and Austrians has been issued:—

It has been decided that, as a matter of general policy, it is not proper, during the war, to continue to subsidise institutions directed by members of nations with whom hostilities are in progress and that unless there are exceptional reasons to the contrary such grants should now cease. This principle is also applicable to subsidies given from public funds administered by Local Boards and Municipalities. The Director of Public Instruction has accordingly been requested to give notice at once in respect of all educational institutions which are conducted or controlled by members of nations with whom hostilities are in progress that all grants to them, either from Government funds or from public funds administered by local bodies, will cease with effect from the 30th September 1915. Any actual specific promise of assistance should however be fulfilled and regard should be had to the interests of individuals, particularly young children, who have hitherto been dependent on these missions. The Director of Public Instruction has been requested to ascertain and report what educational institutions will be closed in consequence of this order and what will be the results of such closure upon individual teachers and others; to consult Collectors and also if necessary the Missionary Educational Council of South India as to the future management of such institutions; and to submit proposals on the subject to the Government. Similar instructions have been given to the Surgeon-General in respect of medical institutions which will be affected by these orders.

Salem Teachers' Association.—Under the auspices of the Salem Teachers' Association, Mrs. T. C. Witney, delivered on the 16th instant, an interesting lecture on "School and College Hygiene" with Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., Principal of the local college in the chair. The lecture was largely attended and besides all the members of the educational institutions in the

town, there were present the Hon. Mr. B. V. Narasimha Iyer, Dr. Mathias, Mr. P. G. Rama Iyer, Miss Orouch, Mr. C. Rajagopalachari and others. The lecturer dwelt on the importance of School and College Hygiene and suggested that a knowledge of the subject must be insisted upon in every person before being allowed to undertake the duties of a teacher. She then discussed, with special reference to India, the principles that ought to regulate food, ventilation and light and wound up with the exhortation that teachers must see that their students did not acquire bad habits, for that would destroy their health and lead to lamentable degeneracy. The Chairman regretted the want of attention to Hygiene patent in Indian Schools and Colleges and was sorry that Physiology had been removed from the compulsory part of the Intermediate Course. He would welcome even the introduction of an advanced manual of Hygiene in the Intermediate Classes. The Indian habit of having the heaviest meal in the morning, immediately before work, must be put an end to, and that, among various things, accounted for the poor health of the average educated Indian. Juveniles maxim of a sound mind in a sound body was seen to be specially true with regard to the qualities of sustained intellectual vigour, in which the Indian was lacking, though he was keen and subtle. In bringing up students in Schools and Colleges in the principles of Hygiene, there was also the advantage of spreading a knowledge of the subject in the community and ensuring the general well-being of the nation. The meeting dispersed with the usual vote of thanks.

The Madras Poor Boys' Fund.—The Report for the year ending 30th June 1915 shows that the revised Educational Rules which enhanced the school and college fees placed higher education in a large measure beyond the reach of the poorer classes. The result was that poor and capable students anxious to avail themselves of the advantages of higher education were obliged to knock from door to door for private charity. This state of affairs attracted the notice of a few of the generous and public-spirited leaders of the city of Madras, and it was in April 1910 that this Fund was started with the sole object of affording relief on a systematic basis to poor and intelligent students on a consideration of their comparative merits and poverty. The relief is now limited to Hindu boys studying in the colleges of the city of Madras, the scholarship for the Intermediate classes being Rs. 7 per mensem and that for the B.A. Pass and Honours courses Rs. 10. Applications for help are usually called for by advertisements in the local dailies, as well as by the publication of notices in the Colleges. These applications are carefully scrutinised by a committee of educationists and candidates are selected from among the poorest and the intelligent.

The conditions of the tenure of the scholarship are good conduct, good character and regular promotion in the college classes or success in the public examination. It is also necessary that the selected candidate should be a bachelor and should not be in

receipt of any other help, and the scholarship is discontinued if he marries or receives help from other sources. The scholars are also required to produce certificates once in six months from their Principals of respective colleges and the certificates so produced are scrutinised by the Committee.

During the year under review, two have passed the B. A. degree examination, 6 the Intermediate examination and the rest were duly promoted to higher classes.

The amount of subscriptions collected during the year including last year's balance is Rs. 3,318-6-3 and this, unlike in the previous year, was enough for distribution for twelve months. The total expenditure incurred was Rs. 1,679-10-0 leaving a balance of Rs. 1,638-12-3 to the credit of the Fund in the Madras Central Urban Bank.

The work of the institution is noble and admirable and the Report is a record of commendable activity of the Committee of Management, and the Secretary, Mr. C. Ramaswamy Iyengar in this sacred cause. The institution merits greater patronage from the generous public and the cause needs wider support from the philanthropic gentlemen of the Presidency.

A Girls' High School for Mangalore.—A crowded meeting of the public of Mangalore requisitioned by the prominent citizens of Mangalore assembled in the Government College Hall on the 2nd instant, with Rao Bahadur A. Ramayya Punja, Retired District Judge, in the chair, to concert measures for the establishment of a Government Secondary School for Girls in Mangalore. A large and representative gathering was present.

After the object of the meeting was explained to the gentlemen present by Mr. K. Ranga Rao, who read the notice signed by the conveners of the meeting, Mr. S. Raghunathayya proposed Rao Bahadur A. Ramayya Punja, B.A., B.L., Retired District Judge, to the chair.

The following resolution was put to the vote and carried:—"That this meeting of the public of Mangalore is of opinion that a Government Secondary School for Girls is an indispensable necessity for the town of Mangalore." A committee was formed for preparing a memorial and submitting the same to the Government, and a deputation of a number of gentlemen was authorised to wait upon the Government of Madras to urge the establishment of a Secondary school for girls in Mangalore.

Board High School, Dharapuram.—The interesting function of giving away prizes to the successful pupils of this school came off on the 21st instant in the George, Coronation Hall of the school. The school house was beautifully decorated with flags and festoons. Mr. A. R. Cumming, I.C.S., Collector of the District, presided, and there was a large gathering of official and non-official gentlemen, besides the teachers and pupils. The proceedings began with Sanskrit recitations, and the singing of Tamil songs. Mr. Panchapagesaiah, Headmaster,

next read his Annual Report for the year 1914-15. At present this is the biggest Secondary School under this District Board. The school commenced its work with 446 pupils on the rolls, and closed with 474. The average daily attendance was 89 per cent. and therefore satisfactory. The strength of the school has progressively increased from 98 in 1896 to 164 in 1906.

Mrs. Cumming then gave away the prizes, and it was gratifying to observe several gentlemen of the locality having contributed towards the expenses of the same. In the course of his speech, Mr. Cumming expressed that it was a great pleasure to himself and his wife to be present there and to take part in the functions of the evening. The Dharapuram High School was perhaps the best in the district of which the District Board may well be proud. The efficient condition of the school as evidenced by the results, reflected great credit upon the headmaster and his assistants. The request for the strengthening of the staff and increase of salaries was a very proper one in the circumstances. He had in two days acquired first-hand knowledge of the school and become convinced of the keen necessity for improving the school play-ground and the compound walls. He congratulated the prize-winners and exhorted the rest of the boys to strive this year to prevent the same set of pupils from getting prizes next year.

The National High School, Trichinopoly.—The thirteenth annual celebration of the School Day of this institution took place on the 11th instant. In the morning, there were sports at which the prizes were distributed by the District Judge, Mr. H. O. D. Harding, I.C.S. In the evening, a public meeting was held under the presidency of Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar, High Court Vakil, Madras, when Mr. A. S. Balasubramania Iyer, Sub-Judge, delivered an interesting lecture on the cost of education.

The Chairman, in the course of his remarks, said:—

In spite of the difficulties to the poor students and to their poor parents which the system had created, and multiplied in diverse ways, and in spite, also of defects and shortcomings, education had made marked advance amongst them. It was an old-fashioned idea that English education had demoralised and denationalised their youths. On the other hand, they were being disciplined and improved and elevated in their new atmosphere and were full of promise to their country. In educational matters, as perhaps in others, experts held the sway and there was, about their views, a certain amount of this value and academical unrealities to which laymen must refuse to surrender their judgment. Education existed for the boys and their parents, and not for experts and for their experiments.

These speeches were preceded by the unveiling by Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Iyengar, of the Bromide enlargements of the founders of the National High

School, Messrs. G. Sessa Iyengar, and P. G. Sundra Sastry.

On the 13th instant, the interesting function of giving away prizes to the successful pupils came off, a number of its friends, its teachers and students assembling in the School Hall. Raja Sri Vairicherla Veerabhadra Razu Bahadur Garu, Raja of Kurupam, presided. The proceedings commenced with the reading of the Address of Welcome presented to him by the "alumni" of the school and read on their behalf by Mr. M. M. Balakrishna Sastrial, referring briefly to the history of the school, its aims and its defects at present and wishing the guest to associate himself with it as a token of his visit to that sacred city. The Raja thankfully acknowledged it, congratulating the founders on the project of a hostel and on the imparting of religious instruction. He also exhorted the district people to satisfy the need and develop it into a college. He was then taken round the buildings.

In the absence of Mr. Desikacuari, President of the School Committee, Mr. Seshu Iyengar, Headmaster, next read his annual report for the year 1914-15. In the course of his address the Rajah of Kurupam said:—Another hopeful feature of our educational prospects is the appointment of Sir C. Sankaran Nair to the educational portfolio of the Government of India. I need hardly say that I share in the universal satisfaction with which his appointment to His Excellency the Viceroy's Executive Council has been received by the people of this country. Himself one of the best products of our University system, and a patriot to the core, he knows what the needs of the country are and he will endeavour as far as circumstances permit, to improve educational facilities.

BOMBAY.

Education of the Depressed Classes.—A pamphlet issued by the Bombay Government on the subject of education of the depressed and backward classes shows that owing to the complexity of the problem the results achieved cannot be called successful. The depressed (who are regarded as untouchables by the Hindus), backward, and criminal castes and tribes are a vast congeries of various types, possessed of no solidarity of opinion, even when they live in close connection with one another. These castes and tribes are often at variance. As a reason for the poor results achieved in spreading education among these classes, it is stated that the depressed castes have brains, but have neither the character nor the opportunity for progress. The backward tribes have opportunity, but not the brains or character, while the criminal tribes have none of these things. The Mahars and Dheds who form the bulk of the untouchable population of the Presidency, are possessed of admirable brains, and considering the extraordinary difficulties under which their education has to be conducted in ordinary schools on the verandah, away from the master's eye, and in special schools by badly qualified instructors, the results achieved are not dis-

couraging. The aboriginal tribes live in remoter regions, where education is not easily obtainable, and they are shy of education. Education among the depressed classes depends mainly on the sympathy of the public. The spread of education among the wild tribes depends almost entirely on official effort. Special encouragement by the Government was given to the aboriginal tribes in the shape of distribution of grain and money, and a class for the training of teachers was opened. The progress, nevertheless, has been unsatisfactory. The pamphlet concludes:—"The education of all these miscellaneous tribes and castes is being pushed forward as far as circumstances will admit. The ground won has to be consolidated before any further advance can be made. The shortage of teachers, which has been from the first the most acute difficulty, has, in the case of the aborigines and the hill tribes, been largely overcome. It is still an obstacle to the education of the untouchables. The position of these castes and tribes in future depends partly on themselves and partly on those more favoured Indian communities which by extending the hand of human comradeship, or by hardening their hearts and averting their faces, have it in their power to elevate or to degrade them."

A donation.—Rao Saheb Rawi Ramachandra Kale, Public Prosecutor, Satara, has given a donation of Rs. 2,000 to the new English School, Satara, conducted by the Deccan Education Society, Poona.

Donations.—The Maharani of Baroda in addition to Rs. 1,50,000 contributed for Hindu ladies' education, also made donations of Rs. 25,000 to the Delhi Ladies' College and Rs. 6,000 to the Baroda Chimanbhai High School.

CALCUTTA.

Mathematical Society.—An ordinary meeting of the Calcutta Mathematical Society was held at the Senate House on the 9th instant, the Hon'ble Justice Sir Asutosh Mukherjee, C. I. E., presiding. Three learned papers of profound scientific interest were read by well-known scientists, which included a paper from Professor G. H. Byran, F.R.S., on the "Stability of Plane Kites."

Sometime ago Mr. C. V. Raman published a note in the bulletin of the Calcutta Mathematical Society on the "Stability and vibrations of the plane kite," in which he put forward certain suggestions as to the exact tone and manner in which the forked attachment of the string to the kite secures its stability. Professor G. H. Byran who is a well-known authority on the subject of the stability of aeroplanes and whose work has received recognition from the Aeronautical Society of Great Britain, has written a short note which has been communicated to the Calcutta Mathematical Society, in which he said that he considers Mr. Raman's suggestion perfectly correct and had pointed out how it could be further developed mathematically.

Another paper has been contributed by Mr. Raman to the meeting, in which he deals with the mathematical theory underlying the violin. It has recently been discovered by him that the variations of the character of the tone produced by the changes in the velocity and pressure of the bow were accompanied, or rather produced by certain minute changes in the nature of a motion at the bowed point of the string which has now been observed by him for the first time. It has been observed that, while the bow carries forward the string with its own velocity, the return motion has a non-uniform velocity instead of a uniform one, as had been supposed up to now, and Mr. Raman has demonstrated, both experimentally and mathematically, that it is the non-uniformity that produces the alteration of character with the variation in the method of applying the bow.

ALLAHABAD.

The Indian Science Congress.—The third annual Science Congress will be held at Allahabad on 13th, 14th and 15th January next. His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor has consented to be the patron, and the local Committee has been fortunate in securing Col. Sir Sidney Burrard as President. The Congress which was held in Madras last year is run on the lines of the British Association for the Advancement of Science and is divided into a number of sections. Sir Sidney Burrard will deliver a presidential address and papers will be read by Dr. Sudborough of the Indian Institute of Science, Dr. Woodland of Allahabad, Dr. Simpson of the Meteorological Department, Dr. Howard of Pusa and others. It is hoped that Dr. Bose of Calcutta will be persuaded to lecture on his own researches and that other lectures will be given of general interest. The local Secretaries are Dr. Hill, Principal, Muir Central College and Mr. Macmohan of Canning College, Lucknow, to the latter of whom communications should be addressed.

PUNJAB.

Education in Kashmir.—The Official Report of the Conference of Educational Officers of the Kashmir State that was held on 8th and 9th September has been issued. The Kashmir Minister of Education explained in his speech that rapid strides had been made in education during the last 8 years. The expansion of education had gone up at a very rapid pace. Great impetus has been given to the spread of female education. Pay of teachers has been raised and buildings have been provided where accommodation was urgently needed. But it has been the Maharaja Saheb's ardent desire as His Highness himself states in one of his letters to his Minister, that the benefits of primary education should be brought within reach of all boys in the State with a view to equip them with the necessary qualifications to become good citizens, good artists, good traders, good agriculturists and good servants of State. A number of useful Resolutions have been passed including the appointment of a sub-committee to draw up a scheme of studies for

rural schools providing for medical inspection of students in larger towns and in the mofussil, reducing school hours in summer months and appointing a sub-committee for the preparation of a complete scheme of studies for girls' schools. One Resolution commends the ideal of one teacher for every 30 students in infant classes and of 40 students in other classes, providing at the same time that larger numbers may continue and admission to classes be not refused.

MYSORE.

Education in Mysore.—One of the noteworthy features of the present administration in Mysore is the impetus given to primary education by the sanction of a large sum of money for the purpose. The people have not been slow in utilizing the opportunity thus opened to them and the opening of a number of schools in the villages—in every nook and corner of the Province—has been the order of the day. Following on the example set by two sowcars for the cause of education at Atuballe, Mr. Muniswamappa, a rich toddy contractor of Hosur and Anekal Taluqs invested no less than Rs. 12,000 in raising a building for the location of a Practical Instruction School at Anekal, which was formally declared open on the 18th instant by Sirdar M. Kantaraj Urs, C. S. I., Second Councillor, who also the same day laid the foundation stone of the London Mission School, the effort of missionary enterprise and the ungrudging labour of the Rev. S. J. Cox, M. A., whose disinterested services to the cause of education no Mysorean can ignore. Another school was recently opened for the benefit of the boys of Bidadi village by Rao Bahadur M. Shama Rau, M. A., Inspector-General of Education in Mysore.

TRAVANCORE.

The Director of Public Instruction.—Dr. A. W. Bishop, the Director of Public Instruction, has tendered his resignation on account of ill-health and is leaving this for England. An extremely fair-minded, sweet-tempered and conscientious officer and a perfect gentleman, it would have been much better if he had retired as Principal of His Highness the Maharaja's College. Having entered the State service in 1894 as Professor of Chemistry, he worked in that capacity for 15 years with signal success and earned wide popularity as a successful teacher of great driving power and sympathy. In 1909 he became Principal when Dr. A. C. Mitchell was made the first Director of Public Instruction and finally succeeded him on his retirement from service in 1912 as the Director. Though he was not much of a success either as Principal or as Director, the impression that Dr. Bishop leaves behind is that "he is a good man, and true." In his place Mr. L. C. Hodgson, the Principal, has been appointed. Mr. A. K. Raja Raja Varma, M. A., M. R. A. S., has been made the Acting Principal and Mr. K. Paramu Pillai, M. A., the Professor of English in the place of Mr. Hodgson.

Foreign.

Education of girls and women in India:—Sir Krishna Gupta presided at a meeting held in London recently, for the purpose of adopting a memorial to Mr. Chamberlain, the Secretary of State for India, on the subject of the education of women and girls in India. The memorial, adopted on the motion of Mr. Yusuf Ali, seconded by Lady Emily Lutyen, while recognizing the inherent difficulties of the subject on account of the customs and social prejudices of the people, and gratefully acknowledging the past efforts of the Government, expressed disappointment that the number of girls under instruction in British India is only the equivalent of 3910 for every million of the population. It held that the enormous disparity of one to five in the number of girls and boys under instruction in British India constitutes a grave danger to the social well-being of the Indian communities. The memorialists prayed that the whole question should be thoroughly examined by a representative committee, consisting mainly of Indians of all communities, including Indian ladies, in association with ladies connected with or interested in education in the United Kingdom.

Sir Krishna Gupta, answering the possible objection that the present time is unsuitable for pressing the question forward, said that the war, though occupying much attention in India, was not so all-absorbing as in Great Britain, and people had time and opportunity to think of other things as well. But the main consideration for going forward was that the education membership was about to be filled, for the first time, by an Indian, Sir Sankaran Nair, who had given much attention to social and educational reform; and the promoters felt it most desirable that great progress should be made in this important matter during his tenure. A committee was appointed, with Sir Krishna Gupta as Chairman, and Yusuf Ali and Miss Bonargie as Joint Honorary Secretaries, to take the necessary further steps.—Special to *The Christian Science Monitor*.

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The Educational Review.

The proposal of a Fellow of the Calcutta University to create a committee of enquiry, practically for the purpose of reducing the number of passes at the University examinations, or, as one Fellow put it with grim humour, to improve the faulty minting of the University has been not only frustrated but has led the joint Faculties of Arts and Sciences (these Faculties in Calcutta are not moribund bodies as in Madras) to accept with enthusiasm Sir Asutosh Mukherjee's motion for the appointment of a committee of 16 to enquire into what improvements can be effected in schools and colleges affiliated to the University and to suggest improvements in the courses, standards and methods of examination. There was violent opposition on the part of sundry Fellows who protested against the uselessness of the enquiry, because they held the wonderful theory that all that was necessary to be known was known already. We are glad that the opposition to the proposed enquiry collapsed; as we have very often contended in these columns, education can be improved only by improving schools, their equipment, methods of teaching, syllabuses of instruction and not by suddenly raising the standards of examinations and keeping down the number of passes at examinations. This latter is the device of the lazy teacher, who wants to get into his classes only the cream of the students,

so that even if he does his work indifferently, his pupils may get on with their work and pass their examinations with the minimum trouble to him. We are glad that the common sense of the Calcutta Fellows has made them stand by their former Vice-Chancellor who has done so much for their University and defeat the machinations of the lazy pedagogue and the unsympathetic examiner whose only remedy for all educational ills is to keep down the number of passes.

The Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler laid the other day on the table of the Imperial Legislative Council a summary, showing the steps taken during the last two years to promote free elementary education. We welcome the statement because it is an acknowledgment that it is the duty of Government to provide free elementary education to the people at large; but we consider that the actual provision so far made is of the feeblest kind. In the Madras Presidency it is announced that no fees are levied in elementary schools under public management from pupils belonging to castes and classes declared by the Government to be backward. This statement loses its grandeur when it is remembered that the bulk of elementary schools are not under public management. With regard to aided schools, the capitation grant for a pupil of a backward class was raised from annas ten to a Rupee in order to induce managers freely to admit backward class pupils. In view

of the fact that most "managers" are but the elementary schoolmasters themselves, it would worth a special enquiry to find how much, if any, relief has actually reached backward class pupils as a result of this provision. In Bombay three schools are maintained for factory children from provincial funds. The difficulties of these schools in the matter of getting children to join them we referred to in these columns last month. Besides this 15 to 25 per cent. of free seats have been allotted in Local Board schools in certain districts and special grants are being awarded on behalf of the education of children of aborigines, criminal tribes and depressed classes. All which is very commendable, but it is not these classes that will benefit most by free elementary education but the poorer children of the relatively higher classes who alone will grow into the average citizens of the future—the real "masses" of the population. In Bengal nothing seems to have been done for free elementary education. In the Central Provinces the proportion of free pupils admissible has been raised from 20 to 25 per cent. but we are not told whether this provision has been utilized by the poorer elements of the population. In certain respects, the educational administration of the Punjab is much in advance of the rest of India, as we have frequently remarked in these columns and so we are not surprised to learn that "the Punjab vernacular primary education is already free for the children of agriculturists and village

Kamins. The proportion of exemptions allowable in the case of others has been raised from 10 to 25 per cent. of the enrollment." In Burma nothing has been done and we hope that Sir H. Butler will remember this sentence of his own statement when he takes charge of this province. In the Central Provinces, known for many years to be a bold pioneer of educational progress, "provision has been made for the free elementary education of the poorer classes," "and inability to pay fees is not allowed to deprive any boy or girl of the opportunity of receiving elementary education." In the Frontier Provinces Elementary education is free and Assam goes one better, for in it "education up to the close of the middle vernacular standard has been made free in all public aided schools." While we are grateful for small mercies we wish that the example of Assam will be followed in the larger units of the administration of India, for the unchecked spread of education among the common people is the only thing that will really lead this country on the path of progress.

We welcome the decision of the Bombay Governor-in-Council to utilize the endowment of eight lakhs of Rupees made by Sir Muhammad Yusuf Ismail, Kt., for starting a Government Boarding School for Muhammadans in Salsette "designed and equipped in accordance with modern educational and hygienic ideas." The donor desired that the amount should, if possible, be devoted

A high grade
Boarding
School for
Muhammadan
boys.

for a college for Muhammadan pupils, but, as the Governor-in-Council rightly points out, "the amount in hand would suffice to cover a fraction only of the total cost of building and endowing such an institution." But when the Governor-in-Council goes on to observe that a college for Muhammadan pupils is not needed at present because "the number of Muhammadan students attending Arts Colleges in this Presidency is comparatively small and that number is dispersed over several institutions at distant centres," we do not agree with this, because the very cause of this comparative paucity of pupils and their dispersal is the lack of a college specially devoted to the need of Muhammadan pupils. We are not overmuch in love with denominational colleges, for they are likely to develop disruptive forces in the matter of the progress of the feeling of Indian nationality, but if certain communities are determined to have either denominational institutions or none, we do not see how their growth can be avoided. But in the particular case we are discussing, the real difficulty lies in want of money. Hence the Governor-in-Council proposes to start with a Boarding School teaching the full High School course. It ought to be gratifying to the Muhammadans of Bombay Presidency that the Governor-in-Council promises to help to start a college when the success of the school will create an effective demand for a Muhammadan college and has even secured the promise of the Government of India to "consider sympathetically a

grant for the college as having an early claim upon any grants that may be made for education, provided that the scheme eventually worked out commends itself to them." We think that the Government of Bombay has been as sympathetic as possible in the application of Sir M. Y. Ismail's generous donation.

Unlike the Madras examiners who are beyond the reach of criticism, those that conduct the S. S. L. C. Examinations in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh publish detailed reports on the performances of the examinees, or what the examiners expect of the candidates and how far the latter succeed in answering those expectations and in what respects they fail. But before discussing certain interesting points that are raised by the examiners we must point out that the U. P. School Final scheme differs from the Madras scheme in that the former provides for an examination *in situ* by oral examiners. Now a mere written examination of about ten thousand candidates by a staff of about a hundred examiners is certain to lead to irrational results as has been repeatedly proved by the ups and downs of Madras examination results and as has been recently pointed out *ad nauseam* in these columns. An oral examination will certainly act as at least a mild corrective of injustice done to individual candidates either because of the ambiguity of a chief examiner's instructions or of the variable temper of the assistant examiner. Many a student who deserves to pass but who has failed

in the written examination can be discovered by the oral examiner and rescued from the ranks of the failed. But even when, as it so frequently happens, a large percentage of the candidates fail on account of a new examiner suddenly changing the methods of examination or inventing new kinds of catches to trap the unwary, the oral examiner, if independent of the "written" examiner can help to resuscitate the fallen and retrieve the fortunes of many a poor candidate who otherwise would have to go through life with the brand of failure on his forehead, thanks not to his own want of capacity or application but to the misdirected ingenuity of a raw recruit in the array of examiners. We believe that the exalted educationists that devised the Madras S.S.L.C. scheme considered the question of oral examination *in situ* but dismissed it as outside the pale of practical politics. We do not see why an oral examination *in situ* should be impracticable in Madras. Time was when a Lower Secondary oral examination *in situ* was held in the Madras Presidency and, though the candidates dealt with were more in number than the possible maximum of candidates for the School Final, the oral Lower Secondary examination was a success and was finally given up only in deference to the policy of reducing the number of external examinations a school pupil had to undergo. Some time ago there was a rumour that the Madras Secondary School Leaving Examination Board was considering the question of

making at least a part of its examination oral and local; but the half-yearly alteration of educational policy that has, for some years, become the mamool in the Senate and the Government Educational Department of Madras and on which we have animadverted more than once in these columns, seems to have blown off the proposal into the land of nepenthe.

To return to the examiners' reports on the School Leaving Certificate Examination, 1915, of the United Provinces. The U. P. headmasters, as we remarked on a recent occasion, are asked to record in the certificates their opinion regarding the fitness or otherwise of each candidate. We are delighted to bring to the notice of our readers the remarks of the English examiners that "it is gratifying to find among headmasters a desire to co-operate loyally with the examiners Many headmasters give a clear and decided opinion, *which has been confirmed by the oral and written examination.*" Apparently the millennium has arrived in the United Provinces, whereas in Madras one will find hundreds of cases where the headmaster awards 50 marks and the examiners 10 and *vice versa* and where even Principals of Colleges, according to certain Professors in the City of Madras, let cupidity master their sense of right in judging of the capacity of pupils to benefit by a college course. The U. P. examiners remark that "in practically all the schools *the teacher's diaries and mark registers are well kept.*" Again we

ask are the U. P. teachers a special incarnation of God's angels or is it that the Madras examiners are under the spell of the evil tradition which holds examiners impeccable and a low percentage of passes the only means of securing educational efficiency.

The U. P. English examiners remark that, "although conversation is generally fluent, it is spoilt by ignorance or disregard of English idiom and of the rules of grammar." There is a rumour that this is the very rock on which the bark of last year's Madras Intermediate examination split and is therefore worth discussing. Our pupils have too holy a fear of the examiner to neglect the study of or deliberately or wantonly disregard the application of the laws of grammar. The real difficulty is this, that the structure of sentences, the conception of the elements that go to form sentences (itself being dependent on one's outlook on the world) differ so much between English and the languages of India. An Englishman and a retired Professor of the U. P. asked the writer of these notes the other day, why his former pupils always requested him to be kind 'on' them. Why? because the Indian images kindness as something placed on him by his patron, *e.g.*, a shawl, an embroidered coat, etc. The Professor asked us, "How would you say in any Indian language, 'I have a book'?" We replied unhesitatingly, "with me there is a book." This illustrates the abyss that separates English idiom from Indian idiom and shows how difficult it is for the Indian to

learn to speak English idiomatically. If English examiners will only try to learn an Indian vernacular and find how far the Indian idiom differs from the English, they will view more sympathetically than they do now the performances of the Indian candidates, punish them far less severely than now for occasional lapses of grammar and idiom and the percentage of passes will rise higher. The Indian examiners of English in the Calcutta University are either themselves guilty of the lapses of grammar and idiom which are so severely penalized in the Madras University or are more tolerant of them than their Madras brethren and hence Calcutta passes are much greater than Madras ones.

To return again to the U. P. examiners' report. "The 'free' composition was disappointing. The majority of candidates seemed to have dashed at the essay without any preliminary arrangement of their ideas; consequently the essays were rambling and incoherent. There was little attempt at paragraphing." This remark, again, betrays an utter want of knowledge on the part of the examiner of the conditions in which the Indian pupil-mind works. There is practically no prose literature in the Indian vernaculars. The Indian pupil reads no prose at all in his own language except that found in his readers. The "essay" is absolutely non-existent in the very scanty prose literature he can get at. The "essay" as a form of literature is as novel to the Indian pupil as, say the *prahasana* or

the *andadi* or the *s'lesha* would be to his Englishman examiner. Imagine what it would be to ask the Englishman who has acquired a smattering of Sanskrit to compose a *Kāvya* according to the rules of Sanskrit rhetoric (*Alankāra Śāstra*)? This, in our opinion, is the analogue of the setting of "free" composition to the Matriculation, the Intermediate, or even the B. A. candidate. Again, not only paragraphing but even punctuation is absolutely unknown in vernacular literature. Paragraphing according to the canons of rhetoric is such a difficult art that even in the case of the best writers of the English essay, not even 5 paragraphs out of 100 display the characteristics of the ideal paragraph. If it is so to Englishmen, writing in their own language and with many centuries of literary tradition of essay-writing behind them, is it right to require immature Indian boys to write, in a language which they have not half mastered, a form of composition absolutely unknown to them and foreign to their genius, and more so a form of composition which presupposes a mind stocked with facts acquired by observation of men and things to which the Indian boy is totally unaccustomed and filled with thoughts derived from a wide reading of English Literature, which is of course beyond the average Indian High School student?

The Indian Universities Act of Lord Curzon has led to a revision of the conception of a University, one ultimate result of which has

been the abolition of the private candidate. However desirable this might be from the point of view of the University, it has led to one unfortunate result. So long as private candidateship was possible, many school-masters privately kept preparing for higher University examinations than they had passed, in the hope that a higher examination passed meant a higher rate of pay. Such effort, whether it led to the man's passing or failing always reacted favourably on his school work, for the more a teacher studies, whether it leads to a examination success or no, the more qualified he becomes for his class-work. But our new University Regulations have made this impossible. The Inspector of Schools, Presidency Division, Bengal, has to remedy this evil, devised a scheme of Government Matriculation, Intermediate, and B. A. examinations open to "Deputy Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and *bona fide* teachers of English schools in the Presidency Division, who have been employed as such for at least three years preceding the examination." This is an excellent idea and we wish that similar examinations be devised in the rest of India. In Madras, the Director of Public Instruction well holds this year a Government Matriculation examination for those that desire to join a training school. There is no reason why the thorough-going scheme of the Calcutta Inspector of School should not be introduced throughout India in the interests of teachers, surely the interests of the University will not suffer by this measure.

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THE PROGRESS OF INDIAN HISTORICAL RESEARCHES.

VII.

THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF BACTRIA.

In the latest number of the Journal of Asiatic Society, Bombay Branch, Dr. J. J. Modi supplements the valuable essay of Prof. Rawlinson on the ancient history of Bactria, by giving, in a short compass, all the information available about that period of Bactrian history which the Encyclopædia Britannica has dismissed as legendary and of which Prof. Rawlinson was unable to gather any information even of a legendary, if not historical, character. Both to the Parsees and the Hindus, Bactria is a place of great historic interest. Situated as it was between Iran, the ancient motherland of the Parsees, and Hindustan, the motherland of the Hindus, it formed a link between the Persian and Hindu civilizations, an intermediate region through which the East influenced the West, and the West the East. The

earliest reference to Bactria or Bakhddi, as it was then called, is in the first chapter of the *Vendidad* of the Parsees where it has been described as the fourth city created by Ahura Muzda, the first three being Iran, Sogdiana and Merv; and from the fact that the *Vendidad* does not mention Ecbatana, a city founded about B.C. 708, in the list of 16 cities it gives in the second chapter, Dr. Modi believes that this portion of the *Vendidad* was written before 708 B.C. and that the reference to Bactria in the first chapter should therefore be as old as the 8th century B.C. In fact he goes further and points out that, as the city is described as carrying banners, it should have been the seat of a king, and as it ceased to be a capital city with royal banners only after its falling into the hands of the Assyrians about B.C. 1200, the reference to it must be as old as the 12th or 13th century B.C. Dr. Modi gives extracts from the Avesta and Pahlavi books to show that right through all its history Balkh was

called the *beautiful* or the *renowned*. The cause of this celebrity lay in the fact that it was, as Prof. Spiegel says, the seat of an empire under the Kaiyanian kings, especially of King Gushtasp, in whose reign the great prophet and teacher Zoroaster lived and laboured. The uplifting of banners in the city was at first meant to shew that Balkh was the seat of imperial rule or of the muster of armies engaged in war; but later on

became a symbol of faith rather than of political power. For Pahlavi writers refer to a fire-temple in the city and to the custom of the worshippers and visitors therein to erect banners on its cupola as marks of respect. In Sassanian times Bactria was supposed to be a part of Hindustan. The fall of Bactria is attributed to a curse of the corn-carrying ants, i.e., "of some poisonous insects which ... seemed to abound there on account of the porous and therefore damp soil of the place." Dr. Modi then enumerates the different views regarding the founder of Bactria. Some attribute it to Kayomars*, the first of the Iranian kings, some to Tehmurasp, and so on. King Gushtasp had his court there, and it was there also that Zoroaster explained his religion to the king. "Ardeshir Babagan, the founder of the Sassanian Empire, is said to have called in this city his great assembly of the nobles and the learned for the Iranian Renaissance."

* The story is that Kayomars had a brother who generally wandered in the west; that he once visited his brother who was then engaged in founding a city in the east; that when he was approaching the city, Kayomars was about to kill him on the ground that he was a spy; but on his coming near he saw his brother and called out *Bal-Akh*. "This is surely my brother!" Hence the name Balkh.

Dr. Modi concludes his article with the notice of the city by the later Mahomedan legendaries. It figured in the wars between Kaikhus and Afrasiab. Lohrasp, Kaikhushru's successor, retired to it and founded a fire-temple there after abdicating his throne to his son Gushtasp. Gushtasp founded also a fire-temple and, what was more, encouraged the prophet Zoroaster. This invited war with the Turanian king Arjasp, and both Gushtasp and his prophet-friend suffered disaster. Later on the city came into Sassanian hands. This is what Firdausi says. Tabari gives an even more interesting account. He says that in the time of Lohrasp, his general Nebuchadnazzar drove the Hebrews from Jerusalem, while he himself remained at Balkh watching the Turks. Gushtasp, his son and successor, disapproved Nebuchadnazzar's policy, recalled him to Balkh, restored Jerusalem to the Jews and appointed one of themselves, the prophet Daniel, to rule over them. With the conquest of Iran by Alexander, Balkh passed into the hands of Greeks.

INTERMITTENT SPRINGS AT RAJAPUR, BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

Dr. Harold H. Mann and Mr. S. R. Paranjpe give an account of the curious intermittent springs near the town of Rajapur, Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency. These springs rise suddenly and at irregular intervals, overflow the rocky soil in the midst of which they are, and cover a considerable area of ground. People regard it as a miraculous advent of the holy Ganges. A number of cisterns constructed on the spot collect the holy waters and serve for the purification of thousands of pilgrims; and a credulous multitude believe in the equal

efficacy of this and a bath in distant Ganges. It is but natural that a Puranic legend has gathered around it. The *Medin Puran*, whose existence is otherwise not known, says that, in order to satisfy a Kunbi who was too weak to go on his usual pilgrimage to the Vithoba temple at Pandarpur, the deity had the grace to reward his devotion by causing a pure stream of Ganges water to well up before him. However it might be, the reputation of the springs found a place in literature itself. Moro Pant, for example, who visited it about 1786, celebrated it in a poem. The story which the poet gives is slightly different from that of the *Medin Puran*; for he says that the springs came into existence about 2,000 years ago, when a Mahratta farmer of Rajapur, who used to visit Benares every year, once felt unable to do so and prayed, with success, to the Ganges to come to him! "The post from the base of which the Ganges sprang has turned into a stately banyan tree, and occupies a place close to the reputed origin of the *Ganga*." At first the springs were continuous and not intermittent. But later on the scepticism and conversion of a king of Shaila, Prataparudra by name, resulted in its loss of continuity. While gone for a bath there, he expressed scepticism at the legend of the advent of the Ganges on the ground that, while the latter was constantly shifting its course, the former had a uniform flow, and that he would place faith in it only in case it flowed in the dry season and stopped with the rains. Hence the phenomenon of the activity of springs during the months of January and February alone.

ARCHAEOLOGY IN THE FRONTIER CIRCLE. The Annual Report of the Archaeological

Survey, Frontier Circle, for 1914-15, issued by Mr. V. Natesa Aiyar who assumed charge in March 1915, is a very short one, covering five pages alone of reading matter. Mr. Natesa Aiyar says that, in regard to conservation, arrangements are being made for the repair of the ruined fortress and the Hindu mediæval pagodas discovered by Sir Aurel Stein at Belot Kafirkot (Dera Ismail Khan District) in 1911-12; and that the stupas and statues of the Buddha at Takht-i-Bahi (Peshawar) and the Asoka rock edicts at Mansehra, "which along with the Shabazgarhi inscription, constitute the only known Kharoshti recension of the Asoka rock edicts," were given a shelter from the action of the sun and the ravages of man. In regard to exploration and research, the excavations of the city of Sirsukh, one of the three cities* which were occupied by successive dynasties which held sway at Taxila, have resulted in some interesting discoveries. Sirsukh was a capital of the early Kushana kings and its remains must be of great value to the student of Kushana history. Mr. Natesa Aiyar describes the fortifications of the city as they have been revealed by the excavations of the year. "The remains of the city of Sirsukh extend over an area of about three miles and are enclosed within strong fortifications, roughly square in plan. Excavations at the south-east corner of the fortifications have shewn that the city wall is 18 feet 6 inches in thickness and that it is built nearly of lime-stone blocks in the large diaper style characteristic of the Kushana epoch. The wall is strengthened by circular bastions on the outside, constructed at inter-

* The earliest of these, Mir Bound, was the seat of power in the Mauryan period. Next in time was Sirkap, and lastly came Sirsukh after the Kushana advent.

vals of about 90 feet and measuring 46 feet across from north to south and 31 feet from east to west. The curtains between the bastions are provided with a massive convex base on the outer side which rises to a height of about seven feet above the floor level. In contradistinction to the walls of Sirkap, the city wall and bastions of Sirsukh are not splayed out at the bottom or furnished with footings. The convex base was perhaps intended to protect the foundations of the wall from the water of the Lundi Nala which sweeps round the eastern and southern sides of the city. It is noteworthy that similar abutments are seen in the later additions to the city wall at Sirkap and it therefore appears that this mode of construction was followed in preference to the footings during the Kushana epoch." The rest of the report covers the progress of the Peshawar Museum.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN BURMA.

The general work.—The report of Mr. Taw Sein Ko and Mr. Duroiselle who were in charge of the Archæological Survey, Burma, during 1914-15, is as usual a record of substantial achievements. When the year began the Superintendent had various works in view:—the compilation of the monograph on terracotta plaques of the Petleik pagoda in Pagan, the compilation of a similar one on the Ananda temple and another on the history of Pagan architecture (in the department of Archæology); and the translation of the inscriptions of Upper Burma, the compilation of a list of the Burmese inscriptions, and the publication of select inscriptions in the *Epigraphia Indica*, (in the Epigraphical Department). Much progress was made in the first two of these items as well as the others, the last one developing into the praise-

worthy idea of publishing an independent *Epigraphia Burminica* on the model of *Epigraphia Carnatica*. Five additional monuments, all of which belonged to the 11th century, were recommended for conservation at Pagan. A list of the ancient remains in the Arakan division, prepared by Dr. Forchhammer in 1890, was revised in the light of later researches and discoveries. The archæological survey of the Mandalay palace was completed, a monograph on the stone sculptures on the Ananda temple was written and sent to Dr. Marshall for publication, and excavations were conducted at the Shweggyi and Ajapala pagodas at Pegu and at the Taungba village, Pagan township, "where the first kings of Pagan settled after the destruction of Prome or Srikshestra in the 2nd century A.D." Lastly, a very interesting archæological area at Mingun in the Sagaing district was acquired under the Land Acquisition Act. The importance of this area is seen in the fact that in it "are situated the Mingun pagoda, on the construction of which King Bodawpaya spent 11 years of his reign (1790—1801), the great bell weighing over 80 tons, which was cast by the same founder, the Bawdi-waing pagoda built by the same king, the Sinbyme pagoda resting on five receding terraces built by King Bagyidaw (1819-37) and the Settawya pagoda built by Pagan Min (1846-53)." It is noted that "the Mingun pagoda is the largest pile of brick in the world or, in the picturesque language of Yule, is a geological phenomenon; the great bell is only second to the mammoth bell of Moscow, which is the largest in the world; and the Sinbume pagoda presents unique features of Buddhist religious architecture, recalling the characteristics of the Budor of Java."

AN ENGLISH FACTORY, 18TH CENTURY.

Amidst the sites examined and conserved the Hainggyi factory in the island of Negrais, established in 1753 by a deputy of the E. I. Co., named David Hunter, deserves notice. Hunter died some months after his arrival and "was afterwards succeeded in charge of the Settlement by Henry Brooke, by Captain John Howes, who also died in the Settlement, and by Lieutenant Thomas Newton. In 1757 Ensign Lister, who was deputed by Lieutenant Thomas Newton, obtained from King Alaungpaya a treaty ceding Negrais island to the British in perpetuity. On the 6th October 1759, Captain W. H. Southby, together with Messrs. Briggs and Nulkey Hope and two others, whose names are unknown, were suddenly attacked and treacherously murdered, while assembled for dinner in the upper storey of the Fort house. The surviving members of the garrison, five in all, were carried away as prisoners to Rangoon. The Settlement was thereafter abandoned." A tablet to this effect was erected on the spot.

A PYU SETTLEMENT OF 140 A.D.

The Taungba village which was excavated came into existence in the 2nd century A.D. In A.D. 128 a civil war arose between the Pyus, Thets and Kanrans, the three tribes then inhabiting Prome. The Pyus were victorious, but disunited and shortsighted, they quarrelled among each other and separated into three sections. Two of these remained with the neighbouring tribes, but the third migrated northward and, after frequent displacements by inimical tribes, ultimately settled about A.D. 141 in the site near Taungba village. Its excavation, however, proved comparatively disappointing as the remains of a circular stupa and nothing else, were discovered.

TWANTE PAGODAS, 11TH CENTURY.

Twante was a place settled by Hindu colonists in very early times, and near it the sites of two pagodas and a monastery were inspected. All these monuments belonged to the 11th century when definite Burmese history begins. The Kyaik Pa pagodas are on small artificial hillocks and are of a style common in Burma: "three square terraces supporting a dome; the *cūḍa* or spire surmounting the dome, formed by the superposition of circles getting smaller as they rise, and which is but the stylization of the series of stone umbrellas which surmounted the stūpas of ancient India." The Maung-di pagoda, four miles further east, is interesting, firstly for the definite date of 1057 it mentions; secondly for its terracotta reliefs and scenes of Buddhist life which are the largest as yet found in Burma; thirdly for an inscription in it which mentions King Anoratha (1040—1077). It is during this period "that the history proper of the Burmese people begins." All previous history is a blank. Anoratha's first and greatest achievement was the storming of Thaton in 1057, followed by the foundation of the Maung-di pagoda. The Burmese chronicles attribute this to a religious motive, to the desire of the king to secure the Pali Tripiṭaka, the scriptures of the Sinhalese Hinayanism, which had been unknown in Pagan. But his real motive was political. He wanted to subdue the strong and flourishing Indian settlements throughout the delta, which were a menace to him. Only 30 years before, the great Rājendra Chōla had fitted out an expedition to the coasts of Burma, conquered and annexed Thaton and Pegu, and erected, as monuments of his victory, two *Jayastambas* in the latter place. It is not improbable that the Indians had raided Pagan itself,

thereby provoking Anoratha to take strong measures against them. The oldest of these Indian settlements was Sri-Kshētra or old Prome, six miles from modern Prome. Four others existed near modern Rangoon and one at Twante. These are never heard of after Anoratha's expedition. One other fact which is understood from the Maungdi pagoda is that the moulds of the votive tablets in Burma, which have been generally supposed to have been brought from India, were not all Indian. Only those which have a Sanskrit inscription and which do not mention Anoratha's name are Non-Burmese, while the others, with Talaiṅg-Burmese script, were entirely of Burmese origin. (For further arguments see the report itself, p. 17). With regard to the monastery mentioned above, it is enough to state that it has inscriptions in the North Indian characters of the 11th century, and that its Buddhistic workmanship is closely after the model of the images at Sarnath near Benares. "Its interest, so far as Burma is concerned, lies in the fact that it affords yet another proof that, before the middle of the 11th century A.D., at which period it was completely superseded by Hinayanism, Northern Buddhism was flourishing in the land, imported by merchants and missionaries from over the Bay of Bengal." (p. 17).

RELATION BETWEEN INDIA AND BURMA.

The relation between India and Burma in the ancient period is naturally a question of absorbing interest. This year's report is fortunately full of references to it. Examples of North Indian influences have already been given. To these may be added Asoka's influence on Burmese polity. It is a matter of common knowledge that the Mauryas adopted the ceremonial and the governmental

system of the Persians; and the same characteristics were introduced into Burma. Maids of honour in the Burmese palace were after the Amazonian guard of Greek women in Chandragupta's court. The provincial rulers were like the Satraps and foreign travellers were looked after by similar boards or officials. The spy system as well as the parental ideal of sovereignty was adopted in Burma, and the spiritual side of a monarch's work for his people was recognized. The influence of South India was even stronger. It is well-known that even as early as the first and second centuries A.D., Chōla ships used to cross the Bay and anchor on the Irawaddy, and South Indian merchants penetrated all along the coast of Martaban, as their North Indian compatriots did further north. The establishments of these colonies led to the introduction of Indian religions, arts and culture into Burma. Mr. Venkayya discovered, for example, that the script of certain gold plates and certain Pāli inscriptions discovered at Hmawza were derived from the ancient Telugu script of the 5th century. It is true that Finot differed in regard to the latter and considered it to be a script of the 6-7th century, derived however from the Kadamba script of the 5th century; but this difference of views is one of details and hardly affects the fact that Burma, in this age, was subject to South Indian influences. In fact it is certain that the origin of the Burmese alphabet and of the Pyu script, which is now so much involved in mystery, is South Indian. A Pyu epigraph discovered at Halingyi in 1912-13 corroborates this. For after a minute examination Mr. Krishna Sastri, who was consulted in the matter, concludes that it is clearly in the post-Asokan Brahmi character of South India, that it should be

attributed, if we are to consider the forms of certain letters, to the 4th century A.D. at the latest, and it was perhaps a century earlier than the Hmawza epigraph. The discovery is very important as it is for the first time that we find characters of the Brahmi type in Burma. The report under review mentions the discovery of certain new frescoes of figures in the Patothmaya temple of Pagan, and these figures, judged by their head-dress, coiffure, facial expressions, ear-ornaments and drapery, seem to be the figures of "South Indians who came over to Pagan during the Chōla and Chēra dynasties" in the 9th and 10th centuries. As regards the question which part of South India contributed most to the growth of Burmese civilization it is difficult to say anything definite at present. It may however be noted that all parts seem to have taken part. Mr. Duroiselle argues that Pegu, generally named Ussa-Peku in Burmese inscriptions, was so called because it was colonised by people from Orissa. "This fact is indeed corroborated by the much older name for Orissa of Utkala, which was very early applied to the tract of country along the coasts of the Gulf of Martaban which.....were dotted with Indian settlements, mostly from Utkala (Orissa) in Kalinga..." Similarly "the Kye" mentioned in Burmese chronicles must be identified, in Mr. Duroiselle's opinion, with the "Colian branch of the Tamils." King Duṭṭhagāmaṇi of Ceylon, says the *Mahāvamsā*, once destroyed the Kye heretic Elara, and this Kye heretic we are told was a Damiḷa from the Colā (i.e., Chōla) country. The Burmese version of the *Mahāvamsā*, moreover, always translates the word *Tamil* into *Kye*. The word thus, like *Ossa*, is of great political and historical significance, and

is a memorial of Tamil influence over Burma.

It only remains to be said that the North-Indian culture of Pagan and the South-Indian culture of Martaban and Pegu met at Pagan in the 11th century A.D. and even before. This is proved by the existence, side by side, of inscriptions both in Dēvanāgarī and Grantha in a few terracotta tablets discovered in that place. "It would be highly interesting to investigate the interplay of the South-Indian and North-Indian influences converging on Pagan, and on Burma generally, in the 8th—11th centuries of the Christian era."

A PORTUGUESE ADVENTURER IN BURMA.

One of the numerous archaeological finds of the year is an epigraph concerning Philip de Brito, a Portuguese adventurer who about 1600 A.D. became the agent of the King of Arakan at Syriam. Inspired more by ambition than gratitude, he turned against his Indian master, overthrew the Arakanese commander of the garrison, and made himself Governor. The Portuguese Viceroy at Goa was so much gratified by this stroke that he ignored the means which was employed to effect it. In his joy he declared the victor a Captain-General, bestowed his niece in marriage to him, and seems to have promised not to interfere with his aggressions in Burma. On his return to Syriam, in consequence, Philip de Brito declared himself an independent chief, defied with success the attempts of the King of Arakan to subdue him, and further strengthened himself by the politic marriage of his son Simon with the daughter of the king of Martaban. Both his valour and his diplomacy, however, did not avail him long. For, after a decade of successful career he was vanquished and overthrown by Mahadamma Raja, King of Ava. Philip, like most

of the Portuguese rulers, had adopted the fatal policy of religious persecution. He had profaned the temples, robbed them of their riches, and compelled the people to embrace Christianity. This stern intolerance had alienated him from all people, and when his innocent son was punished with death by the sentence of Maha Dhamma, there was perhaps universal approval in the country. This is all that has been hitherto known of Philip de Brito or Nga Linga as he was called in the country of his adoption. The present epigraph gives us some further light in his domestic life and tells us that he had an Arakanese wife named Sawthada, and that by her he had a son and a daughter who, about A.D. 1698, erected this memorial. It shows that wherever the Portuguese went they freely married Indian women and, in a sense, courted their own ultimate failure. It may also be here noted that even German adventurers seem to have visited, about 1785, the district of Kathe noted for its ruby mines. For we meet with the names of Toh Georg Weigel and Seelige Erren in an inscription on the rim of a pair of spectacles discovered in an old pagoda.

BASSEIN AS AN EMPORIUM OF TRADE.

A number of articles of commerce which have been obtained from an old shipwreck in the Hainggyi island in Bassein district, Burma, are of great historic interest as they give an insight into the commerce of the Indian seas in the 17th and 18th centuries. The articles consist of certain blue porcelain dishes made in China about 1470 and 1700, a brass waterpot belonging (as an inscription on it testifies) to a Telugu Yinnakota Lakshmaya (i.e., Lakshmaya of Vinnakota near Masulipatam), a jar and a lota of South Indian type, etc. From these the Superintendent of

Archæology, Burma, concludes that Bassein was a great emporium of trade in the 17th and 18th centuries; that Chinese and South Indian trade centred there; that "one of the arteries of Chinese commerce passed through Bassein" and that for the whole of the Irrawadi valley it "constituted the single port of call for international commerce."

DOMESTIC ARCHITECTURE ABOUT B.C. 400.

In the course of his excavations at Bhita, Dr. Marshall discovered the remains of a house which, in his opinion, belonged to the Mauryan epoch. The plan of the building is simple, as "it consists of an open rectangular courtyard in the centre, with twelve rooms disposed around it on the four sides, access to the courtyard being obtained through two entrances...facing each other on opposite sides of the building." Dr. Marshall notes the resemblance of the plan of this house to that of the old Buddhist monasteries and therefore believes that the latter must have been copied from the former. As regards the material of construction Dr. Marshall adduces evidences to show that the superstructures were built of kiln-burnt bricks, "kachcha bricks being reserved in a few of the earliest buildings only for the lower part of the foundations." The construction of upper stories was in vogue, and the thickness and stability of the walls were increased in such cases by making them descend two feet lower and by laying the bricks as headers instead of stretchers. With the progress of time there were changes in detail; but the general plan remained the same. One such change was the introduction of more variety in the relative sizes of the rooms and in the size of the verandah. Another was in the nature of the foundations. Comparing these Dr. Marshall notes four points of difference,

In the earlier foundations, where *kankar* is used, in the first place, it is laid with broken pottery or brick in alternating courses, while in the later the *kankar* is mixed indiscriminately with broken brick. Secondly, broken potsherds are absent in the later foundations. Thirdly, the earlier walls are carried deeper underground, the depth in the Mauryan period being four feet, while it is only two feet in later times. Lastly, the heavy stones used to protect the corners project above the ground-level in one case, while in the other they are completely buried. In all cases, it should be remembered the edifices are built of a single course of brick without mortar, and Dr. Marshall expresses great surprise in the fact that, in spite of this, the walls "have held together so well through all the centuries that have elapsed since they were finally deserted." Another interesting point to be noted is that the custom of digging a well in the courtyard seems to have prevailed then, and also of having a store or treasure-chamber beneath the floor, the provision for descending into which was made by the insertion of cross beams at intervals in the walls.

SEALS AND SEALINGS IN ANCIENT INDIA.

Perhaps the most interesting of the antiquarian finds at Bhita are the numerous seals and sealings unearthed from the different strata of the site. They numbered more than 200 and comprised 120 varieties. Seals were of very common use in ancient India. Kings and princes, ministers and other officials had their *mudras*. The seals were sometimes simple *namamudras*, that is they had the names of their owners carved on them and therefore formed a convenient method of announcing their personality. Dushyanta and Harshavardhana had, for in-

stance, such *namamudras*. But seals were, as Dr. Marshall says, more commonly used for marking letters and documents. "An interesting illustration of this is found in the *Mudrarakshasa*, where in the 5th Act we read that the letter and parcel with which Siddhartaka was caught when attempting to escape from the camp of Malayaketu, were stamped with the seal of the Minister Rakshasa." Impressions from the seals of kings or ministers were used as passports, as the *Mahabharata* and the *Harivamsa* testify. All these classes of seals were discovered at Bhita. There were 13 seal-moulds, one of bronze or copper, six of burnt clay, one of stone and five of ivory. Some of them are in the form of circular discs, some pyramidal, and some shaped like finger-rings. They are generally divisible into two types, those that were attached to letters or parcels and those that served as passports. Dr. Marshall describes them in detail and gives evidences to show that they range from the 3rd or 4th century B.C. to the 9th or 10th century A.D. He divides the sealings under several heads—of temples, rulers, officials, and so on. Of the religious seals five are Saivite, one Vasudevic, one of Sarasvati and two of Nandi. About 45 sealings are Buddhist. Amidst the secular and political sealings some belong to certain unknown Andhra chiefs of the 2nd and 3rd centuries A.D., one to queen Rudramati (4th century), and the vast majority to the imperial Guptas. The Saivite symbols generally adopted are the *linga*, the trident, the Nandipada and the bull, and sometimes "a pyramid of balls or dots," which has been generally supposed to be a *chaitya* but which Dr. Marshall considers to be a hill. The Vaishnava symbols in use are the well-known device of Lakshmi

and the elephants, the conch and the wheel.

SUPERNATURALISM IN WARFARE.

The call which the Brahmanical Sabha of Bengal recently made for divine intervention in favour of the Empire in its present crisis by performing the *Upakarma* sacrifice reminds the student of Indian history of the elaborate ceremonials performed in days of yore on similar occasions for similar purposes. It is well known that, very early in their career of conquest and colonisation, the Aryans of Hindusthan evolved an elaborate code of rites to guide them in this matter; that in fact they made the Atharva-Veda the standard authority on war-ritual. The hymns of this Veda were divided, as Mr. Kathavate points out in his *Report on Sanskrit Manuscripts* 1901, into different groups or *Ganas*, and different *Ganas* were prescribed for different modes of triumph against an enemy whose valour could not be vanquished by valour alone in the battle-field. The mantras of the *Santigana*, for instance, were intended to secure the royal palace against enemies, and the *Varchasya Gana* for striking terror into the hearts of the inimical elephant corps and throwing them into confusion. A set of hymns called the *Svastyaya Gana* was prescribed for the averting of weapons or the healing of the wounded. These hymns were recited either just before the undertaking of an expedition or the night previous to it, the recitation being accompanied by the offering of ghee to the deity. They were also to be uttered when the wounds of the wounded were dressed, as it was usually done, with clarified butter or water and strings of the sacred Munja grass. The *Aparajitagana* consisted of hymns which had the effect of converting heroes into cowards and making

them desert the contest. The hymns of the *Rudragana*, again, "were used for the purpose of inspiring one's army with the proper spirit and ensuring the safety of one's quarters against snakes and scorpions." They were, moreover, employed for charming things like sand, cowdung, etc., which were spread on the route of the enemy for his destruction. Even more interesting is the *Patni-vatagana*, the merit of which was to ensure "the success of boats and other water conveyances as well as horse-carriages." The intimidation of elephants and the capture of towns were supposed to be promoted by the *Visvakarmagana*. Similar hymns and rituals existed for safe-guarding the king's personality against Missiles, for the conquest and purification of Brahmins who exchanged the functions of the priest for the hardships of the soldier, and similar achievements; but it is hardly necessary to reiterate them. What has been said is enough to shew that the ancient Hindu depended, for success in war, as much on the efficacy of mysterious spiritual weapons as on the valour of his arms; as much on the miraculous interference of the divinity as on the martial skill he could display in the battle-field.

V. RANGACHARIAR.

We understand that the Convocation of the Madras University for conferring degrees will take place on the 25th November 1915 and the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart, K. C. V. O., C. S. I., I. C. S., B. A., Member of the Executive Council of H. E. the Governor of Madras, will deliver the usual address.

THE SALEM COLLEGE HOSTEL.*

GENTLEMEN,

It is with feelings of profound pleasure that I rise to request Rao Bahadur T. Subramania Iyer to declare open the new Hostel Buildings of the Salem College. It must be a source of real gratification to you, Sir, that such a decided step in the progress of the Salem College, marking the beginnings of the introduction of residential life is taken during your regime of office as Chairman of the Municipality and under your immediate auspices on the occasion of the opening ceremony. And I would congratulate all those concerned with the Hostel on the privilege of having secured one of the most distinguished citizens of this part of the Presidency, one whose career has been a record of noble endeavour and successful achievement and arduous and disinterested public service, to take part in this function.

Nothing has served to keep down life in Indian Universities at a lower level of efficiency and culture than that of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, than the absence of residential life and it was in an unfortunate moment indeed that the Indian Universities were started on the model of such a purely examining body as the University of London. Amends are being made for it in recent years by the Government of India by the impetus it has given to the starting of new Hostels all over the country and in the new Universities that are to come into being in the country within the next few years, the residential system will form the basis. For the proposed Universities of

*An address by Principal P. Seshadri, M.A., on the occasion of the recent opening of the Salem College Hostel.

Dacca, Patna, Nagpur and the Hindu University of Benares and the Mahomedan University of Aligarh, elaborate schemes of residential life have been drawn up and are to be executed simultaneously with the starting of the new Universities. We must feel thankful to circumstances that it has been possible to initiate a humble scheme of that description in connection with our own College, at least at this stage in its history. The need for Hostels is much greater in places like Salem where there are no good private eating-houses and the town is unfortunately threatened with another outbreak of plague.

It is hardly necessary for me to enter upon an account of the origin and development of this Hostel scheme. With the acquisition of this compound for the construction of the new College Buildings, it was found possible to utilise this building on it for the purpose of a College Hostel as had long been intended. The Municipal Council appreciating the urgent need for a hostel generously placed at our disposal a sum of about Rs. 800 to be spent in anticipation of their sanction and this hostel with accommodation for nearly 50 students is the result. The building stands in need of more permanent structural alterations and equipment of furniture and it is hoped to attend to the two needs in the near future with the help of a Government grant.

The inmates of the Hostel have reason to feel glad not only for the advantages of residential life, but also for the very building and its situation with which their life here will hereafter be associated. A writer in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* describes Salem as a town prettily situated on the banks of the *Manimukta*. I am afraid our City Fathers will have no feelings of kindness towards

the River of Gem and Pearl, as their heavy Sanitation Budgets will testify and I myself discovered only with some difficulty that I was daily crossing the river on my way to College. But one has only to get to the back verandah upstairs in this building to realise that at least the Hostel is prettily situated on the *Manimukta* which I may observe in passing seems to answer very well to the description of the river in Sir Thomas More's *Utopia*, Anydrus, or the waterless. The building however overlooks the ramparts of a vanished fort surmounted by a gun which will boom in strange civilised regularity every night, incongruously with the relics of the past underneath it. On another side the inmates will behold a scene of animation every evening, the youthful votaries of sport worshipping her in a variety of ways. The building itself is of some historical interest dating back to the early days of the British occupation of this part of the country, and associated with some stirring events of those troubled times.

I may be allowed to refer to one or two special features of the new Hostel. It will be entirely self-supporting and will be managed by the inmates themselves who will thus receive here their first lessons in self-government and civic co-operation. I trust the boys will render a good account of themselves and acquire virtues of self-subordination and respect for the common good which will stand them in good stead in later life. As the first set of inmates of the new Hostel a very heavy responsibility rests upon them and I hope their behaviour and conduct will be such as to ensure the success of the Hostel during the time they are in occupation and also to set an example to their successors. I hope they will hand down a tradition of efficient work and good conduct to those that will come after

them. I should be failing in my duty if I did not make a reference before sitting down, to the valuable services rendered by our energetic and unostentatious Vice-Chairman, Mr. T. K. Balakrishna Chettiar, to whose untiring exertions we owe the early starting of the Hostel. A severe domestic calamity having necessitated my temporary withdrawal from this place at a time when a number of details had to be attended to, the work devolved almost entirely upon Mr. Balakrishna Chettiar and he has spared neither time nor energy in attention to it. With his continued interest I have no doubt the Hostel will be a decided success.

I will conclude with the hope that the Hostel will flourish during all the years to come, enabling the boys to live happier lives and the College to produce better results in education. In a recent number of the *Spectator* a writer has said that the seat of all good intellectual work is in the kitchen, and I have no doubt that with this better attention to the somewhat violent gastronomic instincts of youth, its intellectual work at College will be better too. I request you, once more, Sir, to declare the Hostel open and confer upon it your best wishes for its success and prosperity.

Social Legislation under Hindu Governments

BY

PROF. S. KRISHNASWAMI AYYANGAR, M. A.

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SOME PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF MORAL EDUCATION PROBLEM.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE question of improving the morals of our boys is one that is engaging the attention of all interested in the welfare of humanity. The Moral Education League of London has been grappling with the problem manfully. Moral instruction has been introduced in various institutions. Several private bodies have been called into existence to solve this all-important problem of ours. With all the well-meaning efforts in this direction one cannot fail to notice the cry that the morals of man are not at all improving. How many elderly men sigh and say that they see no regeneration, but on the contrary marked degeneration! How many parents complain of their children's conduct! How many inveigh against the methods of teaching! How many sincerely struggling souls fail and say,

I know the right and love it too;

I hate the wrong, yet the wrong pursue!

Seeing this state of affairs some grow pessimistic and hopeless. I belong not to their category. I believe in trying again and again and I hold that with persistent effort we shall at last find a way out of our difficulty. To contribute my poor best to securing success in this grand and noble struggle, I have been lately noting down my observations and the observations and conclusions of others reported in books and papers. I take this opportunity of reproducing some of these. I might state here that I do not promise the reader a systematic exposition of the principles involved, nor a well-classified list of facts. I have not, as yet,

reached that stage in my study, which would enable me to write a systematic essay on the subject. All that I can do at present is to give a few random remarks on the subject.

PROHIBITORY METHOD OF TEACHING.

"Thou shalt not kill" is a common way of giving moral instruction. It has its value. There are cases where it succeeds. But in a great number of instances it fails. Its failure is due mainly to two psychological factors. In the case of innocents it creates curiosity. The biblical story of the fruit of the forbidden tree is well-known. There is an ancient Indian story which has some bearing on the subject. A seeker after higher life went to receive instruction from a teacher. The teacher told him to sit quiet in a corner and not to think of 'monkey.' The result however was that the only thing of which his disciple could think was 'monkey.'

A, when quite young, was asked by his father, not to read the story of *Pûran Bhagat*. He, however, thought that something very good was being taken away from him. On this account he determined to read the story through and secretly read it twice. It has been observed by parents and teachers that youngsters often discuss sexual subjects secretly. This undoubtedly is partly due to the fact that they are forbidden to talk about such matters.

The other psychological factor involved is not of curiosity, but of determined opposition to something which disagrees with one's fixed habits. The mind of the man who practices certain evils has got the thought-bundles pertaining to the evil engrained in it and hence the advice simply impinges harshly upon these bundles and creates inharmonious and jarring sensation. "I am in the

right" is the spirit of the subject of the experiment. Here are two illustrations:—

X was in the habit of reading a certain class of novels. His teacher thought they were dangerous for the youth. He asked X not to read those novels. X persisted and began to stand upon his rights. The teacher used persuasion and failing there kept the book secure with him. X managed to obtain another book and followed his old habit.

Swami Y delivered a lecture and said that the *Shastras* prohibited the use of wine. A was amongst the audience. He got up and began to thunder against the Swami and putting himself in an excited mood went to gratify himself by taking a cup of his beloved liquor.

Allied to this is the psychological fact that one does not like to be advised, when advice is given in a way which might suggest to him that he is thought to be inferior and incompetent to understand his own affairs aright. Immediately the spirit of opposition rises in him and he says "I know my own business best." Mr. Helps has well noted this fact in his essays. To ask a man not to do a particular act is surely to suggest to him in the most direct manner that in the opinion of the adviser he is incompetent to understand his own business. It is no wonder that such a suggestion should rouse the spirit of opposition and the advice instead of curing the evil should confirm it—nay make it worse. I might state here that in the *Yoga Shashtra* and the *Manu Smriti* the *Yamas* or restraints—the prohibitions—are given not in negative form, but as positive commandments. It is not "Thou shalt not commit adultery" but "Thou shalt remain pure."

It might also be noted in this regard that the "New Thought scientists"—a cult which is

attracting ample notice of the civilized world to-day—hold that in order to "win yourself over" you should give powerful positive suggestions to yourself. All the mind-cures which they effect are brought about by positive suggestions, never by negative ones. The form, always, is "You are strength, you shall be good," &c.; and not "You are not weakness, you will not be bad," &c.

PAINTING OF EVIL.

This is closely allied to the above. It is largely used in lectures, dramas, satires, &c. It usually takes the form of clamorous denunciation, sometimes (in drama for instance) of praise to be followed by denunciation. Those who adopt this method are more often than not taken away by their subject and plunged into exaggeration. The evil effects of this method have very often been noticed.

At a Temperance Conference when the evils of wine had been almost done to death, X told his friends that that night he would have to drink more heavily than usual.

In New Zealand, a certain worker of the Salvation Army showed the evil effects of drinking by means of a magic lantern. The keeper of the inn there reported that on that day and following there was greater consumption of wine than on other occasions.

C read some books on purity. The writer of those books was a perfect gentleman—a well-wisher of humanity. He had, in his books, with very best intentions, depicted the evils of impure living. In a private talk C in agony of heart expressed the desire that books of the nature had better be burnt. This expression might suggest the trouble that C had experienced after reading those books.

A similar statement regarding the same books was made by D.

Mr. A. O. Hume refers to a similar instance in the following words:—

"Do you remember 'Uncle Tom's Cabin?' There was no one incident recorded in that novel in connection with the grievous iniquities of slavery, for which actual warrant did not exist, and yet the general result was to produce a grossly exaggerated picture of the working of the system. Many look upon that highly-coloured narrative as the first seed of the subsequent emancipation of the slaves; personally I credit it mainly with needless slaughter of about half a million of persons. It took hold on the mind of the nation. It grievously angered the Southerners, many of them the kindest and the best of masters, beloved beyond measure by their so-called slaves, who, seeing themselves and their institutions wantonly maligned, became all the more resolutely determined to oppose any reform..... It led to John Brown and his marching soul and all the 'battle, murder and sudden death' that followed..... But for Uncle Tom's Cabin I fully believe that slavery would have been abolished before now, and even without a civil war."

Here I cannot refrain from quoting the very eloquent words of Mr William Walker Atkinson on the subject: "This is the rule of involuntary suggestion. Our words, actions, manner, tone, appearance and general personality convey suggestions to those around us, inducing mental states in accordance therewith..... Therefore act out only the character that you wish to impress upon the world."

Noting the imitative instinct of man and the contagion of catching suggestions the learned writer further remarks, "some body does a certain thing, and, at once, people take up the suggestion and copy the original

actor. Let the newspapers record a certain crime and many others of the same type follow closely after. Let there be a suicide, and many others follow, usually adopting the same methods. Let there be a number of cases of some kind of folly and dissipation, and immediately there is an epidemic of the same thing. Let the papers say much about the appearance of a new disease, and at once a number of people manifest symptoms of it. Diseases get to be quite the fashion in this way. The feelings and emotions of the instinctive part of the mind are called into sympathetic action along the lines of imitative suggestion, and physical effects follow shortly."

The feelings experienced by young men while reading exciting novels though written with the best of motives hardly need to be mentioned.

Instead of curing the evils, their depiction, especially in the case of the more horrifying crimes, is apt to develop a sort of sickly sentimentalism. The well-known instance of the Russian lady who wept at the tragic part played before her, but did not care for her servant dying of cold outside, may be noted in this regard.

Mr. James Platt is of opinion that the acting of crimes though it call forth the higher feelings of the audience, yet as it affords no opportunity for expressing those feelings in action, gives a sort of unreality to the moral life of the audience, e.g., during a performance a murder is committed. The blood of the audience is up. But there is no occasion for punishing the murderer. The result is that murder comes to be thought as something unreal, and when the audience witness an actual murder in life its dreadfulness, and their contempt for it, have already decreased.

They pass by it with a sigh as they quietly looked at the murder during the performance and expressed their high feelings only through a sigh."

Lastly it may happen, as it does happen many times that the evil
"Seen too oft, familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, and then embrace."

This question has another aspect also. Not only is the effect of denunciation bad for the spectators, but often they that denounce are influenced in the wrong direction. The evil reports of some of the amateurs (giving performance) are true and the existence of evil can be traced to the psychological influence. Lord Bacon's expression "Words are like Tartar's arrows; they shoot back upon the mind from which they proceed," enunciates the same law. The general advice of the teachers (religious) not to speak of the evils of others is based upon the same principle.

Professor W. James says "Sit all day in a moping posture, sigh and reply to every thing with a dismal voice, and your melancholy lingers. Whenever actors play their part well, they are mastered by the emotion; panic is increased by flight... and the giving way to the symptoms of grief or anger increases those passions themselves. Each fit of sobbing makes the sorrow more acute, and calls forth another stronger still."

Professor Hallock says, "By inducing an expression we can often cause its allied emotion."

W. W. Atkinson says "I defy any one to manifest the physical actions of any emotion or feeling, earnestly and actively for a short time, without the corresponding mental state actually manifesting itself. If you will assume the physical characteristics accompanying

anger, you will find yourself actually feeling angry."

DISTANT SUGGESTION OF WRONG.

Sometimes it happens that though the evil is not painted, yet a mere suggestion leads to the commission of evil. I have got two very interesting illustrations of this.

X was teaching a class. He was giving them moral instruction. He told the class that his Principal set a very high value on truth; that the Principal would prefer to be fined rather than speak an untruth. "This" said the teacher, "I found out, when my Principal fined a student on remaining absent, though the student gave the only and true cause of his absence. On being told by the student that he was fined because he did not speak a lie, the Principal only said: 'Is not truth worth more than a rupee or so?'" In relating the whole story the teacher said that the occasion of absence was one on which the whole class except himself was absent and that the Principal suspected a conspiracy though *none existed*. Now in the class to which the story was given, there were two students who had been remaining absent off and on. Their imagination was fired on hearing the story. They determined to conspire to remain absent from the class. On the morrow all the students of the class belonging to the sect to which the two students belonged were absent. The teacher could give no other reason of this sudden absence excepting the psychological effect produced by his narration of the abovementioned story.

A teacher was teaching a lesson in which was described a gun. In expressing what we mean by a trigger he referred to the mock gun with which young children play. It happened that he spoke of this matter some

ten times. On the next turn of that lesson a few students made a conspiracy and brought the small gun to the class and fired it from behind the benches, some three times in one period.

BUILDING CHARACTER.

So far I have dealt with the negative aspect of moral instruction—the *dont-do* method of moral instruction as practised in the various ways of either asking children directly not to do a certain action, or by showing them the picture of evil in performance in which they may be denouncers of evil or witnesses thereof, or both together as in novels, &c., with the intention, that seeing the darkness of evil, they might shun it, or by involuntarily describing evil to them with not an altogether consciously present belief that they would shun mischief which is described to them.

As may be gathered from the above, the negative method of moral instruction, in my humble opinion, fails oftener than succeeds. Reasons for this have been pointed out above.

"THE DO-THIS METHOD."

Now I shall write something about the positive side of moral education—"the *do-this*" method of instruction.

At the very outset let it be noted that the human mind, and more so the child mind, follows positive suggestion more quickly and readily than the negative suggestion. The following up of a positive suggestion involves less effort than the following up of a negative suggestion. In acting up to a negative suggestion we have to note a particular act, habit or state as undesirable and then to avoid it. The effort involved in hold-

ing in mind the evil is gratuitous. In acting up to a positive suggestion we have simply to embrace it, act according to it and it becomes a part of our very being. Further the mind is naturally active. The innate activity only requires direction. Therefore the '*do-order*' is at once followed up; on the other hand, the '*dont-do-order*' works against the natural tendency of the human mind, and is therefore not followed. For the same reason much of the pious effort spent in painting evil with a view that the evil may be avoided fails. It fails because it is working against nature, because it tries to put the mind of the child in an inactive, unnatural condition.

Their mind being active, tell men what they might do rather than what they might not.

USE OF MAN'S IMITATIVE CHARACTER.

Another psychological fact that I want to emphasize and which I have mentioned above just in passing is the imitative character of the human mind—more specially of the child mind. W. W. Atkinson says "man is essentially an imitative animal... We are constantly doing things because others do them." If we were to reflect for a while over the actions that we do for no other reason than that we see others doing them we shall be amazed to see the extent to which we are imitative. Our dress, food, morality and even our ways of thinking and the books we read are determined more by custom than by rational choice. Children are veritable apes. In fact the greater part of the educability of man consists in his imitativeness.

The fact must never be forgotten by the teacher, and every advantage should be taken of the imitative instinct. The part that is

desired to be played by the child should be played in his presence. Example, as the old proverb has it, is better than precept. Therefore if moral education is to be accomplished men of the highest and the best character should be appointed teachers. Therefore it was that in ancient India high moral character was thought to be the most necessary qualification of a teacher, and the teachers—*Brahmins*—were honoured most. The importance of character of teachers cannot be over-emphasized. In fact all moral instruction will be useless until we have teachers of a very high character. A teacher who does not practise what he preaches, will, instead of curing evil ways of the students, produce in them the habit of hypocrisy and simulation.

MORAL TRAINING v. MORAL INSTRUCTION.

Another point to note in connection with forming an efficient system of moral education is the distinction between instruction and training. This distinction though not ignored by educationists is yet hardly emphasized to the extent it deserves to be. At any rate, hardly any provision is made in our schools for moral training as distinguished from mere instruction. Giving of information regarding certain points of morality is all that is done. Hardly any attention is paid to the actual progress made by the student in his morals.

I have quoted Professor James, in support of my position that acting out a bad part in cold blood is a very effective way of producing the corresponding emotion. This applies *mutatis mutandis* to the acting out of good parts. Of course, I do not subscribe fully and entirely to the physical theory of emotions of James-Lange. But I fully believe and have found

it true in my personal experience that acting out a part in cold-blood is the most effective way of winning oneself over. Sometimes when angry I put on a smiling face, laughed and the anger was no more. The method has been found successful in case of some of my friends and pupils. The *Hatha Yoga* of the Hindus is a system of physical actions for producing corresponding mental states. The Yogis of yore asked their disciples to undergo several austerities before giving them *Brahma Jnan*.—Knowledge Divine. They fully understood that knowledge unless reduced to practice was a ghostly abstraction. *Tapas* (ascetic practices) was an essential step in moral education. Aristotle requires that his pupil should pass through a course of moral training before being instructed in moral philosophy. Professor James in his "Varieties of Religious Experience" recommends even gratuitous asceticism as serviceable in developing moral character. To quote once more his own powerful words: "Refuse to express a passion and it dies. Count ten before venting your anger and its occasion seems ridiculous. Whistling to keep up courage is no mere figure of speech. There is no more valuable precept in moral education than this, as all of us, who have experienced, know. If we wish to conquer undesirable emotional tendencies in ourselves we must assiduously, and in the first instance cold bloodedly, go through the outward movements of those contrary dispositions which we wish to cultivate. Smooth the brow, brighten the eye, contract the dorsal rather than the ventral aspect of the frame, and speak in a major key, pass the genial compliment, and indeed your heart must indeed be frigid if it does not gradually thaw." Wonderful words! are not these?

Rudolf Eucken goes so far as to say that even doubts of moral philosophy would be solved by moral action. Even for avoiding immoral acts that have been once committed, the most effective method is of "Praischit," self-inflicted bodily punishment as a penance for the past sin. The movements in blood and marrow have a reality about them compared to which reality of mere knowledge is as a dream.

SOME PRACTICAL HINTS—DIARIES.

Another method that I have found very successful in my experience, for developing moral habits, and which was suggested to me by a friend at Harwar, is that of keeping diaries. My friend, a professor in the same College with me, asked his pupils to keep diaries in which there were one big column and several other small ones. In the big column was to be written the name of the virtue or virtuous habit to be cultivated and in the other columns were to be made entries of marks to be given by the pupil himself to himself at the close of the day just before going to bed or at any time that he felt most fresh. The maximum number of marks was to be ten. Marks of each day were to be entered in a separate column. By totalling the marks the students found out what progress they had made. My friend too kept himself informed about the moral progress of the students by sometimes looking into their diaries. The students did not object to their diaries being inspected. On the back of the page were recorded new resolutions made every night to be followed up the next-day. Half an hour every day was devoted to the study of some good, inspiring moral book. This was done during any part of the day that the

student felt most in mood to do so. A particular set of virtues was thus marked for about a month or so after which period another set was taken up. I shall give a more detailed scheme later on when I shall have matured it.

STEP BY STEP.

In trying to cure old bad habits the best plan is to proceed gradually. We should not give our will such a task as may ensure its failure. But if one *can* take a big step at once and then have a holiday that is not wrong. REPLACE LOWER BY HIGHER PLEASURES.

Another suggestion that I want to make in this regard is that we should substitute higher pleasures for the lower pleasures that we have been enjoying in our bad habits heretofore. Evil cannot be driven out directly by mere opposition. Keep your mind engaged with something better and evil shall find no entry therein. If you want to cure people of wine-bibbling and make them teetotalers, the most effective way to do this is to supply them with superior enjoyment. Open syrup shops in place of dram restaurants. Dear teacher! make your pupil take pleasure in something higher if you want him to get rid of his bad habit.

RELIGIOUS SENTIMENT AND PRAYER.

Exercising the religious sentiment and offering prayers every day as a help in moral education are not very much favourably looked up to by moralists now-a-days. Whether morality involves God or not is a religio-metaphysical question and cannot be discussed here. However I must state that in my personal experience this practice I have found of very great help in developing character.

FOOD IN RELATION TO CHARACTER.

Dr. Kellog, the learned writer of 'The Living Temple,' has devoted a section of his valuable book to the effect our food has on our character. Other European writers of note are coming to attach more and more importance to this subject. The ancient Hindu seers believed that food had very great influence on our character. They classified food articles as Tamoguni (sloth-inducing), Rajoguni (passion-producing) and Satoguni (those which restore the mind to equilibrium). A detailed discussion of the subject is beyond the scope of the present article. I might take it up at some future date. Here I might state in

passing that unstimulating plain simple articles of food, especially the natural products like fruit, are very helpful in overcoming evil passions.

LAST WORD.

It would be a matter of sincere joy to me if any of my readers takes up this question and either communicates to me privately his own opinion on the question or publishes it in some magazine. If I could find even one man who is prepared to help me in this cause, I shall feel highly gratified. May my poor effort appeal to some noble soul, such is my sincere prayer!

TARACHAND D. GAJRA.

THE HINDU UNIVERSITY.

STARTING WORK POSTPONED.

At a Conference that was held on the 18th instant between Sir Harcourt Butler and the promoters of the Hindu University Society, it was decided to drop the idea of starting the work of the Hindu University at once, because the existing buildings are much too inadequate for the purpose. The Hindu University will come into existence about the year 1917 by which time it is hoped that the new buildings will have been constructed at Nagwa. Sir Harcourt Butler has contributed Rs. 500 and the Hon'ble Mr. Sharp Rs. 250 to the Hindu University funds.

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.

(Continued from page 436.)

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
19. Nitrogen.	<i>History</i>—discovery of nitrogen by Rutherford in 1772—Lavoisier naming the gas "azote" to indicate that it would not support combustion—Nitrogen by Chaptal. <i>Occurrence</i> :— $\frac{4}{5}$ of the air is nitrogen. In combination :—in saltpetre and Chili saltpetre. <i>Preparation of Nitrogen</i> (1) from air (2) from ammonium-chloride—chief properties of nitrogen.	Oldham, Chapter XX Wilson and Hedley, Chapter VIII Mac Nair, Chapter VI Bausor, Chapter
20. Ammonia.	<i>History</i> :—"Spirits of harts-horn"—Priestley first collected the gas in 1774. <i>Occurrence</i> :— In air in small quantities. <i>Preparation</i> :—By heating a mixture of ammonium chloride and slaked-lime. Ammonia should be dried by passing it through a cylinder of quicklime. N.B.—The gas cannot be dried by means of sulphuric-acid or calcium-chloride. Why? Chief properties—composition of ammonia—ammonium-salts—effect of heat on ammonium chloride—	Oldham, Chapter XX Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XX Whitton, Chapter VII Bausor, Chapter II
21. Oxides of Nitrogen.	<i>Nitrous oxide</i> :—(laughing gas)—discovered by Priestley in 1772—obtained by heating Ammonium-nitrate—Properties and composition of nitrous-oxide. <i>Nitric oxide</i> :—obtained by Van Helmont but first investigated by Priestley. Prepared by treating copper with nitric-acid diluted with its own volume of water. Properties of the same. <i>Nitrogen-peroxide</i> :—Prepared from lead-nitrate—Investigation of its properties.	Oldham, Chapter XXI Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XX Bausor, Chapter III, (Part 2)
22. Nitric acid.	<i>History</i> :—Known to ancients—aqua fortis—Lavoisier first showed that it contained nitrogen—Cavendish showed its compound nature by synthesis; prepared by gently warming a mixture of nitre or Chili saltpetre and strong sulphuric-acid—chief properties—a very powerful oxidising agent—action on metals. <i>Nitrates</i> :—General characteristics (a) soluble in water, (b) good oxidising agents: action of heat on nitrates :—Nitrates of potassium and sodium	Do.

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
23. Carbon.	yield nitrites and oxygen. Those of lead and copper break up into the oxide of the metal, nitrogen-peroxide, and oxygen. <i>Test for nitrates:—</i> (1) Heating with concentrated sulphuric acid and copper (2) Black-ring test:—Adding iron-sulphate solution to a cold solution of the nitrate in water. Pouring strong sulphuric-acid gently down the side of the tube. A brown ring is produced at the surface of contact of the two liquids. <i>Allotropic-forms of carbon:—</i> 2 crystalline, viz., diamond and graphite, and 1 amorphous, viz., charcoal. Sir Humphrey Davy first showed that diamond was carbon. When an element is found to exist in varieties which have physical properties widely differing from those of the common form these varieties of the same element are called the <i>allotropes</i> or allotropic forms of the element (from a Greek word meaning other forms). Other elements shewing allotropy are <i>sulphur</i> (the four forms are:—rhombic, prismatic, plastic and amorphous) and <i>Phosphorus</i> (in two forms:—yellow and red). <i>Diamond:—</i> Found in various parts of India, Brazil, South-Africa and Australia. Moissan, a French chemist, prepared artificially only minute imperfect diamonds. <i>Graphite</i> (Black-lead or plumbago)—Found in large quantities in Ceylon, Siberia, India and California—Employed for making pencils, plumbago crucibles, for polishing gun-powder, as a coating for iron to prevent rusting, and as a lubricant in machinery in which oil cannot be used. <i>Amorphous carbon:—</i> Several forms:—Sugar charcoal, charcoal or wood charcoal, animal charcoal, lamp-black, coke, gas carbon, coal—general properties of carbon—most important, the reducing action of carbon. <i>The oxides of carbon:—</i> (a) Carbon dioxide (carbonic acid gas).	Oldham, Chapter XXIII Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XVIII Whitton, Chapter IX

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
24. Study of salt Hydrochloric acid.	<i>History:—</i>Discovery of the gas by Van Helmont in the 17th century—named <i>gas sylvestre</i> by him. Black in the 18th century shewed that it was a constituent of alkaline carbonates—called it Fixed Air— Lavoisier proved it to be an oxide of carbon. Preparation of carbon-dioxide, by heating carbonates of calcium, magnesium and sodium 2. (Laboratory method) by the action of acid on chalk, marble, or lime-stone—with marble dilute nitric acid or hydrochloric acid but dilute sulphuric acid with finely powdered chalk—Examination of the chief properties of the gas—Burning of magnesium and potassium in the gas. Expts. for the determination of the (1) percentage loss of wt. when calcium-carbonate is heated, (2) volume of carbon-dioxide evolved from 1 gm. of chalk, marble or lime-stone, (3) the percentage, by wt. of carbon dioxide in chalk, marble or lime-stone. <i>Carbonates:—</i> Two series of carbonates, viz., (1) the normal carbonates (2) the acid carbonates or the bicarbonates. All the carbonates effervesce with acids forming the salt of the acid, carbon dioxide, and water. (2). <i>Carbon-monoxide:—</i> Preparation of the gas and examination of its properties. Occurrence and properties of salt—action of strong sulphuric acid on salt. <i>Hydrochloric acid (gas).</i> <i>History:—</i>Discovery of the gas in 1648 by Glauber; was collected by Priestley. Preparation of Hydrochloric acid by heating common-salt and strong sulphuric acid—Examination of its chief properties—Its acid property and great solubility—Solution of the gas—Mariatic acid—Spirits of salt—Preparation of hydrogen from gaseous hydrochloric acid—Action of gaseous hydrochloric acid on heated oxides and peroxides. <i>Chlorides:—</i> Compounds of elements with chlorine.—	Oldham, Chapters VI, XV. Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XVI. Whitton, Chapter XVII Bausor, Chapter X

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme,—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
25. The Halogens.	Properties of chlorides :—All chlorides of the common metals with the exception of those mercury, lead, and silver, are soluble in water. With hot strong sulphuric-acid they react forming hydrochloric-acid and sulphates—with silver-nitrate solution they give a white precipitate of silver-chloride which is insoluble in nitric acid. <i>Chlorine</i> :— <i>History</i> :—Discovery of the gas in 1774 by Scheele by heating ores of manganese with strong hydrochloric-acid. Davy proved it to be an element and named it <i>chlorine</i> from its colour. <i>Preparation</i> :— By heating a mixture of manganese dioxide and strong hydrochloric acid or a mixture of sodium-chloride (1 part), manganese dioxide (one part) and strong sulphuric acid (4 parts)—Study of its properties—Characteristic odour and colour—bleaching action— <i>Bromine</i> :— Discovered by Ballard in 1826, prepared by the action of strong sulphuric-acid on a mixture of sodium or potassium bromide with manganese-dioxide—Study the properties of bromine. Action of strong sulphuric acid on a bromide—Hydrobromic acid is formed which reacts with strong sulphuric-acid giving bromine and sulphur-dioxide. <i>Bromides</i> :— Similar to chlorides. They give off bromine when heated with strong sulphuric acid and manganese dioxide. With silver-nitrate solution they give a yellowish white precipitate of silver-bromide which is insoluble in nitric acid. <i>Iodine</i> :—Discovered in 1812 by Courtois. Preparation of iodine by distilling a mixture of potassium or sodium iodide, manganese dioxide and strong sulphuric-acid—study of its properties—Action of strong sulphuric-acid on iodide—Hydroiodic-acid formed reacts with sulphuric acid giving sulphur-dioxide and iodine. <i>Iodides</i> :— Similar to chlorides and bromides—They (1) give iodine when heated with manganese dioxide	Oldham, Chapters XV and XVII Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XVI

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
26 Sulphur.	and strong sulphuric-acid, (2) give with silver-nitrate solution a yellow precipitate of silveriodide insoluble in nitric-acid. <i>The Halogens</i> :—Why so called ? Chlorine (Gk. <i>Chloros</i>, green). Bromine (Gk. <i>brōmos</i>, stench). Iodine (Gk. <i>ioeides</i>, like a violet). Flourine..... Comparison of the properties of the Halogens. Known from the earliest times. <i>Occurrence</i> :— In the free state is found in the neighbourhood of volcanoes—As sulphides combined with metals, viz, iron pyrites, copper pyrites (copper-sulphide), Galena (lead-sulphide), zinc blende (zinc-sulphide), Cinnabar (mercury sulphide). As sulphates, as Gypsum (calcium-sulphate), Epsom-salts (magnesium-sulphate). Extraction of sulphur. Allotropic forms of sulphur :—Four well-known allotropic forms—two crystalline and two amorphous. Octohedral or Rhombic sulphur and Prismatic sulphur are crystalline; Plastic and amorphous sulphur; Preparation and examination of the properties of these allotropic forms. General properties of sulphur :—(1) action of heat on sulphur. (2) Action of sulphur on metals, chiefly iron, copper and silver. <i>Sulphuretted Hydrogen</i> :— Preparation of Hydrogen sulphide by treatment of Ferrous sulphide with cold dilute sulphuric or hydrochloric acid. Description and use of Kipp's apparatus. Examination of the properties of Hydrogen sulphide :—reducing agent, precipitates metallic sulphides. <i>Sulphur dioxide</i> :—Formation of the gas when sulphur burns in air. Preparation, in the laboratory, by treating copper turnings with strong sulphuric acid. Study of the chief properties of the gas—Good bleaching agent and disinfectant. <i>Sulphuric acid</i> :—Preparation of sulphuric acid. Properties of the acid. Action of the acid on metals. Dilute sulphuric acid has no action on	Oldham, Chapters XVIII and XIX Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XXII Whitton, Chapter VI Bausor Chapter IV, (Part 2) Macnair, Chapter XI

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.—contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
	copper, lead and tin. With zinc and iron, hydrogen is evolved and the sulphates of the metals are formed. Most metals when heated with strong sulphuric acid give sulphur dioxide and sulphates. Sulphates:—Most sulphates are soluble in water. Sulphates of Lead and Barium are insoluble in water. Test for sulphates: (1) Formation of a white ppte. of Barium sulphate on the addition of Barium chloride solution to the solution of the substance indicates the presence of a sulphate. (2) Heating on charcoal with sodium carbonate and placing the mass on a silver coin and moistening with water—a black stain on the coin shews the presence of a sulphate.	
27. Phosphorus.	Phosphorus—discovered by Brand, a Hamburg alchemist; obtained from Bone Ash in 1771 by Scheele. Allotropic forms of Phosphorus:—two forms. Yellow and red Phosphorus. Study of the properties of the two manufacture of matches—ordinary or Lucifer matches and Safety matches—Phosphorus oxide and phosphoric acid. Preparation and properties. Preparation of the acid by oxidation of red Phosphorus with strong nitric acid Phosphates.	Oldham Chapter XXII, Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XXI Whitton, Chapter XI
28. Chemical Equivalents.	Equivalent weight (E. W.) of an element—term used for the weight of an element which will combine with or replace one part by weight of hydrogen or 8 parts by that of oxygen. The E. W. of Hydrogen is 1. Determination of E. wts. of some elements:—of oxygen; of a metal. E. W. of oxygen.—by passing dry hydrogen over heated copper oxide. E. Wt. of Some Metals. Determination of the E. W. of a metal:— (a) By measuring the volume of hydrogen evolved. Treating a known weight of the metal (x gms.) with dilute acid, measuring the volume of hydrogen evolved and calculating the weight of the gas (y gms.), after correcting for pressure and temperature of the gas at S. T. P. corrections to be made for S. T. P. and then the weight of the gas to be calculated taking the	Oldham, Chapter VIII Wilson and Hedley, Chapter XIV Bausor, (Part 2), Chapter IX Macnair, Chapter IX

Detailed Syllabus in Chemistry—C. Group, S.S.L.C. Scheme.— contd.

Outline.	Subject-matter.	Reference.
	weight of 1 litre Hydrogen at N. T. P = 0.09 gm Then E. W. of the metal = x/y . [This method may be used for magnesium, aluminium, iron and zinc with 0.08 gm for Mg., 0.07 gm. for Al., 0.2 gr. for iron and zinc. Dilute Hydrochloric acid for Al, dilute sulphuric acid for the rest] (b) By conversion of the metal into the oxide:— Most convenient method in most cases, consists in converting a weighed quantity of the metal into its oxide and weighing the oxide produced. From the results, the weight of the metal which would combine with 8 gms. of oxygen is determined, i.e., E. W. of the metal. To convert the metal into the oxide—first converting the metal into the nitrate and then by breaking this up by ignition when a residue of oxide remains. [This method may be used for copper, lead, magnesium, zinc and tin (0.5 gm. to 1 gm).] (c) By deposition of metals, applicable only in some cases. The deposition of a metal from a solution of one of its salts by placing in it another metal. The amounts deposited under like conditions are proportional to the E. W. of the metals in question. [Mg. or zinc or iron and copper sulphate solution or silver nitrate solution. (To be continued.) E. NARASIMHAM.	

NOTES OF LESSONS ON ENGLISH TEXTS.

THE purpose of this paper is to show how the educative effect of the three upper forms of a secondary school is a preparation for the Intermediate Course and how colleges may develop into centres of academic training. Language and literature foster and strengthen individuality as the mathematical and physical sciences, in secondary and collegiate instruction. To realise this in practice demands strenuous effort and faith in the principles of education.

Two methods may be adopted.—The B. A. classes may be considered and the ways and means of bringing up the students of lower stages up to their standard; or, the question may be approached from below, with secondary school-work as the basis. Only a combination of both completes the whole. Then, the professors of the B. A. classes are to prepare sixth form pupils in English for the University. This humble writer saw such a course practised in a first-grade college-attached high school directed by a greatest educationist. Practical limitations make it impossible in all institutions; but, the existing staffs may keep in view the higher model. He sat at the feet of one of the ablest Principals and Professors of English in the B. A. classes. He taught in private his old Matriculation pupils the texts of the First-in-Arts. He is now in close contact with the Intermediate. He has often examined how, in the secondary course of instruction, the foundation was not properly laid or, if it was, why candidates failed to profit thereby. The importance of a reflection on the future with reference to the past can be best conveyed personally by concrete examples. But, even

more highly gifted teachers may here notice something useful for comparing notes with.

A simple beginning may be made in prose. Let us take a Matriculation non-detailed text-book—*The Little Duke*. When told to give in the indirect form, conversation and dialogue, they merely say Osmond said—They quote here the speech; Richard replied—Again they quote. They may be compelled to avoid this, and then use the phrases or expressions—'hold peace,' 'meant kindly by me,' 'sobbed over.' They may be next told to summarise Chapter VIII and see mistakes corrected. Their attention may be drawn to three points ignored by them.

1. Sir Eric expressed his joy that Osmond had risked his life in the duke's service.
2. Osmond was also a diplomatist watching the proper time to take away the duke.
3. Fru. Astrida blessed him on his safe return.
4. Richard gratefully compared him to a mother-bird.

In the various chapters, persons' qualities may be elicited and connected accounts of characters got. Subjects of composition may be given thus:

Persons—

- (1). Richard.
- (2). Osmond.
- (3). Alberic.
- (4). Bernard.

Specimen headings for (1) Richard:

- (a) Richard's early training.
- (b) Fru. Astrida's tenderness and love.
- (c) The hunt.
- (d) The burial—French King's arrival. Following to France and return.

- (e) His physical training, other conditions.
- (f) His intellectual qualifications.
- (g) His sore experiences and their lessons improving his personal character, qualifying for statesmanship and inspiring with piety.
- (h) The influence of his ancestry and his spiritual surroundings.
- (i) The general effects of his many-sided training.

Subjects—*Qualities*.

- i. Forgiveness.
 - ii. The use of games.
 - iii. Training in endurance.
 - iv. Diplomacy—its craft, difficulty.
 - v. Training in statesmanship.
 - vi. Relation between master and servant.
- Specimen headings for *Forgiveness*.

- (a) Arnulf's Treachery.
- (b) The Burial.
- (c) The treatment of Lothair and Carlo-man.
- (d) The Crowning Act—shelter of the Count of Arnulf.

In the relation of master and servant, the following points are illustrated by Richard and Osmond:—

1. Osmond brings him with great difficulty from Laons.
2. He watches the proper occasion when the French are immersed in the joy of having acquired territories.
3. His anxiety for Richard's welfare is so great that he advises him not to stir or distrust in any way till he is set free.

4. Osmond ignoring all personal risks renders loyal service.

5. Richard acknowledges it without pride of position.

Thus, various parts of a simple story-book may be connected. A book of simple facts in simple language may be next taken—*Citizens of the Empire*—a non-detailed text-book this year.

Here each small paragraph states a single item. The whole seems to be disconnected. To those who have not studied English History in Form V, it is more difficult than to those taking up English History as one of their optional subjects. Hence may be given as a subject of composition—an account of Parliament under the following heads:—

1. Constituency and electorate.
2. Candidature and election.
3. Party Government—The Government Party and the opposition.
- Formation of the ministry.
4. Bills—Government and Private.
5. General Re-election.
6. Power of the House of Lords—Mr. Asquith's Referendum.

Then a definite subject—*Law-making*—may be set for exercise, so that the pupils may state

1. The object of laws.
2. The conditions of success.
3. The example of a king's obedience.
4. Procedure in dealing with crimes.
5. The advantage of the system of trial by jury.

In a detailed text-book like *Tom Browne's School-days*, the ground must be cleared

by modernising the portions containing colloquialisms or localisms.

Speaking of Benjy's intense suffering from rheumatism, we have to trace—

1. its gradual growth from the extremities to the joints of the body,
2. the mystic remedy without medicine,
3. visit to Farmer Ives, and
4. incidents connected with it till Benjy and Tom return.

In Chapter II, the pupil may be told to write on *A Public and a Private School*—after the teacher's brief sketch of a public school and to contrast here Dr. Arnold's ways with those of the private gentleman appointing two ushers.

Let us proceed to the Intermediate.

In a non-detailed book—*Greek Legends*—a simple narrative alone is required; but, Greek traditions may be compared with Indian. *Lord Dalhousie (Rulers of India Series)* corresponds to *Citizens of the Empire*. The first chapters trace his rise to the Governor-Generalship of India and give a character sketch of 'The Man.' The last portion deals with his policy; and intervening chapters, with events in detail. These must be used to connect the earlier and later portions. Viewing Lord Dalhousie in relation to others, details may be considered here—

1. His courtesy to the Court of Directors.
2. His exacting loyalty from his subordinates.
3. Their appreciation of his personal intimate knowledge of men and provinces.
4. His hard work as his own Foreign Minister unlike Viceroys of the present day.

5. His visit to Rangoon in stormy August to encourage soldiers that fought in the Burmese War.

6. His success in making Rangoon an emporium of trade.

7. His realisation of it in his second visit.

8. His sense of duty—personally writing large volumes of manuscripts—health breaking down in 8 years after the age of 35.

In a detailed book—*The Coverley Papers*—each number may be analysed by the students and topical treatment of the series expected. One broad question of Lord Dalhousie may be then analysed as follows:—

Dalhousie's administration and policy in different departments.

I. Military Department and policy.

- (1) Military organisation.
- (2) Non-regulation.
- (3) A complete scheme for provision against mutiny and for maintenance of British troops as supreme.
- (4) Removal of military capital to the north with the position of Simla in the scheme.

II. Political policy in relation to conquered territories and other Native States.

- (1) Doctrine of Lapse with examples to illustrate.
- (2) Re-organisation and non-regulation.
- (3) His steps to avoid military despotism and bring the army under civilian control.
- (4) Administration of distant provinces, as Local Administrations under the control of the Governor-General.

III. Education.

Centralised system on western lines—to be explained also from general knowledge.

IV. Finance.

(1) Railway system—how consolidating the whole kingdom by a military system.

(2) Facilitating commerce.

(3) Telegraphs as promoting military and commercial interests.

(4) Net-work of roads, canals and bridges.

(5) *Public Works*—Civil Engineering in relation to irrigation.

Further facilities—Local Engineering Colleges and Schools.

V. Illness and last years in India.

We shall now take up the teaching of poetry.

For the Matriculation, a narration of 'Dora,' 'The Bell of Atri' or any other similar poem is not difficult. But, in Wordsworth's *Michael*, special attention must be drawn to single points before the whole is viewed. Thus, the speciality of Michael's love may be brought out as follows, after getting and giving:—

Great was the love that he had for him who was the object of his love and enjoyment. Very often, the old man tended the babe, like a woman. His object was not to entertain himself like fathers in general. As a patient man, he felt bound to show kindness. He rocked his cradle with all the delicacy of a woman.

Let us take the way of *Michael's thinking within himself of simple problems of life and giving up lofty ones*:—It is the same course here also:—In my boyhood, I did not mind the reading of books. I was always led to love nature and its beauties. This enabled me to place myself in the position of others. I always used to think on all general problems concerning man and the feelings that

influence his actions in daily life. (But this was only occasional and defective.)

If the first two hundred lines of the poem are thus handled, we become accustomed to its style and its thought.

Then only, the pupils may be led to take a full view of the young Michael's early training, the parent's difficulty that led to their sending him to a foreign land, the course of life he led there and the ruin brought on by absence of self-control. If the class consists of pupils fit for the Matriculation, they may be led to a debate on the discipline of consequences. Wordsworth's 'Michael' and Tennyson's 'Lady of Shalott' were prescribed for the same year. Pupils may be led to see that Wordsworth treats of mountain scenery in the North when speaking of the residence of Michael, and Tennyson, of the plains and the scenery in the South. The rational understanding of geography is here useful.

Out of five pieces set for the next School-Final Examination, Addison's requires an intelligent handling. The abstract thought at the close has to be brought out in the form of an imaginary dialogue. *Rugby Chapel* is the only one not learned already in the lower forms. In all, only 352 lines are prescribed for a year. So, they are reasonably expected to be studied in detail, in spite of no question having been set on standard authors last year. It is of no use to complain against the examiners after questions are set the next time. Pupils do not generally read the texts of their own accord, even a non-detailed book easily made out by themselves. Yet, they may be forced to read 'Rugby Chapel' a number of times and to think over the lines of a new lesson. The teacher's analysis may be given to help them.

- Lines*
- 1—13. The chapel is described.
- 14—25. The chapel-gloom reminds the author of the contrast with his brightness.
- 26—36. Old pupils and friends are left helpless after him.
- 37—56. He exercises his influence for good in the other world also.
- 57—72. Ordinary men waste their lives and die in the vain search for fame.
- 73—84. They are contrasted with ideal persons.
- 85—104. Difficulties are encountered and deserters are found in the camp of those marching towards the goal.
- 105—123. The pilgrim safely reaching the goal alone is welcomed for success against immense odds.
- 124—144. Dr. Arnold far better than those who secured their own salvation worked for saving himself after saving the rest.
- 145—170. Only such examples lead us to believe in the existence of similar conscientious devotees in the past.
- 171—187. The struggle in the onward march to the ideal is compared to the progress of a pilgrim ascending a hill. Without a saintly guide, the strugglers are lost in the way.
- 188—208. The guides, as angels, keep up the spirit of the pilgrims on the march to the celestial city and
- land them safe on its divine shore.
- After this preliminary foundation, we may take up the possible *cross-references* of a topic. Thus with lines 60-61, we consider 73—75 and 153-154.
- Thus with lines 73—75, we consider 60-61 and 153-154.
- Thus with lines 153-154, we consider 60—61 and 73—75.
- The nature of human life with its three aspects of (i) the life of ordinary people begun in lines 60 and 61 and continued to line 72, (ii) the contrast of the noble soul of high aspirations commencing with 73 and 74 and carried down to line 83, (iii) and the belief in the self-sacrificing servants of humanity in the ages past, prefaced by lines 153 and 154 and detailed to line 170.
- Note that the first lines of each of the three groups state the positive aspect :—
- (i) *Most men eddy about* (line 60).
- (ii) And there are some, whom a thirst Ardent, unquenchable, fires, (ll. 73-4.)
- (iii) Yes ! I believe that there lived Others like thee in the past, (ll. 153-4).
- Note again that the negative is, in each case, put later on.
- (i) Striving blindly, achieving Nothing ; and then they die (ll. 65-6).
- (ii) Not with the crowd to be spent, Not without aim to go round In an eddy of purposeless dust (ll. 75-7).
- [A special remark must be made here The "eddy of purposeless dust" in (l. 77) reminds and emphasises the idea contained in
- Most men eddy about (l. 60).]

- (iii) Not like the men of the crowd
Who all round me to-day
Bluster or cringe, and make life
Hideous, and arid, and vile ;
(ll. 155—8)

Now comes the third stage of the two aspects.

A combination of them is seen, after a little scrutiny in the second and third groups, of lines :

- (ii) Ah yes ! some of us strive
Not without action to die
Fruitless, but *something to snatch* *
From dull oblivion, nor all
Glut the devouring grave ! (ll. 79—83).
- (iii) † *But* souls tempered with fire,
Fervent, heroic and good,
Helpers and friends of mankind.
(ll. 159—161).

Line 159 is a forcible reminder of line 74.† Again and again, let the ideas be elucidated and evolved from the three paras on the method laid down. At the same time, let it be critically noticed that lines 134—138 and others like them can be pressed into the service in introducing connecting links of thought.

If, in the paths of the world,
Stones might have wounded thy feet,
Toil or dejection have tried
Thy spirit, of that we saw
Nothing—&c. (ll. 134—138).

Note critically the force of the blank in 138 and introduce the thought as a link in the chain of thoughts.

* Italics is ours.

† Again italics is ours.

‡ Vide positive aspect (ii) above at the very beginning of quotations for this question.

XXI

Let us go up one step in the ladder to the Junior Intermediate. The subject-matter of *Lancelot and Elaine* and of Blackmore's '*Lorna Doone*' may be written by the students themselves. In the short term of the Junior Intermediate may be proceeded with the student's statement of the subject-matter of Keats's *Isabella* with a detailed explanation of the lines on despondency and the idealism of *Isabella's* love. In dealing with Tennyson's poem abovementioned, the object must be to contrast (1) Arthur's magnanimity and confidence in the queen and in the knightly behaviour of *Lancelot* as contrasted with their treachery and (2) the simple maid's sincere love as contrasted with the pretence of the queen. This prepares the student for the idealism of Keats and for a study of Milton's *Lycidas* in the Senior Intermediate.

Amongst the points of detail are the following :—

1. A short essay on *Fame*, based on the two lines

Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
To scorn delights and live laborious days.

Add to this a discussion based on personal observations also to show why, in matters of fame, is required "the perfect witness" of "all-judging Jove."

2. Explanatory paraphrase of the twenty lines condemning the church.

3. A short commentary on The Pathetic Fallacy contained in lines 133—135 and continued ; (cf. Keats.)

4. The meaning, with the context, of lines 165-7, so as to show the change in the strain from sorrow running throughout almost the whole body of the poem to joy at the close of

it. Before we part with *Lycidas*, we must form clear notions of how to annotate and understand the commentaries. We may therefore study the two lines quoted here—under and analyse the comments as follows. It takes eight hours in three readings.

Lycidas :—

But the two-handed engine at the door, (130)
Stands ready to smite once, and smite no
more.

Two-handed engine

Three methods of interpretation.

I. Biblical.

(a) If the image is Biblical, we may find in the three Chapters of the Book of Revelation, St. John's awful vision of 'one like unto the Son of Man.' The divine figure is said to have "a sharp two-edged sword" coming out of his mouth. The agency for the reform of a corrupt church is certainly, according to Milton, the two-edged sword of St. John's vision; but the suggestion has been modified by his imagination into a double-handed agency (Masson.)

The Biblical allusion is the most probable of the interpretations for the reason that Milton constantly alludes to the Scripture in *Paradise Lost*.

(b) It may be an allusion to the 'axe of Reformation' in *Matthew* iii, 10 where a 'two-handed engine' is referred to; and smiting at once is an allusion to *Samuel* xxvi, 8 "Let me smite him, I pray thee, with the spear even to the earth at once, and I will not smite him the second time." He means punishment will overtake all of a sudden. Metaphorically by the 'axe of God's Reformation hewing at the old and hollow trunk of papacy,' he means that the Reformation in England will cut at the root of papal power,

This was the hope of the Puritans and especially of Milton, a Puritan of Puritans. (Newton).

(c) Dr. Warburton suggests that the sword is St. Peter's sword turned into 'two-handed sword of romance.' But this is not a likely interpretation. This is styled an engine and the expression is only a periphrasis for an axe. If this invective had been invented against the Church of England, it would not have been allowed to be published in the University Press as Archbishop Laud's influence was great.

II. Historical and Prosaic.

1. It refers to the English Parliament with its two Houses. The Parliament had not been summoned for eight years before 1637. Charles wanted to be absolute, i.e., to have the 'Reign of Thorough.' All people hoped that the Parliament would rectify the heaps of abuses in Church and State. But the objection to this is that Parliament came only in 1640; and Milton, in 1637, must therefore, be only said to anticipate its coming.

2. Keightley thinks that it refers to the execution of Laud. This again is open to the objection that in 1637, Archbishop Laud and the King were intimate and in the height of their power; and, therefore the future fate of Laud can at best be taken only as a prophecy.

Further this cannot refer to Laud himself as he was too careful to notice the least attack against the Church and himself, for example, even a word pasted in a short label. (Todd).

III. Poetic precedent.

He might have taken the idea of condemning the corrupt priest as the grim wolf from Spenser's description, 53 years before Milton,

in the Shepherd's Calendar from Spenser's severe attack of hireling shepherds in the Church. *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* may be next studied. As two poems of the same poet, the two moods described by them may be contrasted. Even before this, something of intelligent comparison may be begun in Form VI. *Rugby Chapel* may be compared with *Gray's Elegy*, the description of English character in *Tom Browne's School-days* with the same in *Rugby Chapel*, and of the *Stage-Coach*, *Tally-ho* in the former with *The Mail Coach*, in De Quincey. Only a superficial attempt should be made with De Quincey.

In Form VI, it is possible for the teacher to help the comparison of the life of ordinary people as described by Matthew Arnold in *Rugby Chapel* with the lines on Fame in *Milton's Lycidas*. These being difficult for the sixth form may be explained fully enough. It is enough to say only as much as is necessary to cultivate taste for poetry. In the Intermediate, the students may be led to the further step of closely observing how the ideas of Milton and Matthew Arnold in the lines on Fame and on ordinary mortals respectively are the same and how the words and ideas go hand-in-hand as noticed in the use of 'aloft by both the poets and the idea of "perishing" "achieving nothing." As the earliest step, it may be easily got that Milton as predecessor, is imitated by Matthew Arnold.

The Intermediate may be used as the link between the Matriculation and School-Final on the one side and the B.A. classes on the other. Thus, Milton's *Lycidas* may be compared with *Rugby Chapel* and *Gray's Elegy* on the one side and utilised in taking

into consideration, Shelley's *Adonais* and Tennyson's *In Memoriam*, on the other. Students of the Intermediate classes may be satisfied with a fair idea of Milton, Shelley and Tennyson in dealing with the same kind of subject matter. In the B. A. classes a more careful scrutiny may be demanded so as to see how far a little originality is attempted. The examples set forth hitherto have shown how, from a modest beginning, teachers, may take scholars up to the standard of criticism and a little originality. This brings us naturally to the study of Shakespeare in the Intermediate and B.A. standards. As each scene proceeds, the qualities of personages may be elicited, when the same personages re-appear, the Professor may elicit whether there is consistency or any apparent contradiction and try to discover how far students may be enabled to discuss both the sides of a question. As each act is being gone through, the relation of the central figure to the other characters may be elicited then and there. After a whole play is finished, the commentary on the central figure may be, a great way elicited from the students themselves. At the end of the play, the whole structure, may be built into a harmonious whole, by a few consecutive lectures during the course of which the Professor allows free discussion where differences of opinion exist. The Principal or Professor of English ought not to rest contented with students' saying Gervinus expounds one opinion, Dowden a second and Bradley a third. He must drive students to a corner and compel them, by a series of questions to answer, test how much they have thought for themselves, assimilated the spirit of the commentators and formed opinions of their own after calm self-thinking. Nothing

special need be said of the B.A. classes as Europeans or Americans generally handle them. Indians are sure to be transported with joy, if they have a Professor Masson for Rhetoric and a Matthew Arnold as Professor of Poetry in our Universities. But, under the conditions of the country as we find it, we have to get on with those that are available. This only expresses the longing that earnest efforts may be made to provide for conditions in which originality may have a fair beginning and receive the most attentive consideration that is necessary to ensure its foundation and growth so as to flower and bear fruit.

C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARY.

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OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

AFTER WAR DANGERS.

Dr. M. E. Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University, contributes an interesting article to the "Sunday Times."

The great public schools, he says, are the unique characteristic of English education. The whole world is interested in them. They have a fascination even for their enemies. They command the affectionate loyalty of their friends. No schools have been more criticised. None are more beloved. The reformer's eye has been on them for nearly a century and a half. Nearly all the other schools of their kind in Europe perished in the French Revolutionary movement or in its aftermath. These alone escaped destruction out of the large family of mediæval boarding-schools for the sons of wealthy families or for poor boys of exceptional promise.

The English public schools were saved by self-reform. Thrice during the last hundred and fifty years they have adjusted themselves at the eleventh hour to the altered needs of their clients. An Etonian and Kingsman, Dr. James, of Rugby, was the most brilliant figure in the first of these three movements of self-reform. He parried the attack of Joseph Priestley, who rightly demanded a larger place for modern studies in the training of boys destined to social responsibility.

Thomas Arnold and his contemporaries at Winchester and elsewhere, turned the flank of the second onslaught. It came a generation after the first, and its leader was Brougham, who voiced the utilitarian Radicalism of the earlier part of the nineteenth century.

The third movement of self-reform was inspired by Thring of Uppingham, by Ridding of Winchester, and by Percival of Clifton. The enemies whom these men, helped by many less famous, defeated after a long campaign were the Germanisers. Matthew Arnold represented the Germanisers in educational literature, but behind

the scenes there were more persistent and less candid assailants of the ancient tradition of the endowed boarding schools in England. These critics were jealous of the prestige of the public schools, were irritated by their shortcomings according to the then fashionable standards of intellectual men, and were anxious to supersede their self-government by a penetrating State control.

PIECES OF PRE-REFORMATION OAK.

But, with the aid of friends in high places and still more by the vigour of their own extension and self-reform, the English public schools resisted the attack. In them the old mediæval tradition of corporate life and of self-training survived into the modern age of bureaucratic organisation and of elaborate many-sided instruction. The great public schools of England are like pieces of Pre-Reformation oak furniture, which, wedged in their wall and often patched up to meet new occasions, have lasted on into a period which regards them as precious survivals of an earlier art.

From all parts of the world educational administrators, themselves full of the modern theories of school organisation (and, at heart, often a little disillusioned about their adequacy), have come to England to see these vigorous relics of past age. They have found them, like England itself, young in their power of self-adaptation and secure in the affections of their friends.

Just as in economics the Middle Ages are renewing their appeal and young men banker after the guild system rather than for the tidiness of centralised modern bureaucracy, so in education we feel once more the power and wisdom of the mediæval tradition, the tradition which trained Thomas Kempis, Sir Thomas More, Philip Sidney, and Shakespeare, and find ourselves a little out of love with the Krupp-like precision of German methods of authorised Lehrplane and leaving examinations.

FAR FROM FAULTLESS.

Let it be admitted at once that our English public schools are far from being faultless. We should have prospered more in the first year of the war if the English public school and Oxford men who hold high office in the Civil Service had been better acquainted with modern science and with its necessary application to warfare and industry. And it is partly the fault of the public schools and of Oxford that some of their most brilliant pupils are cleverer at dialectic than at chemistry.

Nor are the younger public school men able to show that during the last ten years they have played the leading part in English local government which their fathers did. There is something repulsive to many of these younger men (by no means wholly to their discredit) in the cautious methods of recent "democracy." But, as the founders of the Civendish Association tried hard to make public school men realise, there has been need for them in local government—an even greater need because some of the conditions of service in it were odious.

And public schoolmasters cannot escape all the blame for this civic inertia among so many of the young men who have had the advantage of the most costly and best endowed education. Nor is this all. The bright looking corporate life of the English public schools has its dark corners. And some of our younger novelists have catalogued them.

THEY TRAIN MEN.

But, when all is said, the public schools are the greatest institutions in English education. They train men. In the annals of this heroic war there is no heroism greater than that which the old public school boys have shown. They are the friends of their men. They leave no risk to others when they can take it themselves. They are alert always, and cheerful, and never "grouse." They have helped in winning for the new British armies the noblest name for chivalry and courtesy among

all the armies in history. They don't "talk fine," but Sir Henry Newbolt has divined the thoughts of their hearts.

BREAKERS AHEAD.

Nevertheless, when at last the war is over (and no Englishman wishes it to end short of decisive victory for the Allies), difficulties will press hard upon the public schools. We shall all be much poorer than we have been. Taxes and rates will be heavy. Prices may be high. The professional classes will be badly hit. The bill for a public school education will look more formidable than ever and many parents will feel that they cannot afford to meet it. Thus the "connection" of many of the public schools will be curtailed. Their numbers will go down and their fee income will be greatly impaired. But many of the schools, especially those with slender endowments, are committed to heavy permanent charges for upkeep. They have their business side and in some cases the margin of reserves is small. In a boarding house, and to some extent in a school as a whole, a certain level of numbers has to be maintained in order to avoid loss. It is possible that after the war the financial strain upon the Public school system may be severely felt by all but a few schools.

GERMAN PATTERN OF CONTROL.

At this point the offer of State grants-in-aid of maintenance may well be a way of escape from embarrassment which governing bodies can hardly be expected to decline. But the danger will be in the kind of control imposed by the State upon the schools in return for subsidy.

The German pattern of control has been sparsely defended in the past. It has indeed its good sides. It is scholarly, economical, well informed. It secures extraordinary good results in the instruction of the boy of average or less than average ability. It requires the best use to be made of second-rate intellectual material. It creates and maintains a highly competent profession of instruc-

tors. It standardises national education without blurring the different kinds of intellectual service which the various types of school should give to the country. It furnishes a system of tests and certificates which granted the presupposition that success in school examinations is the crucial test of a boy's promise at the "bottleneck" of his career) are good currency and understood of the people.

WOULD DESTROY AUTONOMY.

And, on its external side, the German system is perilously easy to imitate. There are some in this country who know it well enough to urge it upon us as a model, but who have never bottomed its real nature and therefore are dangerous guides. The German system introduced into this country would destroy here as there, the autonomy of our public schools. It would undermine their corporate freedom, and would therefore, in the course of a generation make an end of those differences between public school and public school which are valuable not simply on historical grounds but because of their subtle adaptation to the point of view of different social groups.

It would also, while raising the average of attainment, cripple the development of exceptional minds. It would weaken what may be called by analogy, regimental feeling. Worst of all, it would change the relations between boys and masters (now healthier in England than, so far as I know, anywhere else in the world except where English influence is strong) by gradually altering the schoolmaster's ideal. Under the German system a man is chosen for a schoolmaster's post because of his erudition and of his skill as an instructor. In the English public schools these qualifications are not forgotten, but are subordinated to that of personal fitness for dealing with the type of boy attending a particular school.

THE TIME OF TRIAL.

The full effect of these changes would not be seen for thirty years. At the beginning, as was

the case nearly a hundred years ago in Prussia, the first results of Governmental control might seem almost wholly good. Financial security; improvements in method of teaching; wise changes in the courses of instruction; lower school fees; better professional training for teachers; less depressing prospects for assistant masters—might all be secured by it.

Nevertheless, if the German system were introduced into higher secondary education in England, we should (I believe, inevitably) lose in the end the most distinctive merits in our public schools, and this would be disastrous to some of the best interests of the country. Nothing would cut us off more effectually from our old ethical tradition, a tradition which being for the most part unformulated, is interwoven with the habits of ancient places of education and rooted in their freedom of growth.

The hour of trial will come in a year or two. But it is, perhaps, not over sanguine to hope that the great schools which trained Arnold and Thring will once again produce educational leaders ready to withstand the state if it asks what it should not ask, but ready also to give the State all that it has a right to claim.

The Hon'ble Sir C. Sankaran Nair, Kt., C.I.E., B.A., B.L., the new Education Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, left Madras on the 27th inst. and will take charge of his new office on the 2nd proximo at Delhi.

We are desired to publish the following:—
A Circular re Principal P. T. Srinivasa
Ivengar's Memorial.

VIZAGAPATAM,
13-10-1915.

Dear Sir,

At a meeting of the Silver Jubilee Celebration Committee it was resolved that a University Medal be instituted before the end of May 1916, in the name of M. R. Ry. P. T. Srinivasa Iyengar Avl., M.A., L.T., F.M.U., Principal, Mrs. A. V. N. College, Vizagapatam, to be awarded annually to the best Andhra in the English Language Branch of the B. A. Pass Course of the Madras University, and that subscriptions be invited for the purpose from his pupils, friends and admirers to the extent of Rs. 1,500.

On behalf of the Committee we have the pleasure to solicit that you may be pleased to extend your hearty and valued co-operation to it by liberally subscribing towards the funds for the Medal and by influencing your friends, interested in the movement, to subscribe as well.

Remittances may be made to the Treasurer,
Mr. M. Kamaiya, B.A., L.T., Vizagapatam.

Yours truly,

C. V. S. NARASIMHARAJU, B.A., B.L.
C. MALLIK, L. R. C. P. & S.
M. HASAIN ALI, B.A. B.L.
V. KASAVARAO, M.A.

Secretaries.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Education, by Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar.

As President of the North Arcot District Conference, Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar spoke as follows :—

It is an irony of fate that of all Indian subjects that subject should still be found in the least progressive and satisfactory condition which engages our attention most, year in, year out, and which is daily and copiously discussed in press and on platform. Education in India still remains an uncharted sea, and the University of Madras and other learned persons have in their adventurous voyages suffered ship-wreck time and again.

The institution of the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate continues to exercise the ablest intellects among our educationists. No satisfactory solution has yet been found, and I am bold enough to think that none will ever be found if the system is adhered to either in its pristine vigour as one school of thought urges, or in its moderated, or rather technically moderated, display of force upon which another school of thought insists. It exercises an unwholesome fascination alike over teachers and students and parents, over managers of schools, over educational authorities, in fact over the whole policy of education in the Presidency, if a policy it can be called, which has neither beginning nor end, neither direction nor aim. It has altered the whole of the educational atmosphere, charging it with mysterious elements and has subjected it to unknown currents. Educational questions have become the most controversial questions now dividing friends and relations and fellow-workers in a disconcerting fashion. I shall not be justified in repeating all that I said at Bellary on this vexed question. Nor is one glad that the failures and difficulties predicted have come to pass. A further study of the question and a discussion with educationists and non-educationists has only confirmed me in my humble but profound conviction that the system is utterly unsuited to the educational conditions of our Presidency. The argument in support of the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate system as qualifying for

admission to the University courses of studies always resolves itself into this: A critical study of a student's life and growth is necessary, as it is necessary in the case of a hot-house plant the growth of which a botanist might wish to observe. But the teachers in the schools may not be competent and ought not to be trusted implicitly; there must therefore be an examination. That examination however is and can be no test, for we have laid it down as an axiom that a school record exhibits the exact curve of a student's mental development. Secondly, heads of affiliated colleges must have a wide and wise discretion in the admission of pupils to a University course of studies in their colleges upon a fair and intelligent deciphering of these elaborate school records. But we cannot trust to the wisdom of the heads of colleges either who may not also be competent. We must therefore lay down a rule arithmetical in look and metaphysical in concept the application of which will automatically result in ideally perfect admissions to colleges. The conclusion is irresistible that we can neither trust school-masters, nor heads of colleges, neither school records, nor examinations, but we can have implicit faith in school average and Presidency average, in a moderation which is no moderation, in the phenomena of a student getting more than the maximum number of marks prescribed for a subject and of the better schools and better pupils suffering more than schools and pupils of inferior efficiency or capacity. I have endeavoured not to over-state the position but feeling and conviction are my excuse if in fact I have over-stated the case. There are now proposals before the Senate for tentative amendments or radical modification of the system. I believe that educationists and non-educationists are agreed as to the grievous defects of the system and are earnestly engaged in finding a solution. May I appeal to them that neither considerations of prestige nor undue affection for the offspring of their imagination ought to deter one from reaching the correct conclusion. I am sure most of us are wedded to no particular solution and shall welcome that which the united wisdom of the Senate and the Educational Department may offer to the public.

There are however two cardinal principles which must not be lost sight of. Admissions to the colleges must be controlled by the University; and an entrance examination to qualify for such admission must therefore be equally under the control of the University. In the second place, the wit of man has never been able to devise a better test of educational efficiency than examinations; and the results of examinations must therefore be the decisive test. Any modification of the rigours of examination is always welcome, and all experiments and schemes can only be to supplement and soften the harshness of the examination test and should not be substitution for it where the examination test has resulted in favour of a particular candidate. Mr. Justice Seshagiri Iyer's motion before the Senate is based on these principles and it is to be hoped that it will find acceptance. There are others who think even this compromise though it may be useful to mitigate the disastrous results of the system is not likely to fulfil what after all must be the object of the University authorities, namely to have the control over an entrance examination and therefore over the courses of study so that there may be an adequate equipment really preparatory to and helpful to the student in his University career. It is not right for the University to attempt to use for the higher purposes of University training a system which was devised for a lower plane and for quite different purposes by the Government.

There are two principal reforms which are urgently required in connection with the educational authorities of this Presidency, and one in connection with its educational institutions. The Department of Public Instruction ought to be vested in a small Board consisting of two official educationists and two non-official educationists with the Director of Public Instruction as President of the Board. A liberal and comprehensive Education Act is the greatest necessity of the times in place of the existing departmental rules and notifications. Lastly the Legislative Council of the Presidency should have the fullest control over its educational policy.

The second set of reforms is connected with the Indian Universities. Under the Uni-

versities Act of 1904 the University of Madras can consist only of 10 Fellows elected by Registered Graduates, 10 elected by the Faculties out of a total number of 100 Fellows; 80 Fellows are to be nominated by H. E. the Chancellor. Two-thirds of the maximum strength of the University should in the future consist of elected Fellows. In addition to the existing electorates consisting of Registered Graduates and the Faculties, the minor educational authorities in the mofussil such as Municipalities and District Boards may be allowed to elect a number of Fellows. The Zemindari class may be attracted to interest itself in the work of the University by giving it the right to elect a few Fellows. The Madras Corporation may be allowed to elect a Fellow. The Mahomedan community may have the right to elect its own Fellows. The professors of the first and second-grade colleges together ought to have the right to elect a sufficient number of Fellows. In this way two-thirds of the strength of the Senate should consist of elected Fellows, the remaining third being nominated by H.E. the Chancellor. This requires amendment of the Act. A minor reform is equally urgently needed and can be effected by the University itself without an amendment of the Act. Certain members of the Syndicate ought to be elected by the Faculties, each Faculty having at least one member to represent it; the remaining members of the Syndicate should be elected by the whole Senate. There is no reason why the Syndicate ought not to have 15 members, its full statutory strength in addition to the Vice-Chancellor and the Director of Public Instruction. The University Act also requires amendment in respect of the penal and annual fees it prescribes with respect to the registration of graduates. An initial registration fee is quite admissible but the other fees do not add materially to the income of the University while they prevent the fuller registration of the graduates which is desirable from all aspects.

Lastly, non-official effort should concentrate itself in promoting the establishment of a cadre of educational service in connection with all non-Government institutions controlled by Indians. The prospects of professors and teachers ought to be materially improved by

the institution of a central organisation which will look after the promotions and transfers from one institution to another and provide a scale of pension and deal with other cognate matters. The teaching profession ought to be made more independent than it is of the managers and trustees of schools and colleges. It is by its elevation in the material plane that a uniform standard can be maintained and the best educational interests of the country will be safe-guarded.

University Reform, by the Hon'ble Rao Bahadur B. N. Sarma.

As President of the Third Kurnool District Conference, the Hon'ble Rao Bahadur B. N. Sarma spoke as follows :—

The recent controversy in Bengal between the outs and ins between the school which dubs itself the efficiency school as contra-distinguished from its opponents whom it characterises as the extensionists, recent appointments to the Senate of officials or Europeans, and the support given by the Government to the efficiencies illustrates my point. To carry out the above-sketched policy the Universities have been officialised, and a cursory examination of the "compositi" of the Senate of the Madras University shows that out of a total strength of 190 are officials, the relative strength of the European and Indian elements being and the mistake of appointing a non-official as Vice-Chancellor has never been made. All honour to those, who at considerable self-sacrifice and in addition to the legitimate official work have cheerfully given their time and energy to advance the cause of education in Southern India; no personal reflection is intended against them. But in large questions of policy, or initiative, the preponderance of any section of the community trained to think alike, with an unconscious bias and predilections, is extremely undesirable, especially when that section is influential and officially highly placed. Let us see what has taken place. The percentage of passes in the Matriculation examination was fluctuating and generally low, there was an outcry; there were political troubles in parts of India; the authorities felt that the system was unsatisfactory; that a candidate's whole school career ought to have weight, and wider discretion should be given to Principals of colleges; and the substitution of the School-Final examination was the result. The colleges were over-full, there was no room for students who wished to enter on the University course, there was an agitation for more

colleges, and a larger expenditure; it was discovered that the Principals who were extolled to the skies a few years ago, did not exercise their discretion properly; the results had to be moderated and modulated; and what has been described as the Slaughter of the Innocents in both the Entrance and Intermediate examinations has followed, and the efficiency schools have been eminently satisfied. The disastrous effects of such a policy on the educational progress of the country do seem to trouble no body. Students to whom the Madras University atmosphere is sickening, seem to thrive very well elsewhere; men who have no chance under this merciless system, return as Barristers, M.A.'s of the English Universities without any great difficulty, fresh and vigorous with constitutions unimpaired. . . .

But the artificial restrictions, and rigorous tests of memory prescribed by the Madras University have so far been barren of any high result; for the rapid extension of education, we want more teachers, more Secondary schools and which necessarily means more colleges; English will and should be compulsory but only as a second language; knowledge when imparted to a student in his mother-tongue would be more readily assimilated, filter down more easily with the masses, would fructify and yield an abundant and rich harvest. Education would be less costly. A single University for forty-one million people, speaking four or five distinct vernaculars presided over by a body of busy men drawn from distant places with hardly any time to spare is an anomaly. The Ceded Districts with upwards of 3 million people have but a single representative in the Senate, and the Telugu Districts with 17 millions, 6 out of Kurnool has none. We want more Universities, and larger control over them; the driving power must come from us; we may be permitted to make or unmake ourselves; the whole system has to be overhauled, and I hope that the country would take up the question in right earnest, and express its views whatever they may be in a way which will be heard. . . .

Admission into the Intermediate Class.

A Headmaster writes to the *Hindu*:—

The Director of Public Instruction has communicated a Resolution of the Syndicate with the remark that he is confident that the Headmasters of the Schools will continue to use the discretion vested in them of selecting such subjects as are most suitable for their pupils and that the school course will not be subordinated to the requirements of the University course. He has further mentioned that the instructions issued by the Registrar, University

of Madras, are applicable only to those students who desire to seek admission to University courses of study and that all questions regarding the interpretations of such instructions should be addressed to the Registrar, University of Madras. It will be clear from these proceedings that the students who are taking up a supplementary course under the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate scheme have to make up their minds once for all whether they have to stop their study with the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate or seek admission to the University course. Up to this time the Headmasters have been working under a difficulty whether to prepare the students who are taking up a supplementary course for all the subjects under the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate scheme or only the subjects under the A and C groups. The above-mentioned proceedings of the Director of Public Instruction have cleared the difficulty. In future some students will have to appear for the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate public examination as students seeking admission to the University course and those who do not. Naturally the young minds of students have a tendency to go through the ordeal in the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate by securing a decent percentage of marks in the several subjects as required by the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate scheme. They are not expected to have a clear idea of their future career. So if owing to any error of judgment, a student does not make up his mind to continue his study for the University course while he is in the sixth form and if owing to circumstances then unforeseen, he is in a fair position to continue for the University course afterwards, he cannot do it under any circumstances according to the rules and regulations of the University. Thus it will be clear that it is a death blow to higher education in the case of most of the pupils.

In this connection I have to point out that the marks of students who appeared for the public examination only for a few subjects have been moderated in all the subjects so much so that the candidates who were least prepared to see such moderation were surprised to see their marks moderated in all the subjects though they had appeared for some of the subjects only. Probably, there will be some changes effected in the application for admission to the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate public examination this year classifying supplementary students as those who intend to take a University course and those who stop with the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate. To take a practical example, in a Secondary school there were 13 students taking up supplementary course and they were attending all the subjects under the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate scheme including the B group subjects. But on the receipt of the Proceedings of the Director of Public Instruction that the University rules are applicable only to the students who seek admission to the University course, almost all the 13 students have declared that they intend to stop their study and so they do not want to attend all the subjects. Thus the fate of these students is settled

(one) for all. They cannot under the existing rules dream of taking a University course, however prosperous their circumstances may be. The students are adopting the maxim "Where ignorance is bliss it is folly to be wise."

I would through your valuable columns request the Headmasters of Secondary Schools to express their views on such an important subject as this so that the parents who are almost quite in the dark about these rules and about the future of their boys may be enlightened as regards advising their boys to attend all the subjects to enable them to take a University course as desired by the University or rest satisfied with the Secondary School-Leaving Certificate.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

SENATE MEETING.

A meeting of the Senate was held on the 22nd instant in the Senate Room at 4.30 p.m., with the Hon'ble Sir John Wallis (Vice-Chancellor) in the chair when 75 Fellows were present.

SYNDICATE'S REPORT.

The Syndicate's report for the period extending from 1st August 1914 to 31st July 1915 was recorded.

FACULTY OF ARTS.

On the motion of Mr. B. Hanumantha Row, seconded by Mr. J. P. Cotelingam the following gentlemen were assigned to the Faculty of Arts :—The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone (*ex-officio* Fellow) and Messrs. H. J. Allen, P. F. Fyson, H. S. Duncan, R. Krishnamachariar and Rev. C. J. J. Perazzi (Ordinary Fellows.)

EXEMPTIONS.

On the motion of Mr. W. H. James, seconded by Mr. H. J. Allen, exemptions for certain students appearing for the Intermediate and other examinations from the production of attendance certificates for certain definite periods were granted by the Senate.

CHANGES IN DATES OF EXAMINATIONS.

The Syndicate's report to the Senate regarding changes made in the dates of certain medical examinations, L. T. Degree examination 1916, and the First Examination in Law under the old Regulation 1916, was recorded.

UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR OF INDIAN ECONOMICS.

The Senate then proceeded to consider the nomination by the Syndicate of Mr. Gilbert Slater, Principal of Ruskin College, Oxford, for

the post of University Professor of Indian Economics.

The Vice-Chancellor before moving for the approval of the nomination requested Mr. B. Hanumantha Row to take the chair. On Mr. Hanumantha Row, the oldest Fellow of the University, taking the chair, the Vice-Chancellor said that they were unable to secure the services of Dr. Scott, as the University of Glasgow had conferred upon him the Adam Smith Professorship. The Committee appointed in London interviewed both Dr. Scott and Mr. Slater whom they considered to be the most suitable candidates. In the opinion of the Committee, Dr. Scott was well-known for his research work and his record was of European distinction. The Committee was of opinion that in the matter of delivering lectures to Honours students on Economics, Mr. Slater would even be a better candidate. His personality and experience as head of the Ruskin College would fit him for a work of that kind. Dr. Scott put himself in communication with various people in England with a view to secure the best candidate possible for the post and ultimately he wrote to the Syndicate to say that Mr. Slater was the best available candidate. He was also strongly recommended by Mr. Fisher of the Public Services Commission and Professor Geddes.

Mr. Allen in seconding the motion said that in the opinion of the Syndicate, failing Dr. Scott, there was no better applicant for the post than Mr. Slater.

The appointment of Mr. Slater was sanctioned.

The Vice-Chancellor then informed the Senate that further sanction of the Government having already been granted, Mr. Slater would go out to India immediately.

ACCOMMODATION AND BOARDING OF STUDENTS.

In accordance with the report of the Senate Committee appointed to inquire and report on the adequacy and nature of the accommodation provided for the students in the colleges in the City of Madras affiliated to the University and to make definite proposals for better accommodation and boarding of such students, Mr. G. A. Natesan moved the following Resolution:—

(1) "That having regard to the unsatisfactory nature of the accommodation now available, and in view of Regulation 384, the Government be addressed and requested to provide at an early date adequate hostel accommodation for the students of the Government colleges in Madras,

and that the authorities of the other colleges in Madras be requested to take early measures to provide hostel accommodation for such of their students as still require it. (2) That it be a recommendation to the Syndicate that each college affiliated to the University should be required to make an annual return showing of the total number of students in the college, the number living (a) in hostels attached to the college, (b) with relations or guardians, (c) in unattached hostels or hostels approved by the college authorities, (d) in lodgings approved by the college authorities, and that a tabular statement of the returns made be published annually for the information of the Senate in the Syndicate Report."

In doing so, Mr. Natesan said that a Subcommittee inspected the hostels maintained by colleges and the private hostels. Valuable information was furnished by Principals of colleges. The result of the investigation was that out of a total of 3,347 college students, 1,578 were reported to be living with their parents and guardians, 566 were in hostels attached to colleges and the Victoria Hostel, about 100 in unattached hostels and the remaining 1,103 college students were thrown on their own resources and they experienced great difficulty in finding satisfactory accommodation and wholesome food. Of those 1,103 college students as many as 840 belonged to the Law College, the Presidency College, the Engineering and Medical Colleges, which were institutions maintained and controlled by Government. The Committee therefore thought that if representations were made to the authorities, satisfactory arrangements could easily be made to provide boarding and lodging accommodation for at least a good number of the 840 students belonging to those colleges. The condition of those 840 students was much worse than what was described in the report and their condition must be improved.

In seconding the motion Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar said that he was one of those who opposed the formation of the Committee at the beginning. He was now glad to say that the Committee's labours were not in vain. He hoped that Government would make adequate hostel accommodation for Government Colleges.

The proposition was carried.

REGISTRATION OF GRADUATES.

Mr. K. Ramanni Menon next moved that certain alterations mentioned in the agenda be made in Regulation 128 to remedy a defect in the matter of registration of applications from

graduates. The object was to enable a graduate to take part in only one election by payment of a fee. The subsequent retention of his name on the register shall depend on the annual payment of two rupees on or before the 1st September of each succeeding year.

Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar seconded the Resolution which was put to the meeting and carried.

BOARD OF STUDIES FOR DRAVIDIAN LANGUAGES AND TAMIL.

Mr. B. Hanumantha Row moved for certain alterations to be made in Regulation 138 which would provide for a common Board of Studies for Dravidian languages and an individual Board for Tamil.

Mr. A. Subramania Aiyar seconded the Resolution and Sir V. C. Desikachariar opposed it.

The Vice-Chancellor explained that the suggestion proceeded from the Senate at the last meeting.

The Resolution was carried.

REGISTRAR'S PAY AND ALLOWANCE.

Prof. Mark Hunter moved that certain alterations be made in Regulations 145, 146 and 148 regarding the tenure, emoluments, leave and pension of the Registrar of the University and that Regulations 150 to 152 regarding the appointment of Assistant Registrar be rescinded. In doing so he said that the Committee appointed by the Syndicate to look into the matter made the recommendations which received the unanimous approval of the Syndicate. Those recommendations were before the Senate. The reasons which actuated the Committee to make the recommendations were first the desirability of doing what was just and proper towards the Registrar, an important and responsible officer of the University, and second, the desirability of doing what was expedient in the interests of the University itself. If the position of the Registrar was to be improved, the present Registrar should benefit by the improvement. The duties and responsibilities of the office had greatly increased since his appointment. The present Registrar was a person of untiring zeal and first rate capacity. The activities of the University had increased in various ways and would still increase and with them the duties of the Registrar had increased and must necessarily increase. If the University should discharge its functions satisfactorily, it should have a Registrar of first-class qualifications and his salary should be made attractive. There was nothing

revolutionary in the proposals, and no sacrifice of principles. The cost incurred by the changes was trifling. According to the proposal the Registrar would be appointed for five years on probation at the end of which period the appointment would be confirmed by the Senate. The practice at present was that if the Registrar wished to stay after 5 years he was reappointed and re-confirmed for another five years. The same thing happened at the end of every five years and his administration and conduct was publicly reviewed every five years. The next proposal was that if the maximum salary of a Registrar whose services were regarded as of special value was reached, the Syndicate might give him a personal allowance of Rs. 250 and that in no case should the salary including personal allowance exceed Rs. 1,250 per mensem. No change was proposed in the character of the leave. In a total service of 15 years one year's leave would be included in the service qualifying for pension. In a total service of 25 years the Registrar would be able to get one year and six months leave as qualifying for pension. These rules were less generous than the rules applying to Government servants. As regards pension, if the Registrar served 15 years and reached the age of 50, pension should be given to him according to Government pension rules. In conclusion he said that the salary of the Registrar ought to be regarded as the first charge on the University revenue. As there was no need for an Assistant Registrar the Regulations regarding that appointment might be rescinded. In Calcutta there was some use of the Assistant Registrar and here there was no use. If any necessity should arise in the future, Regulations could be made.

Mr. Hodgson seconded the Resolution.

The Vice-Chancellor proposed to put the parts of the Resolution one by one.

The following alterations in Regulations 145, 146 were put to the meeting and carried:—

(i) That in Regulation 145, after the words 'five years' the words 'in the first instance,' be inserted.

(ii) That in Regulation 146, the words 'before the expiration of five years' in lines 3 and 9 be omitted.

The next part of the Resolution which was put to the meeting was that the following be substituted for the last sentence of the second paragraph of Regulation 146:—

(iii) That for the last sentence of the second paragraph of Regulation 146 the following be substituted:—'It shall be competent to the

Syndicate to grant the Registrar who has reached the maximum salary (Rs. 1,000) and whose services are regarded as of special value a personal allowance, but in no case shall the salary of the Registrar, including personal allowance, exceed Rs. 1,250 per mensem.

The Hon'ble Mr. Srinivasa Sastri in opposing this motion said that whenever the Syndicate considered it necessary to give a special allowance to the Registrar it should come to the Senate for sanction. The proposal was to give the Syndicate that discretion. The Syndicate could, if the proposal was carried, increase the emoluments of the Registrar at once. He endorsed every word of Mr. Mark Hunter regarding the present Registrar. In the case of Mr. Dewsbury, personal allowance would be given if his pay reached the maximum of Rs. 1,000. Now it was long before that time the Syndicate's recommendation was made. The proposal was not to come to the Senate for sanction. Hence no case was made out for the proposal.

Mr. K. B. Ramanatha Iyer also opposed the proposal first on the ground that the proposal was premature and secondly on the ground that it was not prudent for the Senate now to alter the Regulations and impose upon themselves further charges when there was retrenchment of expenditure everywhere owing to war. There was no hurry for this recommendation.

Mr. R. Littlehailes pointed out that the object of the proposal was to leave the power with the University as the ultimate authority in the matter and not the Government. He also observed that when Government had raised the scale of pay in several departments owing to rise of prices in India it was but reasonable that the Registrar's emoluments fixed long ago should be increased.

Mr. G. A. Natesan was in favour of giving stability to the appointment as suggested in the proposals; he was also in favour of the proposals regarding leave and pension rules. He said that if the proposal for personal allowance came before the Senate some time hence when the Registrar's pay would have reached the maximum of Rs. 1,000, everybody in the Senate would gladly vote for it.

Sir V. C. Desikachari's motion, to substitute the word 'Senate' for the word 'Syndicate' was ruled out of order.

Dr. Nair moved that the question be referred back to the Syndicate.

Mr. K. V. Rangasawmi Aiyangar seconded this motion which was put to the meeting and lost, 30 voting for and 31 against.

The substantive motion was then put to the meeting and carried.

The Senate then considered the following resolutions:—

(iv) That at the end of Regulation 146 be added the words:—

'All periods of leave on full pay and half the amount of leave on half pay shall count as service for gratuity or pension.'

(v) That after Regulation 148 be added as a new Regulation:—

'After fifteen years of approved service and the attainment of fifty years of age, the Registrar shall be entitled to a pension calculated as in Regulation 148 (b). The payment of this pension shall be made in accordance with the provisions of Article 934 of the Civil Service Regulations, Fifth Edition.'

(vi) That Regulations 150 to 152 be rescinded.

Resolution No. (iv) was adopted, No. (v) was referred back to the Syndicate and No. (vi) was lost.

REGISTER OF MATRICULATES.

Rev. Macphail moved for certain alterations in Regulations 166 (a) and (b) and 181 regarding the maintenance of Registers for matriculates and the issue of certificates to them. He said that when a student was admitted to a college, his name was entered in the Register of Matriculates maintained in the University office and a certificate given of his having been matriculated. Its only value was that it was a guarantee that the student was a member of a college when he came up for the Intermediate examination. The proposal was to abolish the certificate and simply to keep the register which was sufficient for the purpose of the University. The granting of certificates involved a large amount of time and labour. A certificate now meant that a student had been admitted to a college and nothing more.

Mr. G. H. Stone in seconding suggested that the full name of the student should be entered in the Register and this was accepted by the mover and the resolution was carried.

LIGHTENING OF THE COURSES OF STUDIES FOR THE INTERMEDIATE.

Mr. Mark Hunter moved for certain alterations in regulations regarding the courses of studies for Intermediate Examination in Mathematics,

Chemistry, Natural Sciences including Botany and Zoology, and History and Classical Languages. He said that the proposal was to lighten the courses and at the same time to improve them.

Mr. G. Venkataranga Row seconded the proposition.

Mr. K. Ganapathi Aiyar's amendment regarding the mathematical portion was lost.

Father Bertram pointed out that the changes proposed in Natural Science would not lighten the course but would add to the burden of young students.

Dr. P. S. Chandrasakhara Aiyar was of opinion that there was no lightening at all in the mathematical portion of Physics.

There was a considerable opposition to the introduction of Grecian and Roman Histories in preference to Indian History.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone observed that there was obvious lightening of the course in History even to the plainest man.

The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar wanted the introduction of Indian History in the Intermediate course.

Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Aiyangar explained the position.

The proposals as recommended by the Syndicate were carried.

CHANGES IN THE B. A. CURRICULUM.

Mr. R. Ll. Jones moved that certain alterations in regulations regarding the curriculum for the B. A. course be made.

Mr. R. Littlehailes seconded.

Mr. Gardiner strongly objected to the exclusion of "Standard solutions" in the practical examinations in Physics and Chemistry and such exclusion would change the whole character of the examination. The preparation of Standard solutions required considerable care and time.

Mr. Littlehailes said that the students should be asked to prepare Standard solutions themselves though not with an advanced degree of accuracy.

The proposition was carried.

TRANSLATION AND COMPOSITION.

Mr. Mark Hunter moved that the following alterations be made in the Regulations:—

That in Regulation 197, at the end of each of the sections headed (iv) "Psychology, Ethics, and

Logic or a Language and (v) History and Economics," the following paragraph be added:—

'In each language there shall be one paper of three hours' duration which shall contain questions on the subject matter of the set books, a critical knowledge of which will be required, and also passages from those books for translation into English and explanation, together with unseen passages for translation into English from the selected Classical or Foreign language, or original composition in the selected vernacular language.'

Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Aiyangar opposed the proposition in a vehement speech and said that if this proposition was applied to Sanskrit as part of History, the result would be monstrous. The standard would be an impossible one. That showed that the Syndicate had not shown due vigilance regarding the texts prescribed by the Board of Studies on which this resolution was based.

Mr. S. Krishnasamy Aiyangar also objected to the proposal on the ground that the course would be made so heavy that it would be impossible for an examiner to set a paper that could be answered in three hours.

The resolution however was put to the meeting and carried.

The Senate met again on the 23rd instant at 4.30 P.M. when other items on the agenda were considered. The Vice-Chancellor presided and a large number of Fellows were present.

B. A. SANSKRIT COURSE.

Dr. Mark Collins proposed and Mr. Kuppusawmi Sastri seconded that certain books referred to in the agenda be substituted for the books in Sections (a) and (b) of the B.A. course under Regulation 197, Group vi—1 (a) Sanskrit and that the duration of certain papers be changed as proposed in the agenda. A few other alterations also were proposed to be made in the time-table under Group vi—Sanskrit in Regulation 198.

The proposition was carried.

B. A. DEGREE TO B. A. HONOURS EXAMINATION.

On the motion of Mr. Mark Hunter, seconded by Mr. A. Subramania Aiyar, the words "on the recommendation of the College to which he belongs" were deleted from Regulation 203, which provides for a candidate who has passed the B.A. degree examination, to appear for the B.A. (Honours) degree examination after a two years' course.

M. A. WITHOUT HONOURS.

The next resolution moved by Mr. Mark Hunter and seconded by Mr. A. Subramania Aiyar was to make certain verbal alterations in Regulation 212 (1) relating to M.A. Degree without Honours. This was carried.

FAILED IN B.A. (HONOURS) BUT APPEARS FOR B.A.

On the motion of Mr. Mark Hunter, seconded by Mr. A. Subramania Aiyar, it was resolved "that a candidate not already eligible for the B.A. Degree, who, having failed completely in the B.A. (Honours) Degree Examination, desires to appear for the B. A. Degree examination shall be allowed to do so without the production of a further certificate of attendance in an affiliated college."

B. L. DEGREE EXAMINATIONS UNDER OLD REGULATIONS.

Mr. Arthur Davies next moved to make certain alterations in the wording of the Transitory Regulations passed by the Senate at its meeting held on March 6 last and sanctioned by Government. The Regulations as altered run thus:—

(i) The first examinations under the revised Regulations for the B. L. Degree will be held in the following years:—

First Examination in Law	... 1916
Second Examination in Law	... 1917
B. L. Degree Examination	... 1918.

(ii) For the benefit of candidates for the B. L. Degree who entered upon the courses of study in Law in 1914, or earlier the First Examination in Law and the B. L. degree examination under the Regulations in force in the year 1914 will continue to be held according to those Regulations, in the case of the First Examination in Law until the year 1917, and in the case of the B. L. Degree examination until the year 1918, after which years no examinations under those Regulations will be held. Such candidates for the B. L. Degree who have qualified for certificates of having completed courses for that Degree prescribed by the Regulations in force in the year 1914 may qualify for the degree at any time by appearing for and passing each of the examinations held under the revised Regulations, without the necessity of producing additional certificates of attendance at an affiliated college, in which case candidates who have passed the First Examination in Law held under the Regulations in force in the year 1914 will not be required to pass the corresponding examination under the revised Regulations.

Dr. Swaminathan seconding the resolution, it was carried.

ALTERATIONS IN DATES OF MEDICAL EXAMINATIONS.

Major A. Miller proposed certain alterations in the timings of Medical examinations.

The proposition was formally seconded by Mr. Hanumantha Row and carried.

AFFILIATION IN GROUPS IV AND V.

The following resolution was moved by Rev. Macphail and seconded by Mr. Mark Hunter and carried:—

That the following Transitory Regulation be adopted and added to the Regulations as the second paragraph of Regulation 418—

'Every College affiliated to the University in Group (iv) Psychology, Ethics and Logic or a Language, and in Group (v)—History and Economics, of the courses for the B. A. Degree examination, shall, before March 31, 1916, be required to declare in what languages it proposes to offer instruction under the Regulations for those Groups, and shall satisfy the Syndicate that suitable provision has been or will be made for imparting instruction in the languages selected. Every college making such declaration and so satisfying the Syndicate shall be entitled to be regarded as affiliated to the University in the language or languages selected, for the purpose of giving instruction therein in accordance with the Regulations for those Groups of the courses for the B. A. Degree Examination.'

AFFILIATIONS OF WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN COLLEGE, MADRAS.

Mr. K. Ramunni Menon moved "that the Senate record its opinion that the application from the Secretary of the Council of the Women's Christian College, Madras, for the affiliation of the College in Group iii. (Ancient History, Modern History, Logic, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, French, and Latin) of the Intermediate Courses, and in the B. A. Degree Courses, in Group (iv)—Psychology, Ethics, and Logic or a Language and Group (v)—History and Economics, may be granted by Government. The Resolution was carried.

UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

On the motion of Dr. Skinner, seconded by Mr. B. Hanumantha Row, the Senate sanctioned the proposal of the Syndicate to appoint Mr. K. B. Ramanathan to deliver a course of 20 lectures to students of fourth year Honours course between January and March and between July and September 1916 on the development of literary kinds in connection with English Literature.

UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENTS.

Three Resolutions for the acceptance of Three endowments were carried.

INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

Mr. A. Subramania Aiyar moved "That, as the last paragraph of Regulation 187 relating to the Intermediate examination, the following be added:—

"If a candidate fails in one subject, but obtains 50 per cent. of the aggregate number of marks, he shall be declared to have passed."

Rao Bahadur K. Ramanuja Chariar seconded.

Mr. K. Ganapati Aiyar moved to insert the words "not being English" after the words "If a candidate fails in one subject."

The amendment was accepted by Mr. Subramania Aiyar.

Mr. Mark Hunter observed that the Moderating Board was already doing everything that Mr. Subramania Aiyar asked for, and more too. The Moderating Board was passing a great many more students than those who would be passed if this proposition was carried. This proposition would benefit no one at all. It would practically take away the need for a Moderating Board. The Moderating Board was working much better.

The Hon'ble Rev. G. Pittendrigh said that if a candidate generally got first class marks, the Moderating Board might pass him in spite of his failure in two subjects. If this proposition was carried, the Moderating Board would be prevented from doing that.

Both the amendment and the Resolution were lost.

Mr. Ganapathy Aiyar withdrew his other amendments.

TRANSITORY REGULATIONS FOR F. L. AND B. L. DEGREE EXAMINATION.

Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar moved for the adoption of certain Transitory Regulations regarding the First Examination in Law and the B. L. Degree Examination. The effect of the resolution was to hold those examinations at Madras and at such other centres as the Syndicate might appoint. The candidates' names would be registered on payment of a fee of Rs. 40.

Mr. C. P. Ramaswamy Aiyar seconded the motion and it was carried.

ADMISSION TO FIRST INTERMEDIATE CLASS.

Before the Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar moved his resolution prescribing the quali-

cations of any holder of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate for admission to the first Intermediate class of an affiliated College, the Vice-Chancellor called upon Mr. Mark Hunter to explain to the Senate what the Syndicate was contemplating to do in this matter, so that the Senate might be in a better position to deal with the question.

Mr. Mark Hunter said that the rules regarding the School-Final were practically dead and buried and there was no likelihood that they would be revived. The Syndicate had been looking into this matter for some time and with the assistance of the Departments of Education in the Madras Presidency, Hyderabad, Mysore, Cochin and Travancore, they had obtained a good deal of information. The Syndicate recognised two things were necessary for them to do; first to make immediate provision for admission next year and, after that was settled, to take in hand seriously something like a Permanent Settlement of the whole of this subject. The Syndicate accepted the recommendations of its Committee on several points; and he hoped that they would satisfy Mr. Seshagiri Aiyar. Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar's proposition was very much the same as Mr. Seshagiri Aiyar's. If Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar were present, he would be quite willing to withdraw it. The Syndicate had further resolved that a Committee of the Syndicate be appointed to consider the advisability of the University resuming control over the public examination qualifying for Matriculation.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar had given notice of a resolution for the introduction of Matriculation. The Syndicate considered this matter before. But they could not possibly go into the question in the absence of the Director of Public Instruction who knew everything about the Matriculation examination. The Syndicate would have good many opportunities of considering this matter with the Director of Public Instruction. He hoped that Mr. Seshagiri Aiyar would not move the proposition standing in his name.

The Hon'ble Mr. Seshagiri Aiyar withdrew the resolution standing in his name.

Mr. Natesan who had been asked to move the proposition standing in the name of Mr. S. Srinivasa Aiyangar, said that after hearing the statement of Mr. Mark Hunter, he would withdraw the resolution.

ONE FELLOW TO BE A MEMBER OF MORE FACULTIES THAN ONE.

Mr. K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar moved the following resolution:—

(i) That in Regulation 101 the words 'or more',

be substituted for the words 'or other,' and that the following words be added at the end of the Regulation as an additional sentence (in order to make it possible for a Fellow who possesses the requisite qualifications to be a member of more than one Faculty):—'Any member of a Faculty who is a Fellow may, at any meeting of the Senate, be assigned, by order of the Senate, to any other Faculty or Faculties in addition to the Faculty of which he is already a member.'

The motion was put to the meeting and lost. A poll was demanded and taken with the result that 22 voted for and 25 against the proposition and 4 remained neutral.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

THE MATRICULATION PASSES ENQUIRY.

It will be remembered that some time ago Dr. E. R. Watson brought forward a motion before the Senate of the Calcutta University for an enquiry into the "cause and significance" of what he described as an "alarming increase in the percentage of passes at the B. A. and Matriculation Examinations." At the meeting of the Senate held on August 7th last, when the debate on this resolution was resumed, a statement was, however, made by Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee to the effect that he proposed to bring up a resolution of a much wider scope and extent before a joint meeting of the Faculties of Arts and Science, in consequence of which a further discussion on Dr. Watson's motion was dropped. Members of the Senate who were present at that meeting might have noticed that Mr. Hornell, Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, was taking a good deal of interest at the time in Sir Ashutosh's proposal in fact he went to Mr. Biss, whereupon the latter rose and moved an adjournment of the debate in view of what Sir Ashutosh had stated.

A meeting of the Joint Faculties was held on August 25th following, when Sir Ashutosh moved his promised resolution in these terms:—"That a Committee of 16 members be appointed (a) to report on the condition of recognised schools and affiliated colleges, what improvements have been effected in them since 1905, and what further improvements are required to increase their efficiency; (b) to report on the courses, standards, and methods of examination in the Faculties of Arts and Sciences, and to suggest such improvements as may seem necessary or desirable."

After a good deal of discussion, the resolution was adopted by the Joint Faculties. Sir Ashutosh thereupon proposed at the same meeting the

following names for appointment to the Committee:—The Hon. Mr. Hornell, the Hon. Mr. Jennings, the Hon. Mr. Cunningham, Sir Gooroo Dass Bannerjee, the Hon. Justice Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee, the Hon. Mr. Mahendranath Ray, Babu Herambachandra Mitra, D. H. Stephen, the Hon. Dr. Nilratan Sirkar, Mr. H. I. James, Dr. B. N. Seal, Mr. J. N. Das Gupta, Dr. E. R. Watson, Mr. E. E. Biss, Mr. O. J. Hamilton, and Mr. S. Khuda Buksh.

The consideration of this matter was then adjourned. The adjourned meeting of the Faculties was held on September 25th, to determine the constitution of the Committee—other names had been proposed in the meantime by Rev. J. Mitchell, and Mr. Owston Smith. Dr. E. R. Watson had also given notice that he would move the following resolution:—"That the Committee appointed to report on the condition of recognised schools and affiliated colleges and the courses, standards and methods of examination in the Faculties of Arts and Science should take up first and issue an interim report on the enquiry concerning examinations, particularly as to the cause and significance of the rapid increase in the percentage of passes in the Matriculation and B.A. Examinations which has taken place since 1906."

The Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Deva Prosad Sarbadhary presided. At the commencement of the proceedings Sir Ashutosh read a letter which had been addressed to him as President of the Faculty of Arts by Mr. W. W. Hornell, the Director of Public Instruction. The letter was dated September 22nd and stated that Mr. Hornell could not agree to serve in the Committee, because the scope of the Committee's enquiry was so wide that he could not possibly spare the time which any useful participation in its labours would involve. The latter went on to add that, as regards the participation in the work of the Committee of any other educational officer of the Government who might be invited to act in it, Mr. Hornell was under the orders of the Local Government instructing every such officer of the Department who was also a Fellow; that before accepting a seat on the Committee he should obtain the sanction of the Local Government who would require to be satisfied in view of the scope and character and the probable duration of its enquiry; that the officer concerned could undertake the work on the Committee without prejudice to his ordinary duties.

The letter produced quite a dramatic effect on the members of the Faculties, excepting, however, those who belong to the Education Department, for it appears that a copy of the communication had

been forwarded to each of the latter for their information and guidance.

Still greater surprise was caused when one European member got up and said that the Behar Government had been consulted and similar instructions had been issued by it to its officers, and another European from Assam announced that similar instructions were also about to be, or had been actually issued by the Assam administration.

Mr. W. Archbold of Dacca whose name had been proposed by the Rev. Mitchell had intimated his unwillingness to act and others followed. An official from Assam informed the Committee that Mr. Cunningham, the Director of Public Instruction, Assam, could not serve. Another from Bihar made a similar statement with regard to Mr. Jennings, D. P. I. of Bihar. Dr. Watson and Rai Kumadini Kanta Bannerjee Bahadur made their disavowals for themselves. It was worthy of note however that Mr. Turner and Mr. Owston Smith were able to remain on the Committee. Mr. H. James was not present. The names were then balloted, and the Committee was constituted as follows:—Sir Gurudas Bannerjee, Sir Ashutosh Mukerjee, Mr. Mahendra Nath Roy, Mr. Heramba Chandra Maitra, Mr. Henry Stephen, Mr. Nilratan Sarkar, Mr. Henry James, Dr. Brijendra Seal, Mr. C. Hamilton, Mr. S. Khuda Buksh, Dr. P. Brulal, Rev. Mr. Mitchell, Mr. J. L. Ghosh, Mr. J. R. Bannerjee, Mr. Auston Smith and Dr. Watt.

After this Dr. Watson asked for leave to withdraw the resolution of which he had given notice. In doing so he observed that he was withdrawing his motion because in his opinion the Committee was not a representative one and that he had no confidence in the Committee. Sir Gurudas Bannerjee protested against the language used by Dr. Watson and said that the Committee was deserving of confidence especially in view of the fact that there were in the Committee two members of the Indian Educational Service to which Dr. Watson had the honour to belong. Sir Gurudas requested Dr. Watson to withdraw the expression he had used.

The Vice-Chancellor declared that Dr. Watson's motion had been withdrawn. Dr. Watson now proposes to press his original motion before the Senate.

Reviews and Notices.

SHIVAJI, THE MAHARATTA, HIS LIFE AND TIMES, BY H. G. RAWLINSON, M.A., I.E.S. (THE CLarendon Press, Oxford). 2s. 6d. net.

'The shrines are desolate: the Brahmins' houses are polluted: the earth is quaking: Faith is dead.' 'Gods and Cows, Brahmins and the Faith, these are to be protected: therefore God has raised you up' said 'Sivaji's sage preceptor Ramadas in one of his epistles to him.' Such was perhaps what Sivaji considered his mission to be. Among the Rulers of India Sivaji takes honourable rank in spite of the prejudice that kept him out of the Rulers of India Series so long. The Oxford University Press has now more than made up in the omission by not only bringing out a life such as the one before us but also by having entrusted the work to such a sympathetic biographer as Professor H. G. Rawlinson. In a small volume of about 100 pages Mr. Rawlinson gives a succinct life of Sivaji, the various campaigns he has had to undertake, and discusses even some of the motives that led to various acts of doubtful probity, judged from the point of view of later Victorian ethics. He discusses these matters with fairness and impartiality, and sums up the character of the founder of the Maharatta Empire in India in the words of Khafi Khan. 'Grant Duff with the memories of the Maharatta power still recent in his mind, speaks of him as an assassin and freebooter, and this unfortunately is the opinion followed by most subsequent English writers. On the other hand, Indian writers are prone, after his political ends, to exaggerate his good qualities to an extraordinary degree.' We would fain remove the words in italics, as the exaggeration charged to the Indian writers in the mass may have other reasons valid or other. 'The fairest estimate' in the words of Mr. Rawlinson 'is that of Khafi Khan, who being himself an historian of Aurangzeb's Court, can scarcely be accused of a bias in Shivaji's favour.' Khafi Khan's verdict is as follows:—'He attacked the Caravans which came from distant parts, and appropriated to himself the goods and the women. But he made it a rule that, wherever his followers went plundering, they should do no harm to Mosques, the Book of God, or any one's women. Whenever a copy of the Holy Kur'an came into his hands, he treated it with respect, and gave it to some of his Mussulman followers. When the women of any Hindu or Muhammadan were taken prisoners by his men, and they had no friend to protect them, he watched over them till their relations came to buy them

their liberty.....He laid down a rule, that whenever a place was plundered, the goods of the poor people, copper money, and vessels of brass and copper, should belong to the man who found them; but other articles, gold and silver, coined or uncoined, gems, valuable stuffs and jewels, were not to belong to the finder, but were to be given without the smallest deduction to the officers, and to be by them paid over to Shivaji's government.' In Mr. Rawlinson's own words 'He was, according to the ethics of his age and nation, a brave and chivalrous man.' The book is on the whole attractive and well written but he wish it were free from blemishes like the following :—

One page 8, Khasi Khan's work is referred to as Mantakhabu-l-CuBab; the last word, we believe is LuBab.

On page 18, the last sentence on the page is 'He beat back Hala.' This word ought to be Harsha.

On page 20, 'After the Chālukyas came the Hoysalas, and after the Hoysalas the Yadavas of Devagiri or Daulatabad.' There is no reason in the kind of order either chronological or sequential in respect of the last two nor was the locality concerned the same.

On the same page lower down is the sentence: In 1294 Alā-ud-dīn, the Muhammadan Sultan of Delhi, swept across the Narmada,.....'. Alā-ud-dīn was not the Sultan of Delhi in 1294.

On page 26, is found 'Shaji was a child of five years old.' It would be *Babuism* if an Indian clerk or student wrote it. Shah Jehan's peace is referred to 1637 on page 40, and to 1636 on page 42. Note 1 on p. 42, seems to refer the first coming of the Abyssinian Turks to 1489. Abyssinians were in the employ of the Bhamani Sultans in large numbers long before this date, and were known *Habshis*. Unless the Abyssinian Turks were quite distinct from the *Habshis* the statement would be incorrect. On page 87, *Kolar* is spelt *Kolhar* which is very misleading as one would be inclined to look for *Kolhin* somewhere in Mahāratta country proper. We fail to see why Todar Mull should be called a Muhammadan financier in the last sentence on page 95.

The book supplies a long-felt want and is bound to be popular.

ANCIENT GREECE, BY H. B. COTTERILL. (GEORGE G. HARRAP & Co.) 7s. 6d.

This volume is the first in a series of books which Messrs. Harrap & Co. are bringing out on

the great nations of the world, both ancient and modern. The series is intended to lay special stress on the development of art, literature and philosophy of the nations, so far as these influence the development of their history. Prominent attention is consequently paid in this volume to the researches of Schliemann, Flinders Petrie and Ridgeway and others; and the Aegean civilisation is depicted at length and supplemented by an inquiry into the old Aegean and Pelasgic languages and script. The Dark Age of Greece (1100 B. C. to 776 B. C.) contains an account of the Dipylon Antiquities, of the date and poems of Hesiod and of the Phœnicians and other contemporary nations. The architecture and sculpture of the historical periods are dealt with at length and brought into organic connection with the sketch of political history. Sketches of the lives of the most prominent literary figures like Herodotus, Æschylus, Aristophanes, Sophocles, etc., are given and familiarise the student with the most sublime in classical literature. As the author says in his preface, it is more a description and illustration of the antiquities, art and literature of Greece than an attempt at disquisition and criticism. The wealth of maps, coloured plates, coins and general illustrations provided, the detailed story-telling tone of the narrative and the bold clear printing—all go to make this book one of the best that could be recommended for study in our colleges. The appended notes on dress, coins, temples, etc., also enhance the value of the work.

THE ECONOMIC ORGANISATION OF ENGLAND, BY W. J. ASHLEY—AN OUTLINE HISTORY OF LECTURES DELIVERED AT HAMBURG. pp. 213. LONGMANS GREEN & Co., 1914. 2s. 6d.

The subject of English economic history has already been furnished with a scholarly narrative by the author in his *Economic History and Theory* in two parts. But in this work Mr. Ashley confines himself to the consideration of the Manor and the Village Community, the Merchant and Craft Guilds, the Woollen Industry of the 15th and 16th centuries and to the mediæval theories on Usury and Canonist economics, in short, to economic England between the 11th and the 16th centuries. The present volume though confined mainly to the forms of economic organisation, brings the story in however brief a form from the Norman Manor to the present state of Syndicalism, Trade Unionism and capitalistic dominance. The Manor is regarded as the starting point of the English agrarian system; and its development is

traced through the period of the break-up of the Manor, on to the stage of enclosures, and finally up to the present combination of rent-receiving landlords, tenant-farmers providing their own stock and implements and working capital, and agricultural labourers who chiefly depend on wages. The advent of capital and investment in national industry is traced in all its four characteristics, viz., concentration with larger employment of fixed capital in proportion to labour, integration of operations, monopolistic combination among concerns engaged in the same manufacture, and the growth of the feeling of solidarity among employers and the steady strengthening of their organisations for collective action in relation to labour. Tudor nationalism is well-illustrated by a clear exposition of the ideas underlying the Poor Law of Elizabeth.

The brevity of the book will furnish beginners with a clear narrative and give them a general notion of a great part of the ground which they will have to cover.

A STUDY OF INDIAN ECONOMICS, BY PRAMATHANATH BANERJEA. 2ND EDITION: REVISED AND ENLARGED. (MACMILLAN & Co. 1915.) 4s. 6d. net.

The book made its first appearance in 1911, and was then heartily welcomed as supplying a long-felt need, an introductory text-book for beginners in economic studies which would acquaint them with the general economic phenomena. The second edition which we have got just now, has been carefully revised by the author and contains a number of useful appendices on the fluctuation of prices between 1867 and 1897, on the result of the quinquennial wage-census taken in 1911, and on the summaries of the reports of the Prices Commission and of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance. The style is free, simple and lucid, and the various contentious questions like the reform of the present Gold Exchange Standard, are treated in a systematic manner and in the spirit of scientific inquiry. Mr. Banerjia also guards himself against the pro-English bias which is a defect even in such eminent writers as Theodore Morison, and J. M. Keynes and he tries to represent the different sides of the question in the fairest possible manner. Especially in public finance, he points out that the Government of India in framing their budget, do not promissedly accept any of the current theories of the apportionment of taxation, and their tax-system inclines too much on the side of the multiple one.

He discusses the measures, both preventive and protective, which Government have taken with regard to famines, and his exposition of the growth of co-operative credit is very clear and simple. The book will serve as an excellent manual for the preliminary student of Indian economics and will be of great use to the publicists and statesmen as well.

EXERCISES IN MATHEMATICS, BY D. B. MAIR. (MACMILLAN AND Co. 1914.) 4s. 6d.

This book is an admirable collection of exercises in Elementary Mathematics, including Arithmetic, Mensuration, Elementary Algebra, and Geometry, Theoretical and Practical. The problems are thoroughly and refreshingly practical, and present a striking contrast to the insipid questions ordinarily found in text books. The exercises in Arithmetic and Mensuration are the best of the whole lot, and it gives genuine pleasure to go through them. The author has taken much pains and shown great skill in setting "real" problems—examples of calculations required in life in various trades and professions. His aim is that every pupil when he leaves the school, should have "some real idea of the part played by Mathematics in human life." Though against his own wishes, he has included in this collection some exercises of a purely theoretical character, in order to meet extraneous demands. It is usual now-a-days to condemn such problems as imposing unnecessary burden on young boys. But, while conceding that practical problems ought to have precedence and that they would suffice to a certain class of pupils, it should not be forgotten that theoretical problems afford an excellent training in abstract reasoning, a foundation for which ought to be laid in the school, at least in the case of the better pupils.

The author has added to his own collection of examples typical question papers by various examining bodies. He has also given answers to the exercises, and hints towards the solution of the more important ones.

This book should be in the hands of every teacher of Mathematics in our High Schools.

"A TEXT-BOOK OF ELEMENTARY STATICS," BY R. S. HEATH, M. A., D. SC. (THE CLARENDON PRESS.) 4s. 6d.

This book is, in the author's words, 'almost entirely mathematical, and contains all the theory of statics and its applications which can be

adequately undertaken without the use of the calculus." Clearness, conciseness, and accuracy are characteristic features of the book. The chapter on graphical statics written with special application to jointed frames is elaborate, and this, along with the large number of practical examples worked out in the book, will be found useful by the engineer.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Indian Education in 1913-14. Calcutta: Superintendent, Government Printing, India. Rs. 1-8.

Shivaji, the Mahratta, His Life and Times, by H. G. Rawlinson, M.A. Oxford University Press. 2s. 6d.

Poems of Tukaram, translated by J. Nelson Fraser, and K. B. Marathe, Vol. I. Rs. 2-8; Vol. II. Rs. 2-8; C. L. S. Madras.

A Manual of Mechanics and Heat, R. A. Gregory and H. E. Hadley. London: Macmillan. 2s.

Love's Triumph. A Tamil Novel, by V. P. Krishnasami, B.A. Madras: G. A. Vaidyaraman. 4 as.

The Indian Heroes, by C. A. Kincaid, C. V. O. Oxford University Press.

The Oxford Student's History of India, by Vincent A. Smith, M.A. Oxford University Press.

Livingstone, the Pathfinder, by Basil Matthews, B.A., translated into Tamil by Rev. N. Devasabayam, B.A. Madras: C. L. S. Re. 1-4.

Rampal Singh's Surrender, or a Story of Loss and Gain, in Tamil. Madras: C. L. S. 4 as.

Betty's Decision, in Telugu. Madras: C. L. S. 3 as.

'Ilmu't Tajard or the Art of Reading the Qur'an. 6 as. Madras: C. L. S.

BOOKS FROM MESSRS. GEORGE BELL & SONS.

Bell's Simplified Latin Classics: Napoleon's Belgian Campaign, edited by S. E. Winbolt, M.A. 1s. 6d.

Differential Partnership English through the Missing Word, by Norman Macmum. Green and Brown Series.

English Composition, by George Guest, Book I. 4d.; Book II. 5d.; Book III. 6d.; Book IV. 6d.

Experimental Electricity and Magnetism, by M. Finn, M. Sc. 4s. 6d.

Landmarks in Literary History, by C. A. Owen. 2s.

Numerical Examples in Physics, by H. Sydney Jones, M. A. 3s. 6d.

Elementary Studies in Plant Life, by F. E. Fritsch, D. Sc., F. L. S. and E. J. Salisbury, D. Sc., F. L. S. 2s.

Bell's Shakespeare, edited by S. P. B. Mais, M.A.: King Richard II. 1s.; Julius Cæsar. 1s.; A Midsummer Night's Dream. 1s.

Statics, Part II, by R. C. Fawdry, M.A., B. Sc. 2s.

Books of Britain and the Emperors. Book I, by E. C. Marchant, M.A. 1s.

Pendlebury's New Concrete Arithmetic. Sixth Year Course. by C. Pendlebury, M.A. and H. Leather. 5d.

Plane Trigonometry, by H. Leslie Reed, M.A. 3s. 6d.

Annotated English Classics: Spenser's Fairy Queen, Book I, by S. E. Winbolt, M.A. 2s.

Burke's Speeches on America, by F. A. Cavenagh. 1s. 6d.

Tennyson's Selected Poems, by G. K. Allen, M.A. 1s. 6d.

The Life of Thomas Pitt, by Sir Cornelius Neale Dalton, K. C. M. G., C. B., M. A., D. C. L. 15s. net.

Bell's Geographical Illustrations with Descriptive Rolls: (1) An Oasis in the Desert. (2) A Japanese Cherry Garden. (3) The Frozen North. (4) A Red Indian Camp. (5) Elephants at work. (6) A Banana Plantation.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

The Hindu High School, Srivilliputtur.—The annual distribution of prizes to the successful students of the Hindu High School took place on the 17th instant. The function was presided over by the Hon'ble Mr. K. Rama Iyengar of Madras. At about 7 P.M., a largely attended meeting was held in the premises of the school, and the proceedings began with the reading of the annual report by Mr. V. Sethu Rao, the Secretary of the Managing Committee. The report disclosed several interesting items regarding the efficient working of the institution. The strength of the school on the prize-distribution day was 662 against 574 last year. The results of the S. S. L. C. examination were satisfactory; for about 50% of the boys sent up from the school were eligible for collegiate course. The one regrettable feature of the institution mentioned in the report was that the building was utterly inadequate for the growing strength of the classes and the Secretary expressed a desire that the liberal-hearted gentleman of the town should come forward to remedy this defect. The report having been read, the President performed the pleasant function of distributing the prizes to the winners. He then rose up and made an interesting speech. He began by congratulating the prize-winners for their merits and then dwelt at length on the importance of education in its physical aspect. Here, he pointed out the necessity for the acquisition of a proper site for the school play-ground, as the present one was much too small. Touching upon the proposed extension of the school building, he exhorted the audience to come forward with their liberal help and himself set a noble example by announcing a donation of Re. 1000 towards the cost. In conclusion he had a suggestion to make to the staff of the school. They were to form themselves into an association having for its object the spread of primary education in villages. During holidays, they were to visit neighbouring villages, converse with the leading people therein, educating them as to the necessity of opening new schools or improving old ones. They were also to inspect such schools periodically and do everything in their power as would tend to improve their status and stability. The Hon'ble gentleman said that this method of propagating primary education, if taken up in all High schools, would enable us, in the long run, to realise the highest aspirations of the late Mr. Gokhale. The President then resumed his seat amidst the loud acclamations of the audience.

Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night" in English, and "Janakiparinayam" in Sanskrit, were then put on boards by some of the school students. When the performances were over, Mr. K. Rama Iyengar congratulated the actors and said they had much scope for improvement. The whole function came to a close with a hearty vote of thanks to the chair, proposed by Mr. S. Krishna Iyengar, B.A., L.T., the Headmaster of the institution.

Municipal High School, Walajanagar.—The school was busy during the last week of September. Mr. Champion, the Inspector of Schools, with the Assistant and Sub Assistant, conducted the annual inspection which continued the whole of the week. At the conclusion of the inspection, on the evening of Friday, the 1st instant, Mr. Champion was kind enough to preside at the meeting of the School Juvenile Association and Mrs. Champion also graced the occasion by her presence.

As usual, an essay was read and there was some recitation, the subject of the former being 'the execution of Charles I.' and of the latter, 'Prince Arthur and Hubert.' After hearing the remarks of some of the members on the subject of the essay, the Chairman made his concluding remarks in the course of which he complimented Panchaksharam of VI Form for his good recitation and Hussainy V Form for his good speech and pointed out to the boys the great educational value of these associations, as in these they receive a good training for their future career. He advised them to learn to arrange their ideas and express them in simple straightforward language and go direct to the point, as it would enable them afterwards either as a vakil to argue a case successfully or as a clerk to put up an intelligent draft or as a teacher to give an impressive lesson and above all to fare well in the examination. He further asked them not to use set phrases and high sounding words just for the meeting but to speak naturally as they would on other occasions. From the enthusiasm evident at the meeting he hoped that the Association would continue to do useful work giving a high standard of training to the members and concluded his remarks by expressing Mrs. Champion's and his pleasure at being present at the meeting and the desire to be present on a future occasion.

Mr. and Mrs. Champion were garlanded amidst cheers Mr. Vaidianathaiyar, Headmaster, in thanking them, exhorted the boys not only to treasure up the precious words of advice from the chair but also to follow them and he hoped his boys would do so, as they knew and felt that their masters were their guides and Mr. Champion was their masters' guide.

The meeting concluded with the singing of the National Anthem and Mr. and Mrs. Champion motored to Ranipet.

On Saturday, the 2nd instant, the Inspector again met the staff at 9-30 A.M. in the school and had a talk till 11 A.M., particularly on the award and record of marks for school work and the use of textbooks for B group subjects and subjects for which no syllabus has been prescribed.

Regarding the former he said that the complaints in certain quarters—that the S. S. L. C. system introduced marking and being unreliable it was valueless and being burdensome it was unnecessary—was unreasonable—and that a proper and accurate estimate of boys' work was always part of a teach-

er's work even before the introduction of the new system which was then the subject of all kinds of criticism and all sorts of impracticable suggestions. He added that knowing and conscientious teachers never found anything new now and that the success of the system largely depended upon how it was worked. He suggested a due proportion of marks should be assigned to the different kinds of a boy's work and that the distribution should be uniform in all forms and throughout the year and to minimise the burden complained of, there may be three courses for the entries of marks in the Headmaster's Abstract Mark Registers—two in the Long term and one in the Short. He suggested slip tests in all subjects.

Regarding the use of text-books he said it was a common opinion among many at least of young teachers that to follow a text-book was upbecoming of an enthusiast and the inevitable result was, their notes containing scraps culled from different books taken by boys, even when to dictation, with all kinds of mistakes which are all their own and which cannot be corrected within the short time at the disposal of the masters produced more harm than good. He therefore suggested that a fairly suitable text-book should serve as a sure revision—aid when the subject matter has been carefully taught in class. The teacher should bear in mind that boys are boys and that English is a foreign tongue. He mentioned instances where the very teacher who did not follow a text-book because of too many details gave notes containing details from many books.

Considering the benefit derived from his talk by the masters and boys, it may be said, that the Inspector's visit was—as said of Mr. Branford in the *School World*—September number—an inspiration.

Wardlaw College Dialectic Union, Bellary.—The Inaugural Meeting of the Wardlaw College Dialectic Union for the current school year was held last month. The President, Mr. J. P. Cotelingam, gave an address on 'The Student and his responsibilities.' Duty to self he spoke of first. Personal purity with youths in the adolescent stage was plainly and very strikingly dwelt upon. Next came responsibility to the home and duties there. The responsibility of the student to the town or country and certain forms of social service were explained. In this connection Mr. Cotelingam reminded them of the suggestion he had made some time ago to open a night class for the benefit of workmen and labourers who are anxious to read and write, and poor boys who cannot attend a day school. He then spoke of the useful work done by organisations such as the St. John's Ambulance Association. They had seen how First Aid was rendered in the Wardlaw College. He encouraged all those who desired to do so to join the First Aid Class to be started in Bellary shortly and qualify themselves to render aid.

The speaker then concluded by pointing out the responsibility of the student in the class-room and

to his studies at home. The failure at Public Examinations is largely attributed by students to severity of the examiners. That view is not likely to do the student good. The student must fit himself for the class he is in, and qualify himself for the class to which he aspires to be put into after the year. Several parents desire their boys should be promoted but they do not see that they are qualified for promotion. It is so with the students themselves. They weep when they are not promoted. It will do them good if they weep because they have failed to earn their promotion. If they are true to their own selves, their parents and their studies they will add to their knowledge, do well in examinations and acquire ability to render what service they can to their home and country.

The address was just suited to the needs of students and was listened to very attentively from beginning to end.

After a hearty vote of thanks for the interesting and instructive address the meeting was brought to a close.

Diamond Jubilee of the Taylor High School, Narsapur.—The Diamond Jubilee celebrations of the Taylor High school took place on the 9th instant. The President of the occasion, Rao Bahadur A. O. Prantharthihara Iyer, B.A., Inspector of Schools (retired), who was Headmaster of the Taylor High School for about half a dozen years ending 1885, reached the place and was brought in a procession from the Narsapur lock to the reception pandal, where he and other guests were given an innovation and refreshments. In the evening from two o'clock began the celebration of the Diamond Jubilee at a public meeting held for the purpose. The pandal was packed to its utmost capacity and not only the Sub-Collector Mr. J. I. Smith, I.C.S., and the other members of the European community there including some ladies were among those who graced the occasion but among the guests who came from far and near, were found some of the oldest students of the institution who matriculated more than thirty years ago, testifying personally the love they bear for their old "Alma Mater." The unveiling of the oil painting of the late Hon. Mr. G. N. Taylor, I.C.S., the founder of the institution was done. The President read his opening speech in which much was said about the illiberal and unsympathetic attitude shown hitherto by the Government towards aided institutions. He also laid stress on the fact that this premier institution could not boast of a more spacious and up-to-date building to satisfy modern requirements.

After the presidential speech some toasts were proposed and the ceremony came to a close for that day. Next morning there was a meeting of the old Boys, in which was formed an Old Boys Association whose objects were, it was said (1) institution and annual celebration of the School Day, (2) starting a Taylor High School Magazine and so forth. The same night a dramatic performance was

given in Telugu by the old and present students. On the third day, there was a public procession bearing the portrait of the Hon'ble Mr. G. N. Taylor in prominence and there was then a musical entertainment given by Mr. G. Kotayya and his sons. On the third day there were sports and another dramatic performance in English was given. The fourth day found the conclusion of the sports and prizes were awarded by Mr. J. I. Smith, I.C.S.

The Sourashtra High School, Madura.—The twelfth anniversary and prize distribution function of the Sourashtra High School, Madura, came off on the 16th instant. The school hall and the premises were tastefully decorated. The meeting was attended very largely and was presided over by Mr. G. F. Paddison, M.A., I.C.S., Collector of Madura. An interesting and entertaining programme of songs, recitations and dialogues was gone through, after which Mr. A. Govindaraja Mudaliar, the Headmaster, read the report of the school for the year ending the 31st March last. The strength of the school rose from 1,051 to 1,228 due to the large number of non-Sourashtra students who sought admission. The results of the school and public examinations were fairly satisfactory and promotions were made with greater strictness than in the previous year.

A sum of Rs. 40000 has been collected by the managing authorities with a view to construct a spacious building to meet the requirements of an up-to-date High school; but they regret that they cannot realise their long-cherished object unless the Government acquired land for them under the Land Acquisition Act. The financial condition of the school is fairly satisfactory. Some of the charitable gentlemen of the Sourashtra community have been providing free meals at noon every day to Sourashtra poor students and they are making arrangements to extend this charity to other communities as well.

Mr. N. M. Rayaloo Iyer, the Treasurer of the Committee, has been waiting for the construction of a new school building in order to build out of his private funds a permanent hotel and to give free board and lodging to not less than 200 poor students.

After the report had been read, the prizes and medals were distributed to the students.

The Chairman then made a few concluding remarks. He greatly sympathized with the appeal made by the Headmaster to the Government in the matter of acquiring the site adjacent to the present school buildings for converting it into a playground for the boys, and said he would endeavour his best in getting them the desired site. It was a matter for gratification that the strength of the school increased by 20 per cent. in the past year and this fact indicated in a large measure the popularity of the institution. He was glad to notice that this school founded by the Sourastras and designed for the education

of their community, opened its arms wide and welcomed the students of other communities also. This was a healthy sign of the times. They should all take the opportunity of this war which bound them close together, to break down every barrier which separated one class apart from another, and to stand united for the well-being of the country. More than 1,200 students studied in that school, and he wanted them all to realise what an enormous power they possessed for good or evil for the future of this town and country, if they acted united for any common cause. They must remember that they all lived not only in times of stress on account of the war but in times of real difficulty; and it was only upon boys of institutions of this kind that the future of the country largely rested. It was a great responsibility for the young men to face. The elder among them who had certain amount of influence over the youngsters, should use it for the good of the town in the matter of health and sanitation. If the elders would show their hatred and disgust for anything that was unhealthy and insanitary on the face of it, and if the youngsters followed them faithfully, the improvement that could be effected in the sanitary condition of a place, would be very great. He wanted the students of the Sourashtra High School to set an example in this respect in personal cleanliness, hygiene and sanitation. He exhorted the students to cultivate the power of self-control in places where large crowds congregated and said that if India was to be successful, it must be by the power of self-control which was of vital importance to the nation.

Mr. J. Ramier garlanded and thanked the President. The meeting then terminated.

BOMBAY.

Vernacular Agricultural Education.—It will be remembered that one of the matters gone into on the occasion of the Hon'ble Mr. Claude Hill's last visit to Bombay was that of the possibility of extending to other provinces the system of vernacular agricultural education, which has been in force for some years past with promising results in the Bombay Presidency. The proposed conference on the subject, however, will be postponed pending the collection of further information that is now being got together.

In the Bombay Presidency four vernacular agricultural schools under Indian management have been opened in the Poona and other districts, and a definite advance has been made in the direction of popularising the improved methods of cultivation. The Agricultural College also has been affiliated to the University and village headmen are being trained to take an interest in agriculture. As the result, the village blacksmith of the Deccan is beginning to copy Western ploughs and other modern agricultural implements, and the Poona Museum is becoming a centre, where Oriental versions of European

appliances can be seen and studied. The extent to which students trained in vernacular agricultural schools remain in the agricultural profession in after life, has still to be seen. Information on this important point is being collected, however, and measures taken to weed out students, who do not intend to profit by the special instruction, which it is the function of these useful institutions to impart.

A second Medical College.—A munificent offer of Rs. 12,00,000 has been made by Messrs. Payne and Co., under instructions from the Hon'ble Advocate-General on behalf of the Trustees of Gordhandas Sunderdas for the foundation of a Second Medical College in Bombay on the following conditions:—(a) That the College should be established and attached to the King Edward Hospital. (b) that the College should be affiliated to the Bombay University and proper provision should be made therein for giving instruction up to the highest medical degree of the University. (c) that the Corporation should provide the necessary buildings and fully equip the College with all necessaries for giving proper instruction. (d) that the Corporation should ever afterwards maintain the College and defray the necessary recurring expenses for the purpose. (e) that the Professors and teachers to be employed at the College should all be properly qualified independent Indian gentlemen not in the Government service, and (f) that the College should be named the Seth Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical College.

The Corporation at a meeting referred the matter to the Committee for report, several members welcoming the splendid and generous offer and expressing the hope that the Committee would submit an early report accepting the gift.

The Deccan College anniversary.—His Excellency the Governor accompanied by Lady Willingdon presided at the 47th anniversary of the Deccan College at Kirkee where a large number of prominent people assembled including the Hon'ble Mr. Chanbal, Hon'ble Mr. Carmichael, Chief of Aundh, Chief of Inchalkaronji, Chief of Miraj (Senior), Hon'ble Mr. Sharp, Sir R. G. Bhandarkar and others. Songs of welcome were sung as soon as Their Excellencies arrived at the College premises, the grounds of which were lavishly festooned. Professor Rawlinson, Principal of the College, made a few introductory remarks which embodied in brief the history of the College and then His Excellency made a most impressive speech in the course of which he referred with fervour to the cause and the effects of the war. "The victory will be ours" said His Excellency "however long the struggle, for God defends the right and the right is with our arms. While the tragedies of these days are always before our eyes can we not rejoice at the splendid rally not only of the armed forces but of all races and classes of people from every part of the British Empire and not feel the deepest pride in the conspicuous and patriotic part which our countrymen are taking in

our righteous cause? Do we not believe that as a result there will arise a better understanding between all parts of the British Empire and aspirations of its various parts? If I am right in my views as to what this war will effect and prove in the future it is my bounden duty to impress upon your minds the importance of your years at College. At this, the most susceptible urge upon you how momentous it is for you to make yourselves for ever increasing responsibilities and duties of your future citizenship." His Excellency then proceeded to advise the students in regard to their future careers in the course of education they should follow. A vote of thanks by the Hon'ble Mr. Sharp concluded the proceedings.

Law Students' Union.—The annual meeting of the Bombay Law Students' Union was held recently, the Hon. Sir Basil Scott presiding. After the annual report was read and adopted, Sir Basil addressed the gathering and said he was very glad to see there was such a flourishing and popular society in Bombay to encourage the study of law and he hoped the proposal to start a debating society in connection with the law school would be successful. The most celebrated law school in the world in connection with English law was the Law School of the Harvard University and the chief feature of that school was its debating society which discussed points of law in the form in which they were discussed in courts. He thought there ought to be no difficulty in keeping up a debating society of that kind in an association which had so many members as the Bombay Society had. The only thing he did not very much like to see in the report was the reference about examination questions. That was an indication that there was a large demand for copies of the questions put at the solicitors' examinations. He did not think that that indicated a study in the right way. To study examination questions spread over a long series of years and to anticipate the examiners on particular points without getting a general knowledge of law was a thing which he hoped Mr. Mulla would never encourage. He wished all prosperity to the Union. In conclusion Sir Basil Scott thanked the gathering for the vote of thanks proposed on him and said he was glad to welcome back Mr. Faiz Tyabji who had returned to Bombay after spending 8 years on the bench of Madras High Court with credit to the Bombay bar.

CALCUTTA.

Undergraduate Hostels in Calcutta.—It may be remembered that H. E. the Viceroy in his last Convocation Address announced a grant of ten lakhs of rupees for the purpose of undergraduate hostels in Calcutta. The details of the scheme are now available and a definite advance has been made in the matter. The Hon. Dr. Deva Prasad Sarbadhikari's recent visit to Simla was made among other matters in connection with the settlement of the details of the scheme. Previous to the Vice-Chancel-

lor's Conference with the Government of India, there was a conference at Darjeeling between Mr. Lyon, Mr. Hornell, the Vice-Chancellor, Mr. K. C. De and Mr. Green, and it was agreed that the following scheme be adopted:—

(1) A hostel for the Bangabasi College; (2) one for St. Xavier's; (3) one for the Metropolitan; and (4) one for the Ripon College. Land has been required for the purpose. The City College Hostel was also decided upon, for which land had to be acquired.

The original suggestion was that each of the hostels should have in the same building a ward for Moslem students. In working out the details the Vice-Chancellor found it to be a most impracticable thing, and pressed for a Mahomedan Central Hostel for Mahomedan students from all the colleges. This was also agreed to; orders were passed to that effect and the site has been purchased, which has been approved by the Vice-Chancellor, Hon. Mr. Sams-ul-Huda, and Mahomedan leaders. The plans have been prepared by Mr. Crouch, Government Architect, in consultation with the Vice-Chancellor and the Principals of the colleges concerned.

The Vice-Chancellor pressed for the inclusion of a students' infirmary without which, in his opinion, no hostel could be complete. Though a sick room is provided, serious cases cannot be treated in the hostel, he urged, and a central infirmary is absolutely necessary. The question is still under the consideration of the Government and when the Vice-Chancellor went up to Simla he conferred with the Government of India as regards the rest of the scheme which was outlined and sanctioned. Arrangements are now being made to make over the money to the University for giving effect to the scheme.

University College of Science.—A noteworthy advance has now been made in the University College of Science. The building has been completed and work has actually commenced. The University M. Sc. classes in Chemistry has been started with 8 students. Prof. Mitra is lecturing and has got two distinguished assistants who were two of the best men turned out by Dr. P. C. Ray and they already made contributions to Chemical Science. The Chemical Laboratory has been set in order. It is stated on good authority the College of Science Laboratory is now equipped on a scale superior to any other laboratory in Calcutta. From next session another batch of students will also be taken in Chemistry so that there will be both a 5th year and a 6th year class in Chemistry. Another department of the College of Science is also actively at work. Dr. Ganesh Prasad has taken in hand a number of young graduates who are carrying on very important researches under his direction as is evidenced by the important original papers which they have already published. In this department of Applied Mathematics great developments are likely to take place next session and provision will be made for the

teaching of obscure branches which have not hitherto been taught in Calcutta or anywhere in India. The governing body of the College of Science have also provided accommodation for the Calcutta Mathematical Society near the Mathematical Department. Arrangements are also being made to fit up a room to enable Mr. Upendra Nath Brahmachari to carry on very important Physiological researches upon which he has been engaged for sometime past. Mr. C. V. Raman who is expected to join the College shortly is carrying on important investigations in Acoustic in the laboratory of the University, which has spent over Rs. 5,000 in procuring the special instruments needed for his investigations. The Laboratory has been fitted up by the Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works and Dr. P. C. Ray will join the College in July next.

PUNJAB.

Sikh Educational Conference.—The President's address at the Sikh Educational Conference held at Ferozpur was marked with superb optimism. It urged the necessity of physical education side by side with secular education and that religious and moral education must be imparted to children. It was time that technical and industrial instruction were opened and agricultural institutions started. Efforts should be particularly made to increase the number of primary schools. It was absolutely necessary to devote particular attention to physical culture for the Sikhs who were expected to serve the King and the country in the battle-field. It was extremely necessary to impart education to girls to achieve real social progress. Disowning the returned emigrants the President said it was a matter of deepest regret that some thoughtless persons having come in contact with wicked people had done many unworthy and shameful acts. Such men though they claimed to be Sikhs did not possess Sikh 'Daring.' The whole Sikh community would look down upon them. They should shed blood for the permanence and glory of the British Raj. The address closed after a few references to the Sikh gallantry in the fields of France and Dardanelles. A stirring appeal on behalf of female education was made by an earnest Sikh lady who devoted her life to that cause. Bhaj Johdh Singh who followed next, made an interesting and impressive speech on the Sikhs' ideals.

A forcible appeal was made by Sirdar Jogendra Singh for contributions to National Fund for disseminating primary education, and another stirring appeal was made by Bhanibhira Singh. About Rs. 25,000 were collected.

Some 35 resolutions were then passed relating to increased employment of Sikhs, introduction of Gurmukhi in offices, printing of Gurmukhi, and recognition of Punjabi as a compulsory language for schools.

MYSORE.

The Mysore Public Library.—The opening ceremony of the Mysore Public Library by His Highness the Yuvaraj took place on the 15th instant and was a brilliant success. The ceremony took place in the Central Hall of the grand and imposing structure of the Mysore Public Library opposite the new General Hospital buildings in course of construction. There was a large and distinguished gathering present, among whom were Dewan Sir Visweswarayya; Councillors: Messrs. H. V. Nanjundayya and Sirdar Kantaraj Urs, Messrs. R. H. Campbell, Karpur Srinivasa Rao, Justices Paramaswara Iyer and Chandrasekara Iyer, Rev. Mr. Galiford, Mr. J. S. Chakravathi, Messrs. Nagappa, E. Ramaswami Iyer, D'Souza, D. M. Narasinga Rao, Dewan Bahadur Puttanna Chetty, Mr. K. Chandy, Registrar Narayana Iyengar and Mr. Hiriyannoyya.

The ceremony commenced with the reading of benedictory verses in Sanskrit and Persian. This done, the members of the Library Committee, headed by Mr. Humza Hussain Sahib, were introduced to His Highness the Yuvaraj by Mr. C. Krishna Rao, Secretary, Educational Committee.

Mr. Humza Hussain Sahib then read the address in English, in which he dwelt on the circumstances that led to the establishment of the Library as the outcome of deliberations of the Economic Conference and the generous help given by the Mysore Government for the establishment of libraries, one in Mysore and another in Bangalore. The address pointed out that the establishment and maintenance of public libraries in Europe and America are matters of course, and dwelt on the usefulness of such institutions to the public. After detailing the expenditure incurred in the purchase of books, etc., which exceeded the initial Government grant of Rs. 15,000 by Rs. 200, the address went on describing the system adopted by the Library in issuing books to members. Books and newspapers could be read within the Library premises, free separate rooms being allotted for the same. Those desirous of borrowing books are charged a monthly fee of Rs. 2 and Re. 1. The total number of visitors up to end of September last was 27,421 giving an average daily attendance of 126. 53 gentlemen enrolled themselves as members, and the number is likely to increase. After acknowledging with gratitude the deep solicitude of the Government of His Highness the Maharaja in promoting people's knowledge it recalled a passage from the address of Dewan Sir Visweswarayya delivered at the Economic Conference of 1913 regarding the desirability and absolute necessity for spreading knowledge to the people.

The address concluded by assuring that the Committee would try to make the Library a means of achieving the noble end in view.

TRAVANCORE.

Foreign Scholarships.—The following press communique has been issued:—The Education Budget of

the Travancore Government for the current Malabar year makes provision for a few technical and industrial foreign scholarships. The Government, for this purpose, have set apart Rs. 15,000 for the current year and they propose to do so for the coming five years also. The scholarships are awarded subject to the following conditions:—The candidates selected must, while abroad, devote their whole attention to their study and qualify themselves in some branch of industrial or technical study which will enable them to improve the industries and develop the resources of the State. Subjects of Law, Medicine and Engineering are not intended to be encouraged by the award of these scholarships. Scholarships are strictly confined to the Natives of Travancore and the holders will be bound by agreement executed by themselves and by proper sureties to refund by periodical instalments and within a specified period after their return, one half of the amount spent on them. The amount of each instalment, the time that may elapse between the return of the students and the payment of the first instalment, &c., will be fixed by Government in each case. Government do not undertake to provide employment to the students on their return. But if called upon to serve the Darbar within a specified time after their return, the students should be ready to do so on terms to be settled then. The Darbar has now ordered the Director of Public Instruction to submit at an early date a detailed and comprehensive report on the whole question with a set of draft rules.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Statement showing the number of candidates and the number of failures at the prescribed examinations (including University examinations) in the several provinces of British India during the ten years from 1904-05 to 1913-14. This statement was given by Sir Harcourt Butler in reply to a question asked by the Hon'ble Mr. Mir Asad Ali at the Imperial Legislative Council on the 22nd ultimo.

Province.	Year.	Candidates.	Failures.
Madras	1904-05	67,038	33,665
	1905-06	21,324	13,640
	1906-07	21,244	11,200
	1907-08	20,591	12,764
	1908-09	18,590	9,637
	1909-10	19,156	11,905
	1910-11	15,625	4,501
	1911-12	15,967	5,516
	1912-13	17,317	5,582
	1913-14	18,187	6,861
Bombay	1904-05	126,412	54,863
	1905-06	142,431	61,997
	1906-07	149,057	63,580
	1907-08	151,989	64,318
	1908-09	156,302	67,371
	1909-10	164,840	69,342
	1910-11	170,199	73,183
	1911-12	176,851	76,404
	1912-13	164,160	68,887
	1913-14	179,866	71,549

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Province.	Year.	Candidates.	Failures.	Province.	Year.	Candidates.	Failures.
Bengal	1904-05	175,758	61,122	Assam	1904-05	5,686	2,514
	1905-06	99,288	32,720		1912-13	13,769	5,085
	1906-07	101,772	33,108		1913-14	14,461	5,023
	1907-08	101,879	31,908	North West Frontier Province	1904-05	1,466	488
	1908-09	107,429	32,663		1905-06	1,608	521
	1909-10	115,213	31,151		1906-07	1,755	525
	1910-11	125,798	31,481		1907-08	1,677	557
	1911-12	135,621	35,319		1908-09	1,834	622
	1912-13	199,053	53,275		1909-10	2,063	660
	1913-14	204,839	56,434		1910-11	597	230
United Provinces	1904-05	24,381	7,438		1911-12	1,093	392
	1905-06	30,139	8,551		1912-13	1,999	318
	1906-07	33,568	10,614		1913-14	1,154	300
	1907-08	37,713	11,371	Coorg	1904-05	552	207
	1908-09	39,562	13,204		1905-06	489	202
	1909-10	45,095	14,879		1906-07	26	16
	1910-11	44,686	14,466		1907-08	33	14
	1911-12	48,114	17,642		1908-09	29	18
	1912-13	52,327	18,240		1909-10	39	15
	1913-14	54,513	18,048		1910-11	32	28
Punjab	1904-05	22,172	7,352		1911-12	33	24
	1905-06	22,985	7,199		1912-13	16	13
	1906-07	24,526	6,552		1913-14	38	33
	1907-08	26,154	6,711	Delhi	1912-13	353	135
	1908-09	8,482	3,204		1913-14	352	144
	1909-10	8,783	3,726	Foreign.			
	1910-11	9,629	4,052	Female Education in India. —Mrs. Fawcett headed a deputation at the India Office to urge the importance of improving the means for female education in India and the appointment of a Committee to investigate the matter.			
	1911-12	9,136	3,900	Mr. Chamberlain replying agreed as to the importance of female education in India, and he in no way under-estimated the influence of women in India on the life of the community, but the question of female education in India required most delicate handling.			
	1912-13	9,203	3,480	The memorialists claimed a widespread demand in India for the tackling of the question. He was unable to trace any such representations in India through the channels now available to the native population. More than ever before such a movement should originate in India rather than in London. He was not disposed to appoint a Committee. He did not know if the Indian Government would welcome the project.			
Burma	1904-05	140,502	40,194	He would transmit the memorial to the Indian Government without any recommendations not desiring to prejudice any decision of the Indian Government on it, but the moment in any case was inopportune. The scheme would involve great financial outlay and a moment when the Empire was at stake was not the best for a careful study of such a vast problem. Moreover the Education Department had recently been entrusted for the first time to a native. This was an excellent reason for waiting to see what recommendations, if any, he would make.			
	1905-06	149,977	41,847				
	1906-07	162,774	48,715				
	1907-08	185,482	55,535				
	1908-09	196,921	61,142				
	1909-10	193,767	64,430				
	1910-11	190,094	61,913				
	1911-12	191,420	61,049				
	1912-13	201,755	68,681				
	1913-14	231,821	76,571				
Eastern Bengal and Assam.	1905-06	67,465	19,881				
	1906-07	66,313	19,264				
	1907-08	67,573	19,001				
	1908-09	73,984	21,480				
	1909-10	79,322	23,248				
	1910-11	85,495	25,341				
Bihar and Orissa	1911-12	96,678	26,130				
	1912-13	51,189	13,695				
	1913-14	56,604	15,319				
Central Provinces and Bihar.	1904-05	20,885	7,874				
	1905-06	21,434	7,461				
	1906-07	21,333	7,878				
	1907-08	28,859	7,944				
	1908-09	25,671	8,706				
	1909-10	27,750	10,230				
	1910-11	29,458	11,749				
	1911-12	31,030	12,525				
	1912-13	36,596	13,771				
	1913-14	36,587	14,054				

The Educational Review.

As this number of the *Educational Review* reaches the hands of

Sir Sankaran Nair—The new Education Member of the Viceroy's Council.

our readers, Sir Sankaran Nair will be entering upon the exalted office of Member of the Viceroy's Council at Delhi.

Assuming charge of the Departments of Education, Sanitation and Self-Government, it will be the proud privilege of Sir Sankaran Nair to regulate the progress of the country in three of the most important directions of national activity, during half a decade. If we offer him our hearty greetings on this occasion, it is not merely because he is a distinguished son of our part of India—we have no hesitation in thinking that a new epoch of sympathetic and patriotic Government in Education, interested solely in national advancement awaits us in the next few years. When the time comes for him to lay down the responsibilities of his high office, we have no doubt he will have rendered such an account of himself, as will stand the test of criticism and also leave a high standard to his successors.

We confess we are specially interested in the Department of Education, and our gratification is enhanced by a knowledge of the fact that Sir Sankaran Nair himself has a great partiality for it. Gifted with an intellect as polished as it is virile and a heart which has always gone out in sympathy to the ignorant and the unlettered, to the great mass of our

countrymen who have not yet been initiated into any of the benefits of culture, Sir Sankaran Nair will spare no pains to extend education to the people at large. It is interesting to contemplate upon the treatment Gokhale's Elementary Education Bill might have received at the hands of the Imperial Government, if Sir Sankaran Nair had been at the helm of educational affairs but we trust the lost opportunity has not disappeared for ever.

Sir Sankaran Nair will prove a great friend of higher education too. Himself a profound believer in the cultural effects of Western education, he is sure to impart new strength to the various schemes of University Education that have been set afloat in recent years. To those who have had the privilege of knowing him, nothing must have struck so forcibly, as his strong intellectual—one might even say *academical*—tastes. Books and magazines of the most intellectual type have always formed his mental pabulum and he has ever striven to make himself familiar with the latest currents of thought. Sir Sankaran Nair does not happily belong to that class of Indian publicists who dabble in almost all subjects relating to public life without sufficient intellectual equipment. His judicial instincts have always made him calm and cautious, anxious to weigh evidence and discuss a question in all its bearings, before coming to any conclusion. He has just the serenity of intellectual temperament necessary for guiding the educational affairs of a great



THE HON'BLE SIR C. SANKARAN NAIR, KT., C.I.E., B.A., B.L.
New Education Member of H. E. the Viceroy's Council

country and one might not be far wrong in characterising him as a Professor in a Lawyer's Robes.

We shall not presume to dictate to Sir Sankaran Nair the policy he must adopt in his administration of the Educational Department during the time he is in charge, but we may be allowed to indicate some of the lines along which Indian opinion would expect him to proceed. We are aware of the fact that patronage in the Educational Department is not very much in the hands of the Imperial Member for Education, but Sir Sankaran Nair will be failing in his duty if he will not exert himself to get for such of his countrymen as deserve it, the highest training and experience open in the Educational Department. By a curious irony of fate while an Indian can aspire to rise to the highest positions of trust and responsibility in almost every department under the Crown, he must be content to stop with the lower ranks of the Educational service. He cannot hope to be the Principal of a Government College or the Director of Public Instruction of the smallest province in India and the sooner this condition of things is put an end to the better will it be for the educational advancement of the country. It is not that Indians are deprived of some official patronage which ought to fall to their share, but they are prevented from acquiring the higher type of educational experience in the country, thus retarding the progress of the assimilation of Western culture and its further development in the land. If this re-

striction upon the effective spread of Western culture in India is not put an end to, during the *regime* of an Indian Member of Education, the day of deliverance may never come in the future.

Another direction in which Sir Sankaran Nair will find vast scope for work is in trying to bring the education imparted in our schools and colleges as near Indian life and surroundings as possible, without endangering the essential spirit of Western culture. There must not be the piteous spectacle of the Indian student being well-up in every small detail relating to British and European history and not possessing any knowledge of the great events of his own national history. The descendant of the ancient *rishis* who evolved the fine philosophical systems of the *Upanishads* must not be kept in entire ignorance of their sublime treasures. Without having been furnished with any opportunities for the study of the industrial history of India, his attention must not be directed to artificial efforts at the study of mediæval industrial conditions in England. A knowledge of Indian Economics must be insisted upon in the Arts courses relating to History and kindred subjects. A number of such means for bringing Western culture nearer the surroundings of every-day life will present themselves before Sir Sankaran Nair and we have no doubt that he will not miss any one of them. We need hardly remind him that education in India should be made cheaper than at present and technical

education should be encouraged side by side with general education.

Sir Sankaran Nair, it is refreshing to see, has not that weakness to which an Indian is generally prone—conservatism and a disinclination to embark upon new measures of reform. Nor is he likely to countenance proposals of a reactionary type, apparently flattering to our national vanity, but really undermining our best chances of a progressive future, like schemes for the imparting of education in the vernaculars or paying excessive attention to Oriental languages to the detriment of the healthy impulses imparted by Western culture in the real sense. In his hands, there is the absolute guarantee of our educational system marching on the progressive lines on which it was started more than half a century back by the enlightened foresight and statesmanship of Lord Macaulay and Lord William Bentinck.

By the death of Mr. E. W. Middlemast education in South India has suffered no common loss. Had

health been granted him he would, almost certainly, have succeeded in the near future to the office of Director of Public Instruction, a post for which he was in many ways, it may almost be said, uniquely qualified. The appointment would have given unmixed satisfaction to every member of his own service, and his administration, there can be little doubt, would have inspired confidence in all who desire educational

progress in this Presidency, and who have at the same time a true appreciation of what such progress means, and of the difficulties which attend its realisation.

Dis aliter visum. Some little time before the news of Mr. Middlemast's death reached Madras it was recognised amongst his friends that his return to India was not to be looked for; but there still seemed good ground for hope that many years of quiet life in his own country in enjoyment of the rest he so well had earned were still in store for him. This hope also was frustrated. Death came unexpectedly and painlessly on the 19th of July.

Mr. Middlemast joined the Indian Educational Service in 1888, his first appointment being Professor of Mathematics in the College of Engineering, and he continued to be a Professor of Mathematics during the greater portion of his service, though for a considerable part of the time he combined the duties of Professor with those of Principal of a Government College,—Kumbakonam, Rajahmundry, and on three occasions, including the last years of his service, the Presidency College. Other appointments held by him were those of Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Inspector of European and Training Schools, and Special Deputy Director.

Of Mr. Middlemast's work as Professor of Mathematics one well competent to judge writes: "Trained in the Cambridge school of thought of the early eighties, he was a mathematician of no mean

order, and it is largely to his influence that the courses in Mathematics in the Madras University have assumed their present form. Some may think that his influence of late was sometimes exercised in opposition to more modern ideas, but he never lost what might be called a commonsense grasp of the subjects, and he could appreciate the difficulties of a Matriculation problem just as well as he could understand the fallacies of an imperfect method of proof in the theory of functions. It is to be regretted that during the last ten years or so of his life he had little time at his disposal to devote to a sustained study of modern Mathematics, though, as President of the Indian Mathematical Society—a position he held at the time of his death—he kept himself in touch with recent developments, so far as circumstances permitted."

Mr. Middlemast served for about five years as Deputy and Special Deputy Director of Public Instruction. It is difficult to appraise correctly the value of an officer's work in these positions, but it was everywhere acknowledged that his clarity of vision, his faculty of separating the clerical wheat from the chaff, and his mathematical training, which enabled him to grasp with ease the principles and details of educational finance, were assets which cannot be over-estimated. He was by no means hostile to 'new ideas' in education, but the ideas he advocated were those which stood the test of critical examination from every point of view. He pressed

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no theory of the soundness of which he was not himself fully convinced. He was essentially a man of 'sound' views; views, that is to say, which can bear examination from the first and are calculated to stand the severer test of time and experience. He had certainly his ideals, but these were never so remote from the actualities of the country as to dishearten those invited by him to accept them; and managers of European Schools—he was Inspector of European and Training Schools for more than two years—valued his advice all the more on account of his adherence to the hard cold facts of education, and his inaccessibility to proposals which were outside the bounds of educational possibility. That his advice was greatly valued, we have reason to know, and it was valued all the more on account of the courtesy and consideration with which it was invariably tendered.

Mr. Middlemast's principalship of the Presidency College was distinguished by systematic thoroughness in administration and in the maintenance of discipline. More noteworthy, perhaps, was the spirit of harmonious co-operation in which Principal and Professors worked together. One who was closely associated with Mr. Middlemast both in the College and in a number of University activities, writes: "To me to work under him was to work with him; for though the guiding hand of authority was never relaxed, it was never felt; but to work with him was to work under him, for where voice and vote were equal, his

approval seemed always to confirm what was urged and to involve something like a transfer of responsibility; whilst his disapproval was a judgment against which there was no inclination to appeal. One recognised in him a full and active sympathy with whatsoever made for progress and improvement, and at the same time an unerring ability to detect whatever was impracticable or, in the circumstances, inadvisable. These qualities were seen both in measures initiated by himself, and in the support he gave to schemes suggested by others. His attitude towards proposals and plans for which a colleague was responsible, and which on examination seemed to stand the test, was characteristically generous; and this open-mindedness and absence of all petty jealousy was, perhaps, not the least of the qualities which fitted him to occupy the highest educational office."

In furthering the work of the University Mr. Middlemast in recent years played a prominent part. He was a leading member of the Committee of the Senate which drew up the present University courses, and thus, in large measure, laid down the lines of University policy. He served on many Boards and Committees; in fact there was probably no committee appointed to consider questions of general importance in the work and life of the University in which his presence was not felt to be almost indispensable. For a number of years he was a member, and one of the most influential members, of the Syndicate.

Mr. Middlemast's attitude to Univer-

sity questions was marked by the same balanced judgment, the same clear insight into the desirable and the possible which characterised all his work. To say that he was no enthusiast would be, in a sense, to do him an injustice; but the enthusiasm was so unobtrusive, so perfectly under control, that only those intimately associated with him were aware of its presence. He stood consistently for efficiency, thoroughness, the maintenance of adequate standards and steady reform; and if these things have been in any degree attained in our University, Mr. Middlemast contributed as much as, perhaps more than any other to the result. For just because his advocacy was free from vehemence and all suspicion of one-sidedness, he conciliated opposition and gained acceptance the more readily for his views.

It cannot be said that Mr. Middlemast was a man of specially wide range of intellectual interests or of great variety of accomplishment, but he was in all ways the reverse of narrow. He readily allowed the importance of branches of study which were without attraction for himself, and for which he had no aptitude; and in the advance of such studies, whenever opportunity arose, his co-operation could always be counted on. And in this, it may be said, he showed himself possessed of no small portion of the true academic spirit. He was, however, drawn to many subjects outside his own special sphere. For example, although pure literature had slight attraction for him, he was keenly interested in

the scientific study of language. He devoted in recent years much attention to Phonetics, particularly in its application to the practical teaching of languages. Similarly he became a zealous spelling-reformer, and this was characteristic of the man. He was no faddist, and had small sympathy for fads; but the absence of all tangible system in current English orthography seemed to him negatively and positively harmful in education. He believed that thoroughgoing reform was not only desirable but possible, and none of the arguments urged against such reform appeared to him based on any sound reasoning. Whether he was right or wrong in these opinions time will show; but of his motives there can be no question. He stood, as always, for what seemed reason and commonsense; and he aimed at the removal of what he thought a wholly unnecessary and harmful educational burden laid upon the young.

This is not the place in which to enlarge on Mr. Middlemast's worth in the personal relations of life. We shall only say that in the circle of his more intimate friends he leaves a gap that will not be filled, and that within and without that circle, there are many who will recall numerous offices of sympathy, kindness and generosity, of which they were the recipients and which secure for him in their remembrance a lasting place of gratitude and mournful regard.

The most momentous educational and political event of the month has been the passing in the Imperial Legislative Council at its winter session at Simla of the Hindu University Bill. Momentous it is, for, for the first time in the history of modern India, the Government of India has undertaken to lend its financial support and, what is much more important, the incalculable moral influence which governmental control of a public institution affords, to a University whose aims are deliberately opposed to the policy of absolutely secular and modern public education which alone the Government has been imparting in India these fifty years and more. No doubt during all these years Government has been liberally aiding with its Grants-in-Aid Christian Missionary Colleges but these Christian Colleges have not shared in the prestige which a Government-controlled institution is bound to possess; and moreover these colleges though nominally denominational, have been *in fact*, more secular than the professedly secular institutions, for every one who has impartially investigated the facts knows that students of Missionary institutions have proved to be more rationalistic, *i.e.*, anti-religious, in their beliefs, than most other graduates of our Universities. Therefore the slight patronage in the form of Grants-in-Aid given by Government to Missionary Colleges has, in no sense, tended to decrease the secular nature of public education.

which the Government has since its Educational Department was organized, aimed at. But now for the first time, a University is going to be started under the auspices of Government, with its liberal financial support, and so thoroughly controlled by Government that its Hindu promoters feel that "the severity of the (Government) check might interfere with the success" of the institution; and the primary object of this University is the teaching of Hindu religion and the conservation and dissemination of ancient Hindu culture among Hindus.

To enable us to forecast the kind of culture that the Hindu University will try to help to spread and discuss the probable effects of this momentous step which the Government has taken in undertaking the duties of its sponsor, it will be worthwhile to glance at the history of the movement and the motives that have inspired it. During the centuries when Northern India was under Mughal sway, Persian was the language of the court and Persian culture dominated the public mind, so much so that some of the greatest Persian scholars and authors were Hindus and even to-day one can meet several Hindus in Northern India who can quote Persian as facilely as the Brahmin Pandit quotes Sanskrit slokas. But at the same time the fierce conservatism of the Brahmin in matters religious and the holiness of Benares in Hindu eyes tended to an intensification of ancient Hindu culture, a state of affairs which the establishment of the

Queen's College at Benares helped to strengthen still further. This clash of cultures in North-Western India accounts for much of the animosity that exists there between Moslem and Hindu and has led to difficult administrative problems, such as the question of the script to be accepted in Courts of Law—Urdu or Devanagari. The success of the Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh in which pupils are believed to be treated to a happy blend of modern Western culture and mediæval Moslem lore, worked on the patriotism of the Hindus of Oudh and they desired to have a college of their own where modern knowledge could be obtained in such a fashion as not to imperil ancient creeds and customs. At this time went to Benares one who had recently given an intellectual assent to Hinduism or at least what she believed to be such, one who had all the earnestness and enthusiasm of the new convert and the art of persuasion perfected on the platforms of atheism and socialism in England, we mean, Mrs. Annie Besant. She went to Benares as a student of the theosophical variety of Hinduism—a variety whose especial merit was to raise the self-respect of the Hindus which was in danger of extinction owing to the scoffs of the materialistic young men who, as we have said, are the especial product of Christian Missionary Colleges. Owing to the exertions of Mrs. Besant and some wealthy young patriots of Benares the Central Hindu College was started there some twenty years ago. In this college it was

attempted to train Hindu boys to Hindu religious ways of life—or to be more accurate, to lead a life of Brahmin orthodoxy as practised in Benares, to give them a smattering of the philosophical ideas of one Brahmin sect—the Advaita—and to turn them, at minimum cost to the students, into B.A.'s and M.A.'s of the Allahabad University, whose courses are about the lightest of the University courses in India. The college succeeded—in its last object, as well as most other colleges.

Meanwhile a powerful wave of patriotic emotion, due to causes which we need not here discuss, burst over the country and one of the manifestations of this outburst was the desire to enthrone Hindu, that is Brahmin, culture above that of the west, and the best method of this enthronement was felt to be the foundation of a Hindu University where Hindu learning, *i.e.*, the ideas contained in Sanskrit literature will be the primary object of teaching, and western knowledge will be made to revolve round the Brahmin cults as a satellite, and where Hindu ideals will be given a precedence over western ones. Now there is much that is excellent in Hindu ideals and much that will yet elevate western civilization to a higher plane than it has reached, but these Hindu ideals are almost inextricably bound up with an intolerable mass of verbiage and associated with a tangle of superstition and old world folklore; hence an institution which will help on the critical study of Hindu religious literature and lead to the

dissemination of the more elevating ideas imbedded there, cannot but contribute to the progress of the world as a whole and of India in particular. But it is very doubtful whether the promoters of the Hindu University scheme realized this view of the question when they set about enthusiastically to collect funds for the same and clamantly demanded Government help for the University in the form of funds and of Government recognition of the degrees of the proposed Hindu University as equal in money-value to those of the Government Universities. It was enough that the phrase Hindu University roused a patriotic warmth in Hindu hearts and loosened the purse-strings of Hindu Princes and the minimum funds required before the question could be brought within the region of practical politics were soon raised. The Government saw that this movement was harmless and possibly good in its way, for it was proper that the intellectual growth of the Hindu people should be allowed to grow out of its past culture and this was at best an interesting experiment worth being made side by side with its own fifty-year old effort to implant secular western culture on Indian soil. True, there are many Hindus who regard that a Hindu University, or for the matter of that, any denominational University, will be inimical to Indian progress, for, as it is, the people of India are broken up into innumerable sects, creeds and castes and any force that will accentuate differences will not make for true progress. They also see, only too

well, that in India the forces of superstition and obscurantism are only too dominant and any stimulation of their further growth, however excellent might be the motives behind such stimulation would prove a calamity to the country. But these doubting Thomases have not organized their opposition to the Hindu University scheme and the Government has, therefore, yielded to the demands of the promoters of the Hindu University and brought about the legislation necessary before the University could be born.

One thing we do not like about the way in which the Hindu University is being helped to be born is this—that the initial difficulties in the way of its birth have not been manfully faced and solved but have been deliberately burked. For instance, the question 'who is a Hindu,' has not been attempted to be solved. With regard to this question, Sir Harcourt Butler said, "There are many opinions to the effect that a definition of 'Hindu' is essential, but as no one yet has either been able to define a 'Hindu,' the Select Committee have not deemed it necessary to make the attempt. In practice there are Hindu institutions all over the country which settle the matter for themselves and this is one of those things that we can safely leave for the decision of the competent power in the University." We entirely disagree with this opinion. Seeing that the Imperial Legislative Council undertook to legislate for the birth of a Hindu University, it is clearly the duty of that Council to define in what sense it used

the word 'Hindu' in the Hindu University Bill, all the more because "no one yet has either been able to define it." True there are "Hindu institutions all over the country which settle the matter for themselves," e. g., immemorial custom has settled who are the Hindus entitled to enter temples and benefit by the ministrations there, Brahmin Gurus decide whom they take as pupils for Sanskrit religious and secular teaching, but these are not cases of public institutions, aided by Government grants-in-aid and established by an act of the Legislative Council. We anticipate that much trouble will ensue on account of this refusal on the part of the Council to face this question of the definition of the word 'Hindu.' We have heard that in recent years a Muhammadan student of a Government College elected to study for the M.A. in Sanskrit, but the Brahmin Sanskrit Pandit refused to teach him, as selections from the Vedas formed part of the course and as it was a sin, according to the beliefs of the Pandit for a Muhammadan to hear the Veda and for a Brahmin to recite it in the hearing of a Muhammadan, likely to cause the heads of both to burst into thousands of fragments. The Pandit was prepared to resign his place if compelled to act against his religious convictions and not all the influence and the arts of persuasion at the command of the Government Educational Department could induce the Pandit to do his duty as a Government servant and the student had to go without tuition. If this happened in a Gov-

ernment institution, what untold difficulties will arise in the working of the Hindu University when it comes to interpret the word 'Hindu' we leave it to our readers to imagine. We cannot, therefore, commend this ostrich-like policy adopted by the Legislative Council in this matter. Another important question which was similarly burked was that of the extent and nature of the Hindu religious instruction proposed to be imparted in the proposed Hindu University. This is a more serious question than the former. It is at least possible to vaguely define a Hindu, at least for purposes of legal administration, as one who is bound by the Hindu Law of Inheritance or as one who, born of parents claiming to be Hindu, himself claims to be one and is not a Christian, a Muhammadan, a Jew, etc., but what is, and more so, what is not, Hindu religion is a much more difficult problem to solve. And yet the promoters of a University started for the express purpose of imparting instruction in Hindu religion have found it impossible to commit themselves to any definition or description of the religion intended to be taught. And the Legislature, in the face of the same difficulty, has shifted the burden on those that are going to work the University. A certain child once said, "The Lord Almighty made me and then I grewed;" and we are tempted to say likewise, at the risk of being charged with irreverence, "the Legislature has made the University for teaching Hindu religion and the teaching will grow of its own

accord." In the Central Hindu College, Benares, which is the prototype of the Hindu University to be, instruction in Hindu religion was imparted with the help of a text-book of the ever-changing Sanatana Dharma which was but a hotch-potch of crude animism, pseudo-scientific slang, theosophical high-falutin and sundry Hindu doctrines. As the college was in the earlier days run by the Theosophists and as the High Priestess of Theosophy was believed by her devotees to be divinely inspired to be able to pass *ex cathedra* judgments on what was Hinduism and what was not, the book prepared under her auspices was accepted as an authorized text-book of Hinduism; and as the religious teaching was merely a bye-product, a parergon so to say, no one really minded what was taught under the name of Hinduism. If the Hindu University that is to be is to be similarly worked and if it is to be Hindu only as the Christian colleges are Christian, we need not mind the glorious uncertainty in which the question of Hindu religious teaching has been kept, for then the Hindu University will be really a secular University parading as a denominational one and as for secular Universities, the more the better for the country.

A similar confusion has been reached as the result of various compromises in the matter of the administration of the University. The Imperial Government, the Official Visitor, the Trustees, the Court, the Senate, the Syndicate, all these possess powers more or less vaguely

defined. It is difficult to see how such a complicated machine will at all work. Most of the members of the Legislative Council saw clearly that insurmountable difficulties might arise when this intricate piece of mechanism should begin to work. But as the various parties interested in the scheme insisted on the powers of some or other of these bodies as the minimum requirement for their own interests to be secured, and as it was felt that the question had best be disposed of by the Imperial Legislative Council as at present constituted, this unworkable system of control has been accepted, with the pious hope that the human kindness will devise ways out of difficulties and the institution will work. It will be a most interesting experiment how these various bodies will pull together.

The Hindu University Act has been received with great enthusiasm by the public at large and we yield to none in our appreciation of the enlightened sympathy of H. E. Lord Hardinge and the patriotic fervour of Indian princes and leaders of Hindu public thought that have brought this question to the stage of accomplished facts.

It is because we hail the measure as possessing within it the possibilities of untold benefits for the country that we have candidly pointed out the shoals ahead. We are sure that the wise leaders of the movement will so work it that the separatist tendencies of a denominational movement will be kept down as much as possible, (indeed this

has already been achieved to some extent, by the resolution to throw the University open to all students, irrespective of caste, creed, or nationality), and the University will become a centre whence Hindu culture as vivified by modern historical criticism and divested of the age-long superstitions which have gathered round it will spread its light throughout the modern world so that modern thought which has reached a deadlock on account of the growth of materialism in the West will be inspired by ancient Hindu idealism and a new Renaissance will rise, more potent and far-reaching than the one which was caused by the discovery of Greek culture by Europe consequent on the capture of Byzantium by the Turks.

The *Empire* has recently published a few special articles on the state of war that exists in the Calcutta University between the ins, *i.e.*, those that have steadily commanded a majority of votes in that learned body for their educational policy and the outs, *i.e.*, those who form a permanent opposition. The articles have been written for the purpose of bolstering up the outs, who, it is claimed, form a party the "nucleus" of which is European, only the "nucleus" in this case is more than nine-tenths of the whole party in size. The outs are described to be a "party which regards itself as standing for *European ideals* (the italics are ours) namely, discipline,

efficiency, and intensive education, as opposed to numbers combined with inefficiency." These phrases which we have heard *ad nauseam* in University debates mean that this party consisting of a nucleus (*i.e.* more than nine-tenths in number) of European Fellows believes that the salvation of India depends on rejecting 70 to 80 per cent. of the candidates for public examination as failures and that the clerkships which are the goal of so many of our students can be held properly only if their holders have undergone an intensified distillation. The ins are described as a party mainly of Indian gentlemen, often joined by a missionary, by a member of the Indian Educational Service and by some Europeans in the employ of the Syndicate. They are characterized by "a passion for extensive rather than intensive education and a desire to free higher education entirely from the management or control of Government or its officials." The ins have been in power in Calcutta for a number of years and "have been able to achieve a marvellous continuity of policy." It is this latter point that we wish to emphasize in these columns. Notwithstanding the hosts of crimes which the writer attributes to the Indian party in power in Calcutta, such as its getting "too sentimental in distributing gratis marks, and in forgiving indiscipline and dishonesty in students and too regardless of common sense and of proportion in its organization and extension of higher education," (such silly reviling only shows how thoroughly the party with the European

nucleus has been beaten in the Calcutta Senate), the writer admits that the ins have been maintaining a continuity of policy in the matter of the extension of higher education. Now let us compare Madras with Calcutta. Here the Indian party has never had any influence worth mentioning. It has only two representatives in a Syndicate of twelve members. The European party, which is animated by the "European ideal" (as the writer phrases it) of efficiency, of a frightfully low percentage of passes (only we cannot understand why this is called a European ideal, for in Europe the policy of keeping down passes will not be tolerated for a day) is all in all in the Madras Senate; and the history of the Madras Senate since its reconstitution under Lord Curzon's Act shows that discontinuity of policy has been the characteristic of the activities of the ins in the Madras University, notwithstanding the ins of Madras are working out the European ideal of intensification of education, which we suppose means, the circumscribing of the numbers which the education reaches. Thus in Madras, after reconstruction ten years ago, the renovated Matriculation examination lived just for one year; then for a few years, Principals were trusted to do their Matriculation and now the Syndicate proposes to do this work for colleges, basing its choice on the results of an examination over which the Syndicate has absolutely no control. Thus far with regard to continuity of policy in the matter of Matriculation. In the case of the Intermediate examination,

the English courses were revised twice, and the vernacular ones half-a-dozen times in the course of half-a-dozen years. Similar annual variations of policy can be traced in the case of other examinations. The only point of policy with regard to which the Madras Senate with its "European ideal" (as defined by the writer in the *Empire*) has observed continuity is the keeping down of the number of passes, as a means to the intensification (or is it intension?) of education and the increase of national efficiency.

Notwithstanding the wail against the Undergraduate Hostels in Calcutta. (so-called disproportionate) "extension" of higher education in Calcutta criticized above the Government of Bengal have thought fit not to co-operate with the "European ideal" but to encourage further extension by the grant of ten lakhs for the purpose of building undergraduate hostels in Calcutta. There are to be opened 5 hostels, one to be attached to each of the Bangabasi, St. Xavier's, Metropolitan, Ripon and City Colleges, besides a sixth, which is to be a Muhammadan Central Hostel for Muhammadan students of all colleges. It is also under contemplation to build a students' infirmary, in addition to a sick room to be attached to each hostel. The plans have been prepared by Mr. Crouch, Government Architect, in consultation with Dr. Deva Prosād Sarbadhicari who recently visited Simla in connection with the scheme and the Principals of the colleges concerned. The scheme has now been finally sanctioned and arrange-

ments are being made to make over the money to the University for giving effect to the scheme. The Calcutta University has been lucky in having two Indian gentlemen of light, leading and patriotism, successively as Vice-Chancellor to which is attributable its steady progress. What a contrast to Madras, where the public has cried itself hoarse over the undue severity of examination results and neither the Government nor the Syndicate has cared even to note the existence of the tremendous volume of opinion condemnatory of its policy!

Four memberships of the Madras Senate have fallen vacant, two to be filled up by the Faculty of Arts and two by the registered graduates. We are sure that the two seats to be voted for by members of the Faculty of Arts will go to the two educationists that are candidates for them, one of them being Prof. P. V. Seshu Aiyer, whose distinguished educational career will commend itself to the members of that body, for the bulk of the members of the Faculty of Arts are educationists and we expect that they will have enough professional *esprit de corps* to support men of their profession. The same is not, unfortunately, the case with the complex body of the registered graduates. Many of them are not educationists; for, it is generally the poor graduate that turns school-master. When he becomes qualified to become an elector, he is too poor to pay the annual registration fee;

and when he gets just a little over a living wage, the accumulated penal fees for not registering himself in proper season, become so heavy that he cannot afford to pay them. The gradual result of this has been that the Fellowships to be voted for by the registered graduates have passed away from the hands of educationists. Not only this; all the arts used for election to Municipal and Legislative Councils have begun to be used in elections to the Senate and men get in not because they have a first-hand acquaintance with educational problems but because they can handle the electoral machine with consummate skill. In this art it goes without saying that the lawyers beat the teachers hollow. We have nothing but admiration for the masterly way in which the lawyers have organized political activity in modern India and won remarkable successes in recent years; in this field we humbly and loyally follow the lead of the lawyers; but in matters educational we are of opinion the lawyers and others ought to leave the field clear to us teachers who, by virtue of our profession, understand our wants better than outsiders. But, latterly the intrusion of our lawyer friends in the matter of election to the Senate has become so pronounced that, this year, only *one* educationist has so far had even the courage to stand as a candidate for election by registered graduates; and even he has stood, because he has been for five years a Senator and during that period has taken more than his share of the burden of the work of

University legislation. We wish more educationists will offer themselves and Vakils, Provincial Civil Service men and others will stand by and let educationists find their way to the Senate. In this connection, we desire to point out that the Second-grade Colleges are not at all well represented in the Senate. They are nearly thirty in number and have at present only 5 representatives in a Senate of nearly 100 members, and of the five, four are Government nominees. It is but right that the registered graduates should elect a few more Principals of Second-grade Colleges to the Senate, which may perhaps lead to an improvement of the results of the Intermediate examination and less desire of "intensification" at the Intermediate stage.

H. E. Lord Willingdon delivered on 17th August 1915, his first Convocation Address* to the Bombay University. Speaking in the middle

of the fiercest war of human history, he naturally referred to the unfortunate clash of ideals that lies behind this war, ideals which have dominated among other things the educational policy of the nations engaged in the bloody conflict. That portion of the educational ideal which concerns itself with the making of good citizens, H. E. Lord Willingdon describes in the following words:—"An education which aims at making a man an efficient but subservient tool of an arbitrary authority is not a civic educa-

* For want of space in this issue, the Address has been reserved for publication in full in the next issue.

tion; it is merely an instrument of despotism. The training which makes a man expert in some art or craft is not education at all; it is merely instruction or a sort of apprenticeship. There is no education worthy of the name which does not aim at fitting a man to perform all the duties and obligations of a man and a citizen, at developing his best faculties for his own advantage and that of others, and at enabling him to enjoy, according to his capacity, the resources that nature and society place within his reach." This we have always understood to be the real "European ideal" and not the improvement of culture by keeping down the number of passes to a fearfully low level which is the "European ideal" of so many Calcutta and Madras Fellows. With regard to the advocacy of the "intensification" of education by restricting its "extension," so frequently advocated by European Fellows in Madras and Calcutta, H.E. Lord Willingdon says, "Education should be a comprehensive activity in the State. By this I mean that it is insufficient that *even the highest educational ideals should be attained by a small and select group.* (The italics are ours.) Culture which is enjoyed by the few at the direct expense of the many, of the elementary decencies of life is the worst form of capitalism." We commend these words to those that advocate that out of the ten thousand boys that attend the sixth forms of the Madras Presidency only 1000 ought to find their way to

colleges and of these only 200 ought to be allowed to go to the B.A. class and only about 100 ought to be allowed to graduate, otherwise educational efficiency is in peril. Governors come and go and their words are forgotten but it is men of the stamp of the writer in the *Empire* with his illuminating exposition of the "European ideal" that stay and conduct educational work in India. It's true, 'tis pity; 'tis pity, it's true.

This brilliant lawyer, presiding over the deliberations of the North Arcot District Conference at Vellore, delivered a striking presidential address.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar at the North Arcot Provincial Conference.

Among other subjects, he spoke on Education, in which Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar takes an intelligent interest and the current problems connected with which he never misses to discuss both in the University Senate and outside it. In the present address Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar refers to two burning educational questions in Southern India, that of the rules for Matriculation at the Madras University and of the reconstitution of the Senate on a wide electoral basis. With regard to the former question just now there is a babel of conflicting opinions among the Indian public, a babel which Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar describes in some detail. Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar expresses a pious hope that "the united wisdom of the Senate and the Educational Department" will ere long reach "a correct solution" of the question. We intend

to discuss next month how this "united wisdom" has been working in the past and how it is likely to work in the future. Meanwhile we note that Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar desires two cardinal principles to be kept in view in solving this problem. The first is that "admissions to the colleges must be controlled by the University." We do not understand what this means. The University has always "controlled" admissions to the colleges. A few years ago Sir Alfred Bourne initiated the policy of entrusting Principals of Colleges with the discretion of deciding, under the control of the University and in accordance with the rules passed by the Syndicate, who was fit to benefit by University courses of studies and who was not, and the moment Sir Alfred Bourne left India, this discretion was withdrawn. Admission into colleges is now entirely controlled by the Syndicate, which body Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar will not allow to be the University, any more than Principals of Colleges. Possibly Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar means by the "control of the University," rules made by the Senate for holding a Matriculation examination, but such rules and such an examination now exist—at least in name. It is difficult, therefore, to see what exactly Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar wants. The second principle that he wants adopted is the very sound one that moderation intended "to supplement and soften the harshness of an examination test" should not be allowed to work in the opposite direction and worked so as to

make a passed candidate fail. Such an inversion of ideas as to make moderation mean the opposite of what the word means deserves to be condemned in no measured terms and we are glad that Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar has given prominence to this aspect of the question. The next problem that Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar has taken up for discussion is the democratization of the Senate by making it primarily an elected body. We heartily endorse this idea. The Senate, throughout India, is a thoroughly officialized body and derives its breath of life from the Government. This is an unhealthy state of things. As things go, if the Senate be abolished and University education be administered by the Director of Public Instruction or the Educational Secretariat, things educational will go on just as they are going now; hence the machinery of the Syndicate and the Senate is at present but an elaborate make-believe. While sympathizing with Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar so far, we cannot admire the constitution of the electorate which Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar proposes. He wants Municipalities, District Boards, Zemindars, etc.—bodies or persons innocent of any knowledge of educational affairs—to elect Fellows, but does not even care to mention the Second-grade colleges, which form such a large part of the University and are now treated as helots, as a possible electoral body. The electors to the Senate ought to be people who have received high education and are engaged in the imparting of it. Otherwise the elected Senate will be

more injurious to the cause of educational progress than an officialized one.

A very long list of subjects was disposed of at the October meeting of the Madras Senate. The Agenda paper being long, the Vice-Chancellor had to frequently invite the members to speak less and vote more than talk, so that he could get through the business; hence this meeting proved unique in that the usual Senatorial oratory was not much in evidence. An important question disposed of by the Senate was that of the increase of salary of the Registrar. We heartily approve of what the Senate has done, because the present occupant of the Registrar's place richly deserves this mark of the Senate's appreciation of his services, but we wish it is personal. He has worked hard, organized on satisfactory lines the complicated work of his office and has been noted for his consideration for the various people he deals with and strict impartiality in the discharge of his duties. But we certainly disapprove of the Senate delegating an important power as this to the managing body namely the Syndicate. The institution of two annual Law examinations to work off those that studied law under the old regulations is one of the rare concessions to public opinion which even the Madras Senate sometimes makes. But the most important resolutions passed by the Senate deal with the tinkering with the rules for Matriculation and the

Intermediate examinations, but we have no space to deal with them now, and we propose to deal in detail with these questions next month.

We reprint elsewhere an extract from the "Times" headed 'The Educational Outlook.' Though it deals

with the present emergency in England, owing to the war, in matters educational, it still contains reflections which we would fain recommend to the attention of the authorities of our University here. We would particularly invite attention to the remarks in the first paragraph in regard to the relation that ought to subsist between the University and lower grades of education. We have often pointed out the want of co-ordination between the various grades of the educational system as it prevails here, and the late S. S. L. C. muddle is but a supreme example of what want of co-ordination might well lead to.

We would invite particular attention to the remarks of Mark Pattison quoted in the article in regard to the cheapening of University education. We do this as we have often noticed in the discussions in the Senate of Madras University remarks made by a certain class of Fellows concerning this very question, which not only exhibit an utter want of sympathy but even argue callous indifference to the progress of University education as a whole. If the remarks of Pattison were applicable to England about 50 years ago, their appropriateness to India at the present time does not require elaborate explanation.

THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK.

The social history of England shows conclusively that the general efficiency of national education in all ages, since the thirteenth century has been directly dependent on, and has consistently varied with, the efficiency of the Universities. The decay of University life, whether in the fifteenth century or the eighteenth century, was rapidly followed by the decay of elementary and intermediate education. The revival of University life in the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries was in each case followed by a general revival in national education. This was one of the most notable features of the mid-Elizabethan as it was of the mid-Victorian age. The fact is one of singular importance at the present time, when the English Universities without exception are passing through a period of trial not incomparable with the trials that robbed the Universities of their undergraduates in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and again in the eighteenth century. The Black Death and religious persecution were scarcely more effective in this respect than the great war now in progress. Lecture-rooms at Cambridge that could boast of eighty or ninety students are now glad to welcome three or four. The same fact is noticeable at Oxford, in London, and in the provincial Universities. Scarcely more than the shell of the old University life remains, though, with a wisdom that is beyond all praise, the normal forms of instruction and of University life are maintained. There is no abatement in the provision of lectures, and the attenuated class lists appear in due season. The University authorities without exception are alive to the vital importance of being ready for new activities at the end of

the war, and in the meantime with the help of special financial legislation they are marking time.

The outlook, however, is sufficiently gloomy since numbers of youths who in the ordinary course on leaving school would pass into University life are now passing direct into the Army. The University Officers' Training Corps are making it possible for a considerable number of men to matriculate and take up scholarships and combine one year of University life with military training, and this particular movement deserves stimulation and encouragement. The possibility of making the first year after the end of school life pay a double debt, a debt to the Army and a debt to the University is perhaps not sufficiently recognized by the public schools and the great endowed secondary schools. The headmasters should strain every nerve to send boys up to the Universities with this end in view at the present time and the Universities should offer special facilities and should circularize the endowed schools on the subject. We think that much more can be done by the Universities in this way than has as yet been done. It is of course well-known that for centuries it was the practice to send quite young boys to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, where they completed their intermediate training before entering for the normal University course. We cannot return to that position, but something analogous can be done. Special provision can be made for the entrance of students at the age of seventeen, and this reduction of age would at once tap new sources of supply, would stimulate the secondary schools in every possible direction, and indirectly give new hope and vigour to elementary education. The question of cost, especially at Oxford and Cambridge, of course

arises. University training has been very expensive in the past, and it is not cheap to-day, though in fact it can be secured at Cambridge at a much lower cost than is generally suspected. A measurable percentage of the undergraduates come through from the elementary schools, and secure practically all the advantages of University life, social as well as educational, on a sum that would have seemed impossible fifty years ago. But the University authorities at Oxford and Cambridge have never deliberately faced this question of cost in modern times. Mark Pattison in 1866 published some suggestions "towards a scheme for making Oxford a University fully adequate to the wants of the nation." In these notes he says:—"The expensiveness must be attacked in its causes. Instead of subsidizing the poor student up to the level of our expenses, we ought to bring down the expenses to the level of the poor. It is idle to say we cannot. We have never tried." Now is the time to try, and the trial could begin with these younger students to whom we refer. There is the accommodation, there is a teaching staff of the very finest calibre, there are the students. The problem is so to organize the finances of the University that these boys of seventeen, none of whom have been brought up with expensive tastes, and all of whom are accustomed to the simplest form of living, can be given a University course that would be complete at an age when a technical pedagogic, professional, literary, or Civil Service career can be taken up without loss of precious time to classes that cannot afford to wait for financial returns. University life, even in the case of the new Universities, begins too late for a work-a-day world. The opportunity afforded by the war, which is eating up our youth over

the age of nineteen, to give University training to those who are below military age, but who have left school, should be seized with avidity. The educational outlook would instantly brighten, since under the new condition the University atmosphere and ideals of strenuous culture would flow right through the educational system.

If the outlook for the Universities has certain possibilities of great hopefulness, it is not unreasonable to hope for new stimulation in the schools. It cannot be too strongly or too often urged that now, so far as educational progress is concerned, is the appointed hour. By all means let us have economy. Waste has never meant progress, and the waste of money and time involved in our present system is apparent not only to the specialist but to the most superficial observer. The schools are now getting to work again. The elementary schools re-opened some weeks ago, the secondary schools will all be at work once more in a week or two. What is the prospect that lies before them in the coming year? We are promised by the various educational authorities that waste of all kinds shall be eliminated. It will be interesting to see if this goal will be secured. One form of waste, we know, will not be abolished—the over-lapping of the elementary and secondary schools. Apart altogether from money the waste of power in these over-lapping is incalculably vast. Our training in the elementary schools of the children up to the age of eleven is entirely admirable, and one may doubt if it is surpassed anywhere in Europe or America. Not only, despite large classes, is there close personal supervision and careful training of character, as well as mind and body, but increasingly successful efforts are made to bring the

school into touch with the home and to make it react on the moral and social outlook of the home. This admirable work is principally the work of women, who bring to their labours not only skill and enthusiasm, but affection. This work will not be affected by the war. It will go on, and will be reinforced by the lessons of the war, lessons in heroism and growth of character.

If we could limit the elementary schools to this work and make them all preparatory schools from which the children, without exception, would move forward for a minimum period of four years to intermediate schools, all would be well, and we should also relieve the present secondary or intermediate schools of the children under eleven years. But this is not the case. The secondary schools are seriously hampered in their work by the presence of numbers of children between the ages of eight and eleven, while the elementary schools undertake the intermediate training of the vast bulk of the children that have passed through the preparatory stages until the age of fourteen is reached. It is in the training of children between the ages of eleven and fourteen that the elementary schools so largely fail. It is not the fault of the schools or the teachers. The teachers have never been trained to give intermediate or secondary training, and the result is that to the children between the ages in question there is given what Sir Joshua Fitch called a "cul de sac" education, something that leads no whither. The whole problem is a problem of teaching, and the authorities, by the slow creation of what are called central schools, are striving to solve it. But a slight increase of the number of schools of the endowed secondary school type will never solve the problem. Hundreds of

thousands of children will still annually leave the schools with no outfit for life. We must have intermediate schools for all, provided with teachers specially trained for intermediate or secondary school teaching. How, then, will the war affect the position? Great numbers of male teachers have enlisted, and at first sight it would seem as if the case is more desperate than ever. But this is not necessarily true. Women are particularly good for intermediate teaching, provided that the boys are not too old. Boys up to the age of fourteen are well within their powers, and the multiplication of women teachers for this work is not a difficult task. The entire middle class are at present, possibly by reason of the short-sighted policy of the National Union of Teachers, shut out from elementary teaching. Women with University training are almost restricted to secondary schools for girls. But the present scarcity of teachers will have to be recruited from this class, and the result will not be one to be deprecated. It will do much to bind various sections of society together and complete that union of social classes that fellowship in the trenches has done so much to secure. More and more women teachers are wanted, and the point to bear in mind is that those who are employed for the higher standards of the elementary schools must have a secondary training. If this policy is followed we shall unconsciously convert the higher standards of the elementary schools into intermediate schools, and thus solve what has long seemed an insoluble problem.—*The Times*.

HINDU UNIVERSITY BILL— PASSED.

SIR HARCOURT BUTLER ON THE SELECT
COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

My Lord, I beg to move that the report of the Select Committee be taken into consideration. I stated when this measure was last before this Council that if it became controversial it would have to be withdrawn. There are three notes in the nature of dissent to the report of the Select Committee, and, we have had anxiously to consider whether those notes by themselves necessitate the withdrawal of the Bill. The conclusion is that at this stage they do not. The Hon'ble Mr. Surendranath Banerjee's note is not a dissent as he merely states the reasons why he dislikes some of the provisions of the Bill, but supports it as a whole. The other two notes appear to deal with a matter which is verbal rather than substantial as I shall endeavour to show to the Council very shortly. It really depends on the course of the debate to-day whether the Bill is withdrawn or not. I must leave it to the Council to decide this issue. I myself should greatly regret it, if my last official act in this Council were to withdraw a Bill designed for the benefit of the Hindu community owing to fatal dissensions amongst the Hindus themselves. But the position of the Government must not be misunderstood for an instant. The Bill cannot pass into law if it is a controversial measure. It has been introduced in this session in deference to the wish of the promoters. If the Council desire to sink their differences on points of detail and pass the measure into law it is open to them to do so. But if the discussion becomes really controversial, I shall have to seek a division in order to ascertain whether there is a

practical unanimity of feeling in favour of the Bill or not. Though they are anxious to help the promoters of the movement as far as is consistent with their general attitude in matters of this kind, the Government have no intention whatever of forcing any really controversial measure on the Council during the Simla session and at such a time.

Now my Lord, I turn to the criticisms that have been made and the changes that have been introduced in the Select Committee. First, I will offer a few remarks on what I may call the personal appearance of the Bill. It is not at all the sort of Bill that the Legislative Department is in the habit of producing. The Bill has in fact a mixed parentage. As you are aware this movement started and the Bill was drawn up without reference to the Government. As I pointed out in one of my letters it would have been preferable, had the promoters not consolidated their intentions in the form of a draft enactment, and our discussions would have been simpler all through if they had been conducted on the basis of a statement of decisions rather than on the basis of a draft Bill. The promoters attached importance to their draft Bill, and so the Education and Legislative Departments endeavoured to maintain as much of it as possible. That we have come to a result as satisfactory as it is, is due entirely to the devoted labours of Mr. Sharp, Dr. Sundar Lal and of Mr. Muddiman, who have spared no time or effort to secure in legal phrase the objects of the promoters. There are many opinions to the effect that a definition of "Hindu" is essential but as no one yet has ever been able to define a Hindu, the Select Committee have not deemed it necessary to make the attempt. In practice there are Hindu institutions all over the country which settle the matter for themselves, and

this is one of those things that we can safely leave for the decision of the competent power in the University. Another matter of common criticism is the number of functionaries and the danger that their functions will overlap. A great many of us sympathise with this criticism, but the promoters attach great importance to it and the Government has met their wishes only insisting that the real academic work of the University should be in the hands of an academic body, namely, the Senate. As regards Clause 4 (2) of the Bill, I have already stated that the change made in the Select Committee which leaves it to the Court to declare that religious instruction should be compulsory is verbal rather than substantial. The Hon'ble the Maharaja of Cossimbazar seems to suggest some inconsistency on my part in agreeing to the change in the Select Committee, because I previously stated that the University would insist on compulsory religious instruction for the Hindus. That I understand it has been the basis of the movement from the beginning. In my words I merely gave expression to that understanding. I can see no inconsistency whatever. The University can arrange for compulsory religious instruction without any legislative authority whatever. Indeed, Clause 4 (2) is quite superfluous. Compulsory religious instruction is insisted on in various Christian, Hindu and Muhammadan institutions. At the present time without specific provisions to that end the University could secure it by the mere fact of religious admission. Clause 4 (2) originally drafted was merely a pious expression. No sanction attached to it. There was no penalty to its non-observance. No Government would ever enforce it against the wishes of the Court. It would have remained a dead letter until the Court took action of its own

initiative to prescribe courses of religious instruction. The Court is entirely a Hindu body in the formation of which the Government has had and will have no voice whatever. If there is a danger of debate and discussion on the question under the present clause of the Bill, there would obviously have been danger of the same debate and discussion when the Court met to consider the regulations or statutes that would have to be passed in order to put the original provisions of the Bill into force. Any dissent from the present form of Clause 4 means simply distrust of the Hindu Court. If the Hindus cannot trust their own Court to deal with this question it is certainly not a question which this Council should decide for them. The present form of the Clause is, I believe one that is acceptable to the great majority of the Council. It is assumed that if this Bill is passed into law the Court will proceed to make a statute regarding compulsory religious instruction. The matter is left entirely to this wholly Hindu body. There is, no doubt, some opposition to the form of Government control. This is a matter on which the Government cannot possibly yield. The provisions in the Bill represent the result of long discussions between the promoters and the Government of India and the Secretary of State. As regards the argument that there are two powers of control, I can only say that this is a very common form of administration in India. You have it recurring all through the Indian administration. I cannot admit that there is an overlapping, or that there is any risk of friction in practice. The powers are emergency powers, and we all hope that they will never have to be exercised. Should their exercise ever become necessary, the Hon'ble members know perfectly well that there is no risk that the Visitor's action will infringe the

powers of the Government of India. The Visitor must have powers to support his position, and I certainly cannot agree to the insertion of a right to appeal against his orders. This would be entirely derogatory to the position of the Visitor of the University. May I say, I deem it a good omen to the University that they should have in their first Visitor my old friend Sir James Meston, one of the ablest and most sympathetic officials that India has ever had and one who has specially devoted himself to assist the cause of education throughout the time when the Education Department was making large demands upon the Exchequer. They had the most helpful support and direct encouragement from Sir James Meston. The University could not start under more favourable auspices.

In connection with the question of control I stated in the Select Committee that I would mention in my speech why it was not provided in Section 19 that if the removal of any member of the teaching staff is desirable in the interests of the University the explanation of such a member should be called for before the question of his removal was decided upon. I think we may assume that such action would invariably be taken as it is in accordance with the practice of Government established for some generations. But it would altogether undermine the policy of the Government in regard to the University if it dictated terms in regard to the relations between the University and its professors.

At an early stage of these proceedings it was decided that the University should have complete freedom in regard to the appointment, punishment and dismissal of its servants. Any direction to the University in this matter would be derogatory to the University. But I think you may take it as certain that if this

Clause ever has to be enacted which, I myself hope will not be, the Governor-General in Council will see that the procedure, which it insists upon in regard to its own servants, will be carried out so far as possible. In regard to the servants of the University the change in Clause 15 of the Bill is formal. In order to secure the continuance of affiliation to the Allahabad University of the Central Hindu College until such time as the University comes into being, I do not think that at this stage I need make any further observations. The fate of the Bill now lies in the lap of the Council.

DR. SUNDER LAL.

Dr. Sunder Lal in supporting the Bill said that the public are thankful to the Government for their kind support of the Bill and requested the Council to pass the Bill unanimously. He thanked the Member in charge for his labour in the Bill. It was the first residential University of its kind in India. It was generously supported by the Hindu public,—a feature which was impossible in India some years back. He hoped that the young men, to be turned out by the new University, should prove themselves equal to their compeers of other Universities. He repeated his thanks to the Government and Mr. Sharp for the part played by them.

SIR GANGADHAR CHITNAVIS' SPEECH.

My Lord, I support the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler's motion. I am fully aware of the various objections to the Bill. It would be incorrect to say I regard it free from defects. But this is a world of compromisers and as we get on this principle of give and take, personal predilections have sanctions to be put aside. It is evident that the proposed University can secure official recognition and official support only on conditions embodied

in the Bill. That being so, it is obviously prudent to accept these conditions for the present and to leave it to the future to modify them in the light of subsequent developments. If the University authorities by wise and efficient management can satisfy the Government that certain modifications of the legislative provisions are necessary for progress I am sure there will not be any unreasonable opposition to their demand. Every institution has to pass through a period of probation and it must be obvious to all sensible men that the powers exercisable by the authorities during that period must be more or less restricted. We have it from the promoters themselves that the new University will have fairly large powers. Indeed my friend the Hon. Dr. Sunder Lal in his speech in March last characterised the constitution as even more liberal than that of the existing Universities in certain respects and he is an authority on these matters. We should not therefore fret at the large powers of supervision and control which the Government assumes under the Bill. The Benares University will be an experiment. Until it proves a success it must put up with some sort of official check. It may of course be contended that the severity of the check might interfere with the success. But the apprehension of undue interference on the part of Government with the independence and free development of the institution are exaggerated. Government has large powers of interference with the actions of the State Universities but in how many cases can it be justly said that they have exercised them with undue severity. Experience shows that Government realise more upon the moral effect of these stringent legislative provisions than upon their actual enforcement for the attainment in view.

The chief defects however of the Bill in my humble opinion is that the constitution of the University will be extraordinarily complicated. It would surely have been better to have a simpler agency for management. But this is a matter in regard to which I hesitate to press my personal opinion for the simple reason that it is the result of a compromise between the Hindu University Society and Government. The fact that the Hindu University is to be mainly financed by a large number of private gentlemen of wealth and position has evidently forced the hands of the authorities. But I have yet hope that improvements even in the constitution will be made if experience reveals any serious difficulty in working.

Sir Gangadhar Chitnavis in the concluding part of his speech referred to the retiring members of the Council, *viz.*, Sir Syed Ali Imam, Sir Harcourt Butler and Sir William Vincent and conveyed the thanks and appreciation of the Council to them, which was declared by His Excellency the President as out of order.

MAHARAJA OF COSSIMBAZAR.

Your Excellency: I beg leave to add my feeble voice to the universal chorus of approval with which the passage of the Benares Hindu University Bill has been greeted not only in this Council but also in the wider world outside. Your Excellency's Government has been singularly successful in manifold ways; it has indeed marked a new era in the history of British rule in India by the number of beneficent measures carried out to base that rule more and more upon the spontaneous allegiance of a loyal people. To name but a few of them, the expansion of the Legislative Councils, the declaration of provincial autonomy as the goal of Indian administrative

policy, the creation of Executive Councils, the vindication of India's status in connection with the complicated South African question, the annulment of the Partition of Bengal, any one of these measures is sufficient to make a Viceroyalty famous and worthy of the nation's gratitude but their combination in a single administration must mark out for it a singular and distinguished place in the annals of the country. But, my Lord, hardly less beneficent and far-reaching in its consequences than the abovementioned measures is the Bill that is being placed on the statute-book to-day. For I may be permitted to point out at the outset that the Benares Hindu University Act should not be regarded as a mere example of "class legislation" appealing only to a section of the people and benefiting only a province. The direct effects of the measure will no doubt concern a particular community but its indirect effects will operate over a much larger sphere of interests. The Act, my Lord, is not without its imperial aspect, an all-Indian interest. For the first time in the history of British rule in India is the sanction of Government given to the establishment of a private, non-official University in the land; for the first time is private enterprise in the field of Indian education, which hitherto confined itself to the humbler sphere of founding individual schools and colleges, being exalted into a higher and wider sphere and finding its proper scope and fulfilment. It is, indeed, a red-letter day in the annals of private educational activity in India when it results in the establishment of Universities and not mere schools and colleges. It is difficult in my view to overestimate the beneficent effects of this measure. It is not merely an education measure; it is also a political measure. It expands the field of Indian education; it also extends our rights

and liberties. For it means that Government is giving up its monopoly in the matter of the organisation of higher education in the country: that it makes a generous concession to a particular popular demand, the strongly-felt wishes of an entire community; that it trusts the people with a measure of self-government in a particular sphere in which they are specially fitted. For, my Lord, if there is any sphere in which our people have qualified themselves most for self-government, it is I venture to think, the educational sphere.

Bill—A Measure of Self-Government.

This brings me to the provisions of the Bill so as to demonstrate what measure of self-government it implies. In the first place the supreme governing authority vests in a Court, a purely and exclusively Hindu body; and in the second place the University is given the power to elect its own Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and pro-Vice-Chancellor in the first instance. These are features which distinguish the new University from the older ones and imply a substantial instalment of educational self-government to start with. There are of course, reserved to Government certain extra or emergency powers but Hon'ble members will easily perceive that those powers will be exercised by Government not as an organic part of the University but as an external superintending agency whose duty it is to keep the University in its proper orbit as laid down in the Bill. The University is thus left as a self-contained independent organism with liberty to regulate its own life. With regard to the amount of control which Government reserves to itself it should be borne in mind that Government has offered us some compensation in return by its undertaking to recognise and guarantee the degrees to be instituted by the University. We hope

that in the near future by our satisfactory conduct of the University we shall deserve the withdrawal of the control now being reserved to Government, but for the time being we should content ourselves with the thought that it is the necessary price we have to pay for the advantage of permanently securing a large customer like the Government for our University products.

Co-operation with Hindus.

My Lord, the passing of this Bill means further that Government is ready to co-operate with the Hindus for the purpose of preserving and promoting their special culture which fills such an important place in the culture-history of humanity. The conservation and promotion of Hindu learning and culture is necessary not merely in the interests of the Hindus but also in the interests of humanity itself. Human culture would indeed be poorer without the special elements contributed by Hindu culture. Unfortunately Hindu culture has long ceased to be a living flowing stream; it is 'a fen of stagnant waters.' Boasting of the longest life and history, it has had its proper growth arrested, its further development nearly checked. The British Government, therefore as the custodian of all the cultures of the land is thus discharging one of its most sacred duties as a civilised Government, in co-operating with the Hindu community in a common purpose and mission of reviving the old Hindu culture; in the inauguration of systematic organised efforts for the promotion of an old learning whose priceless treasures would otherwise have been lost to the world. All this we owe to Your Excellency's initiative prompted by the soundest statesmanship, to Your Excellency's generous recognition in common with the Hindu community that Hindu thought has filled a distinct place in

the history of human thought; that it has yet a part to pay in the evolution of human thought; that Hindu learning and culture must assert their rightful place in the world's culture-history. These are indeed the common aims of both the Government and the Hindu public whose union is thus being placed on a solid and permanent foundation by the establishment of the Hindu University.

The Hindu University Bill is therefore an unique measure of its kind and will add a most glorious page to the brilliant history of Your Lordship's administration, while Your Lordship, and, in association with Your Lordship in this beneficent measure, my Hon'ble friend Sir Harcourt Butler, but for whose generous sympathies and ungrudging labours the Bill would not have been passed to-day. I say, both Your Lordship and Sir Harcourt Butler will ever be enshrined in the grateful heart of India as among the greatest benefactors of the Hindu race.

PANDIT MADAN MOHAN MALAVIYA.

In supporting the Bill he expressed the thanks of the Hindu public to His Excellency, Sir Harcourt Butler and the members of the Council for their kind support of the Bill. He believed the Bill was the policy of trust and confidence in the people. He referred to the history of the movement which is associated with the work of the Mahomedans who really made more progress with their scheme under the leadership of H. H. the Aga Khan.

Referring to the provision of the Bill, he said that they should look first to the good elements of the Bill which were all due to Government's praiseworthy attitude. The first point in that connection was the connection of the Viceroy with the University which was now acceptable to the community instead of the former proposal that the L.-G. of U. P.

should be the Chancellor of the University. The powers reserved by the Government are only emergency powers which leave the University free in its internal administration. The right of explanation from the University conceded by Government was an important concession. The assurance on the subject of Sir Harcourt Butler was very important in removing misgivings. He said that in future if amendments are proposed on behalf of the Hindus in the Bill, Government would consider the spirit in which they will be made—the spirit of co-operation for the best aims. He was glad that Lord Curzon's idea of a residential University was now being realised in India for the first time.

MR. DADABHOY.

My Lord on this Council I represent mainly a Hindu constituency, and as far as I have been able to ascertain the feelings of my constituents, they hail with delight the establishment of a University leavened largely with Hindu thought and Hindu sentiment. It is wrong to suppose that the details of the Charter proposed to be granted are widely known to the Hindu public. The general approval of the Bill, I take it, is founded upon the belief that a denominational University will conduce to the best interests of Hindu Society. Time alone can show if the expectations of the Hindu public will be realised or not. In view, however, of the existing strong sentiment in the matter, Government has taken the wisest course open in pushing the Bill through.

My Lord, we cannot ignore the fact that this idea of a denominational University was discouraged by the Indian Universities Commission of 1902. That Commission had no objection to the establishment of

denominational colleges, but were decidedly of opinion that in the present circumstances of India... it is important to maintain the undenominational character of the Universities." But this need not interpose any difficulty in our way. The Commission necessarily had in view Universities established by the State, and could not anticipate that the different communities would, so soon after the publication of their Report, demand character for special Universities suited to their respective needs, the funds for which they undertook to find themselves. The position to-day is far in advance of that present in 1902. The situation is entirely novel, the supervention of unforeseen circumstances has made a reconsideration of the current educational policy imperatively necessary. Government deserve the fullest credit for a sympathetic and statesman-like handling of the new situation. The Hindu University Bill marks a departure in Government policy full of important possibilities. Whether the result will be wholesome to the Indian community as a whole or not, is a debatable question no doubt; but on a review of all the circumstances, ample justification would be found for Government action. It will now be for all of us to watch developments with interest.

My Lord, when welcoming the Bill in Council in March last, I reserved in myself the right of a close examination of the provisions at the final stage, but I feel the attempt will be unprofitable. The Bill is to all intents and purposes, a private member's Bill; the scheme is the result of a compromise between the promoters and Government. These facts necessarily limit the scope of comment. If the party most interested agrees to receive the Charter from Government on certain

terms, any adverse criticism of those terms by a third party would ordinarily be unwelcome interference with the rights of the contracting parties. It is true the analogy of a private contract does not hold good in a matter of this kind. The Bill has an important public bearing which certainly justifies scouting. Besides, we must make it clear that the scheme embodied in it shall not serve as a model for our State Universities. It is contended that the constitution of the Hindu University is more liberal than that of the existing Universities. Even assuming that it is so, it is as well to note that the wider Indian public would not agree to a re-organisation of the State Universities on the line of the new University. But if the provisions of the Bill are acceptable to the Hindu public affected, I for one would not stand out for their amendment according to principle, which appear to me right provided they are not of such a character as to interfere with the rights of non-Hindus.

Compulsory Religious Education.

The original clause in the Bill making instruction in Hindu religion compulsory in the case of Hindu students, did, in my opinion interfere with the undoubted right of every Indian to demand from Government the observance of strict neutrality in religious matters. Government should never be a party to such compulsory education, but the University authorities may have power to make religious instruction compulsory if they so desire in the case of Hindu students. And I am glad, under the beneficent influence of the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler, the clause has undergone the necessary modification in the Select Committee. I would have preferred the insertion in the Bill of what is known as

a conscience clause, especially in view of the fact, that Hindu Society is divided into numerous sects and there is no general form of Hinduism acceptable to all Hindus, and no attempt has been made in the Bill to define the terms "Hindu" and "Hinduism." But a debate about such a provision would raise a controversy which might prove fatal to the proposed legislation. In my anxiety to see the Bill through, I loyally and gratefully accept the chance made in the Select Committee. The promoters cannot possibly have any legitimate grievance. The Court, composed exclusively of Hindus, has full authority to make religious instruction compulsory. If the contingency ever arises that such a large body of representative Hindus come to the conclusion that instruction in Hindu religion should not be compulsory even in the case of Hindu students, it is only right that it should not be so. If compulsory religious education be opposed to Hindu sentiment there is absolutely no justification for forcing it upon the society; if Hindus want it the Court can and certainly will satisfy the demand. On principle, this arrangement is sound, and in practical working it cannot be attended with any serious inconvenience. It is only on the assumption that compulsory religious education may not be agreeable to the general sense of the Court that any fears of its not forming a feature of the new University can be entertained; but the hypothesis itself would justify, nay necessitate, the abandonment of the original idea of making instruction compulsory by law. Government, with any regard for its policy of strict neutrality in matters relating to religion, cannot undertake to do what the Hindu Society itself may hesitate, or be reluctant to do. If Hindu religious instruction has to be made compulsory for Hindu students, the

Hindu Court representing the general Hindu Society, must take the responsibility of doing that. Why should this Council, why should Government seek to do an act which ought to lie wholly within the province of the Hindu authorities of the University.

Constitution of University.

My Lord, a large mass of weighty but adverse opinion is before us relating to the constitution of the University, and the fear appears to be well founded that, in actual working it will lead to constant friction and trouble. The Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler himself admitted when the Bill was introduced that the machinery provided is complicated. But there is much to be said for the view that the fact is due to unavoidable cause. The larger donors have a right to be associated with an institution which owes its existence to their munificence. Conceding all these, it does not necessarily follow that the scheme of management provided is the only one possible or even the best conceivable. The donors could have been associated in a number of other ways, without abandonment of the simple but effective arrangement to which we have become used in the existing large Universities and which has yielded such splendid results in the past. But a reconsideration of the proposed constitution would perhaps have affected one of the fundamental terms of the compromise between the promoters and Government. It will, therefore, be wiser for us to accept the constitution provided in the confident hope that there will be no reluctance on the part of either the Government or the Council to sanction changes from time to time in the light of experience.

Powers of Control.

The same may be said of the large powers

of control reserved to themselves by Government. Unquestionably these powers are very wide and comprehensive and it would have more in consonance with non-official public opinion if the 'control had been less stringent. The Hon'ble Sir Harcourt Butler's justification of them is, to be sure, forcible and pointed. The delegation of ampler powers, of management to a non-official agency would *prima facie* justify stricter control by Government. But this is only one view of the matter, and does not exclude the possibility, of other and different views. It is, however, useless to discuss this point at any length. This is, as is abundantly clear from the Hon. Sir Harcourt Butler's first statement in Council, one of the essential conditions on which the Charter is to be granted by Government. It is thus a choice between two alternatives, and the promoters have naturally selected the one that has secured to them the University for which they have striven so hard and so long. The strictness of the control has been justified because the degrees of the University have been given by Clause 16 of the Bill official recognition. Some people might hold the view that such recognition has been purchased at a heavy cost, and that it would have been better if that had been less of official control and the recognition of the degrees, had been left to the future. But since the promoters have for reasons, which appear to them weighty, come forward to accept the Charter on these conditions, we should not be justified in agitating now over them. It is a point worthy of note that, under the existing Allahabad University Act and the Punjab University Act, Government have large powers of interference with the University authorities which have been rarely used. We

hope under the new law too the powers will be sparingly exercised.

My Lord, these are some of the features of the Bill open to criticism, but as I have shown above, the peculiar circumstances under which this legislation has been undertaken make it undesirable that they should form the subject of controversy in this Council. The two parties most interested have arrived at a certain understanding which forms the basis of the Bill and the interest of the larger Indian public are not directly and seriously at stake. It is, therefore difficult to find any substantial ground for elaborate discussion about the detailed provisions of the Bill. It is these weighty considerations that have induced me accept the Bill as it has emerged from the Select Committee especially as the changes made by the Committee are substantial and meet all urgent requirements and to support the motion that it be passed into law.

His Excellency's Support.

My Lord, if the Benares University be a monument to the zeal, devotion and liberality of the promoters, it will be no less a monument to the sympathy and enlightened statemanship of Your Excellency. In the course of the proceedings it has been rightly pointed out more than once that, but for Your Excellency's persistent support and encouragement this scheme would not have materialised so soon. Let us all hope that the new institution will justify Your Excellency's noble policy of "trust"; will, under wise management fully justify the expectations of the whole Hindu public; and will be the powerful centre of a superior light and of an improved system of high and liberal education. Let us hope that the Hindu University, by a wide dissemination of the high principles of Hindu religion will

inculcate in the students sober and loyal ideas of citizenship and that the graduates of the Hindu University will ennoble the whole Hindu world by their culture, character, and broader outlook and will be a power in the land by their inventive skill and research. Let us hope further that by sound training, the University will equip "Young India" for the hard struggles of life better than any of the existing Universities do and that its alumni, by mastering the resources of scientific knowledge and applying them to manufacturing industry and commerce, will bring honour, wealth and an independent position within the Empire to themselves and to our dear motherland.

MR. ACHARIAR.

The Hon'ble Mr. Achariar moved that the word "classes" be added before the word "caste and creeds" in Clause 4 (1) of the Bill and explained the object of his amendment. It was that there might not be any difficulty in giving effect to the intentions of the promoters and Government and that the University would be open to all including what was known as the submerged classes. He added that the amendment was almost verbal. The amendment was accepted. Mr. Achariar then withdrew his other amendments and explained that he would give his reasons at a subsequent stage of the Bill.

Mr. Achariar who spoke for more than twenty minutes said that in spite of grave warnings given by the Education Member, he would speak in performance of the public duty. He discussed the Bill at length, and paid eloquent tribute to the Maharaja of Darbhanga, Pandit Malaviya and Mrs. Besant who had three separate schemes and who blended them into one with the result em-

nery, tending inevitably to impair a uniform standard for all the candidates, and even efficient examining.

It would be noticed that taking the probable average of success in the first examinations to be not very much higher than at present each succeeding examination will have to provide for an increasing number of candidates.

We would next submit that the opportunities already provided for the candidates under the old regulations are unduly few, whether one considers firstly, the facilities they would have enjoyed if the regulations had not been amended; or secondly, the general question of having only *annual* examinations in Law along with the rule that failure by a narrow margin in a single subject out of many is as great a disqualification as failing in all the subjects; or thirdly, the practice of our University itself in regard to medical examinations or that of most other Universities in regard to *all* professional examinations, whereby failed candidates are enabled at frequent intervals to attempt to retrieve their failure, sometimes even by appearing for examination only the subjects they failed in.

We feel sure that this aspect of the question, in regard to professional examinations, has always been before the University, which, in the case of the medical candidates has already shown that it realises what six months of additional and avoidable waiting mean in the life of a candidate seeking entrance to the ranks of a crowded profession.

We recognise, further, that the financial side of the question may perhaps make it difficult at present, to hold more than one examination in Law in the course of a year, unless the fees for registration for the examinations are correspondingly raised. Should

this prove an obstacle in the way of sanctioning additional half-yearly examinations for the F. L. and the B. L. candidates under the old regulations we would suggest as a remedy that a reasonable enhancement of the examination fees might be made, and the additional examinations provided. We have no doubt that the Law students whom such enhancement might affect would prefer it to the obvious disadvantages which the present transitory arrangements would entail upon them.

In the light of the facts indicated above, we beg that the University authorities be pleased to arrange for additional half-yearly examinations for the F. L. and the B. L. candidates in the years 1916 and 1917.

We have the honour to be,

SIR,

Your most obedient servants,

E. J. JOHN, B. A., B. L.,

High Court Vakil and

Vice-Principal,

Trivandrum Law College;

President.

K. KOCHUKRISHNA MARAR, B. A., B. L.

High Court Vakil.

K. G. SESA AIYER, B. A., B. L.

High Court Vakil.

V. SUBBA AIYER, B. A., B. L.

High Court Vakil.

T. S. SRINIVASA RAU, B. A.

P. A. SUBRAHMANYA IYER, B. A.

V. B. SUNDARA RAO, B. A.

B. N. SARMA, B. A.

R. RAGHAVA MENON, B. A.

S. SRINIVASA SASTRI, B. A.

Hon. Secretary.

The Law Students'
Memorialising Committee,
Trivandrum,
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THE NARSAPUR TAYLOR HIGH SCHOOL DIAMOND JUBILEE.*

GENTLEMEN :

I FEEL grateful to you for the honour you have done me in asking me to preside on this occasion and for the complimentary expressions which you have so kindly used in regard to me. But in the interests of the institution, whose Diamond Jubilee we are celebrating to-day,—I mean its material interests—I wish that the organisers of this function had secured for President a more influential man than myself. The institution, you know, is so circumstanced that it is largely in need of financial support and a retired educational officer of humble means, who has so little to do with the wealthy classes, is the last man to bring in such support. A rich Zamindar known for the interests he takes in education or an influential Vakil or other public man, whose eloquent pleadings

may substantially help the school, would have been a more fitting President. But you have nevertheless asked me to preside and I cannot well refuse. I cannot well refuse the call from my old pupils; I cannot deny myself the pleasure of visiting with them the old scenes where, and recalling the old days when, we moved together as master and pupils.

The history of this institution, gentlemen, is very peculiar. It came into existence before the Madras University was established, before the Madras Educational Department itself was organised. It is therefore, the history of the attempts made in this Province from the earliest times to impart European knowledge to Indian youths, of the policy adopted by Government in regard to Secondary education and of the progress it has made under such policy. A study of its career, which extends over more than 60 years, of the vicissitudes it has had and of the successes and failures it has met with, should be most

* Presidential Address, by M.R.Ry. Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatharthihara Iyer, B.A., I.S.O., on the 9th October 1915.

instructive to those interested in the educational development of this province.

The Secretary of State's Despatch of 1854—otherwise known as the Great Charter of Indian Education—represents the introduction by the British Government of a system of organised education on modern lines for India. Previous to that time there had been efforts made in this direction, here and there, whether by Government or by private agency; but they were spasmodic and based on no system. The Taylor High School, Narsapur, dates back to the pre-Despatch period and represents one of these efforts made in the Northern Circars. It was started in 1852 by Mr. G. N. Taylor, who was then Sub-Collector of Rajahmundry with his head-quarters at Narsapur. He started also three branch schools in three towns in the neighbourhood which served as feeders to the chief school at Narsapur which was, therefore, called the Central School. They were all Anglo-Vernacular and maintained partly by him and partly by local subscriptions. In course of time other schools, which were all vernacular, were started by him in other large villages in the division; and their cost was defrayed by the ryots by a fixed annual addition to the revenue demand on their respective villages. All these Primary Schools were placed under an Indian Inspector and some of the large schools were staffed by Government. The scheme was successful for a time, i.e., so long as the subscriptions, which were represented to be voluntary, were regularly paid. But Mr. Taylor left the division and the interest taken in their schools by the villagers slackened. He seems to have anticipated the breakdown of the edifice he had put up at such pains and in his anxiety to secure the stability of at least the central institution,

he requested the Government to lend to it permanently as headmaster, an officer of the Government Educational Department. He had previously brought out a headmaster from England—one Mr. Ager—but the latter soon left for a better appointment elsewhere. Mr. Taylor's request was complied with and hence arose the anomalous arrangement of a school under private management but with a Government headmaster on its staff. As to the Primary schools, proposals were made to legalise the voluntary rate, i.e., for the levy of a special rate for Primary education, at least in the Narsapur Sub-Division of the Rajahmundry District, but they were not approved by Government, as it was opposed to any compulsory taxation for educational purposes.

The quasi-Government institution continued as such for about 30 years till 1885, when in pursuance of the policy, recommended by the Education Commission of 1882-83, of transferring Government institutions to the management of local bodies, the Government headmastership was abolished and the school became an institution entirely under private management. I had the honour to be one of these Government headmasters, but with me unfortunately ceased the Government connection.

The abolition of the Government headmastership was a serious blow given to the school at a time when it least deserved it. From one cause or another, the institution had before my time greatly dwindled in strength and efficiency and had become as reported by the Government Inspector "the embodiment of every possible defect." It was then that Col. Macdonald, the then Director of Public Instruction, sent me as headmaster and at an interview that I had with him before taking over charge he

"This is the last chance that I give to that institution." I accepted the trust; the causes that had led to the decline of the school were remediable; and thanks to the hearty support I received from the management and to the kind encouragement I had from the Department, I was able to bring the school once more to a flourishing condition. It was now that in grateful recognition of the boon conferred on the people of this part of the country by the enlightened and far-seeing gentleman who had planted this institution and started pioneering work in the field of Western knowledge and Western thought and whose portrait we are going to unveil this evening, that the name was changed into the Taylor High School, Narsapur. In course of time the school was pronounced to be one of the most successful High Schools and proposals were under consideration for giving the headmaster a higher status in the educational cadre. The order of the abolition of the Government headmastership came, therefore, like a thunderbolt on the institution which had raised its head again after such a long decline. The school became a wholly Grant-in-Aid institution.

The policy of Grant-in-Aid, as supplementing Government educational efforts, was for the first time laid down in the Despatch of 1854. It was emphasised by the Education Commission of 1882-1883 who went further and recommended the transfer to local agency of existing Government Secondary Schools and Colleges. This recommendation was but too hastily acted on in this Presidency by the late Mr. H. B. Grigg who was then the Director of Public Instruction. A man of good intentions, but strongly impulsive in his nature, he did not well consider the general unpreparedness of the people for the charge and

efficient maintenance of educational institutions requiring expert guidance and expenditure of money. The policy of his predecessor, Col. Macdonald, had been to take over under Government management promising Aided schools which could not well maintain themselves. It had for its object consolidation and increased efficiency and the stimulation of local effort in the initial stage. The policy of Mr. Grigg, who had his inspiration from the Education Commission, was quite the reverse. It had for its object the enlisting of more of co-operation from the public in the field of higher education and the consequent relief of Government from direct control. Its underlying principle was that higher education was not a concern of the State so much as of the people themselves who cared for it and that it should, therefore, be left to them, as far as possible, subject to the general control of Government. But when the Education Commission recommended the transfer of existing Government institutions to local management they took care to safeguard their recommendation by insisting that efficiency should be assured. Mr. Grigg does not, however, appear to have sufficiently considered this aspect of the question, but set about in headlong haste demolishing much of the work done by his predecessors. Second-grade Colleges, High Schools and Middle Schools maintained by Government were in quick succession swept off the list and thrown over to Local Boards or other local bodies of management. The headmastership of the Narsapur School, which was a solitary Government appointment in the school, was but a straw carried away by this cataclysm.

Government have since discovered that it went too far in thus leaving secondary education to take care of itself. You remember the

proposal made a few years ago by the Madras Government for the establishment of Government Model High Schools at the rate of one for each district. It was in pursuance of what had been suggested by the Government of India in their Indian Educational policy of 1904. They said in this connection: "The progressive devolution of Primary, Secondary and Collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Education Commission of 1882, and the advice has been generally acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education." Acting on this advice of the Government of India, the Madras Government proposed to go back and reconstruct what they had pulled down a quarter of a century ago. It was no easy matter; vested interests had come in; false alarms were created and joined in by those who should have thought better; and a storm of opposition was raised to the scheme which had therefore to be dropped. I, for one, deplore the failure of the scheme; and I think that, if the public had been taken into confidence in regard to its details, there would not have been so much opposition made to it. If this scheme had been sanctioned, a number of institutions circumstanced like the Taylor High School, Narsapur, would have become Government institutions again and centres of far more useful and extended work than they are now capable of doing.

As it was, the agencies to which schools were transferred in Mr. Grigg's time were

either the Local Boards and Municipalities or private bodies of management. With the former it was a creed that their responsibilities lay only in the direction of Primary education and that where they had charge of Secondary schools they should be made self-supporting as far as possible. In some cases the schools were even worked at a profit which merged in the general funds. The Presidents of these bodies had other and more important duties to look after and the administration was divided between them and the officers of the Department whose duty was to advise. Divided control leads to no good and the schools generally lost their original efficiency. Even the normal improvements necessary in the accommodation, equipment and staff were but grudgingly attended to and what strength was maintained was more with a view to secure the maximum fee-income and the minimum cost to the Board than in the interests of efficiency. The schools were run in fact on commercial lines and the demoralising effect of such treatment, it is needless to dwell upon. The Government too for a long time showed but a step-motherly regard to the Secondary schools maintained by the Local Boards and except in a few cases, gave no grants for their efficient maintenance. It is only recently they have departed from this policy and are giving grants—technically known as subsidies—in behalf of these institutions.

And now as to the schools transferred to private bodies of management and placed on the salary grant system of which this institution was one. The grants paid for teaching in Secondary Schools were first salary grants which generally ranged from a fifth to a third of the salaries paid. The management found the rest of the money from fees and their

other resources. This system of aid had its faults; and among the rest it led to the employment of teachers by unprincipled managers on nominal salaries, the actual salaries being little more than the proportion of the nominal salary paid by Government. But this abuse of the system was remediable. It was also possible to simplify the elaborate procedure laid down for assessing grant. On the other hand the system had great counterbalancing merits. It led to the employment of competent teachers and provided for free and improved teaching. It gave room for expansion and promoted the stability and growth of the institution. Above all, the fee-income was not a prominent factor in the determination of grant; nor was an artificial fee-income created for the school as is now done for the purpose of assessing grant. The development in this Province of many an institution under private management was when this system of aid was in force.

But this system, good as it was and capable of improvement in regard to its defects, was replaced about ten years ago by the present system which, for want of a name given to it, I would call the half and half system of grant. It purports to bring out in full the principle of Grant-in-Aid. It should be strictly a grant-in-aid, in aid of what is contributed by the management. The free income is not treated as such a contribution, which should therefore, come from without. If the management have the money and put one half, Government will put the other half, other conditions of course being satisfied. Drawn up by a scientist, the system is beautifully simple and reasonable in theory; but in practice it has done a world of harm. It is rigidly artificial. The actual fee-income is not taken into account, but it is fixed at rates prescribed

by Government. The expenditure which should come under teaching is also specified and a financial position is thus created for assessing the teaching grant of each school. The grant payable is a half of the excess of the expenditure as thus set down over the fee-income thus arbitrarily fixed. Grants for other purposes such as building, furniture, library, apparatus and appliances are also fixed on the same principle. All these are accessories to teaching, but each is kept in a water-tight compartment and no over-lapping is allowed. The half and half system is rigidly enforced in regard to each object and no latitude is given for any desirable adjustment on the whole.

The system thus pre-supposes that every institution which seeks a grant should have an endowment or other money at the back out of which the contribution should be made. But by far the greater number of institutions under private management—I mean, under Indian private management—either possess no endowment at all or possess only a nominal endowment, insufficient to guarantee the contribution required. The Mission Schools may hold their own under such a system of aid; and also a few other institutions which are well endowed or otherwise provided for. But the institutions which depend entirely, or almost entirely upon the fee-income and are developing so to speak from within and require, therefore, special encouragement, do not obtain the necessary benefit. Out of a total number of 332 Secondary Schools for boys in this Presidency, omitting European Schools, 146 or 44 per cent. are schools under private management other than Mission, and they contain 47 per cent. of the total attendance. The Mission Schools come next forming 29 per cent. of the total number and the

remaining 27 per cent. excepting a few institutions which are maintained by Government, are schools maintained by the Local Boards and Municipalities. Half the demand for Secondary education in this Presidency is thus met by schools under Indian private management and yet it is upon this class of schools the present Code sits hardest. They share with the Mission schools the grants-in-aid; and though they are numerically half as strong again as those schools, they get in the aggregate much less grant. And what is even more remarkable, it is the more flourishing schools that get proportionately a less grant; and on account of the rigid working of the rules a number of such schools have had no grant at all given in their behalf. The larger an institution, the more is its fee income, calculated at the standard rates; and the smaller, therefore, is the deficit left for grant, unless an additional expenditure is put on staff. But here comes the difficulty. How is the expenditure on the staff to be increased without an endowment? It is a recurring expenditure and Government will pay only a half of the net increase. Where is the other half to come from? The management has, therefore, to use a slang expression, to cut the coat according to the cloth, starve the staff, stint the other expenditure and keep safe within the fee-income. Large institutions like the Hindu High School, Triplicane, the Muthialpet High School, the Town High School, Kumbakonam, and the Taylor High School, Narsapur, are notable examples of the kind. The managers of these and other similar institutions have, in their inability to find money for other purposes such as building, gone even further and saved much from the fee-income for these purposes. The large buildings some of them have been able to put up

are indeed standing monuments of the illiberal treatment they have accorded to the staff, necessitated by the economy they have been obliged to practise.

It is high time that this half and half system of aid is abolished and replaced by a more liberal and sympathetic system. Indeed there has been a tendency on the part of Government within the last few years, to relax its rigidity and give exceptionally higher rates of grants here and there—thanks to the labours of the Hon. Mr. Seshagiri Ayyar and the Hon. Mr. Srinivasa Sastri. But why continue a system that has been put to the test for a provokingly long time and found utterly wanting? And after all where is the harm in giving a more than half grant to a school that may require it? Every aided school must be a recognised school and every recognised school must have a satisfactory management with its accounts, among the rest, subject to departmental inspection. There is sufficient safeguard already provided, therefore, against the misuse of school money and further steps may be taken in the same direction such as the institution of a regular audit. What should be seen to is only that the funds of the institution are all spent in the interests of the institution and properly spent.

I have often heard it said: "If the people care for education and care for their school why should they not sufficiently endow it?" Unfortunately it is more easily said than acted upon. This charge of indifference only shews the ignorance of men who make it of the conditions prevailing in the country and their want of sympathy with indigenous educational efforts. India is indeed a land of charities, but this form of charity has not as yet sufficiently asserted itself. A school for the imparting of European knowledge through

the medium of a foreign language is still an exotic plant and though it has taken sufficient root, it has not yet shown sufficient fruitfulness. English education is still in the estimation of the common people a bread-earning education, an education for the getting on in life and not an education for the higher ends of life. It is not an education which agrees with their notions of what *Vidyasala* ought to be and satisfies their requirements for the practice of charity. Perhaps a system of education working more in harmony with the traditions of the country and on the lines on which it has already advanced and with some attention given to religion would appeal better to our wealthy merchants and rich landholders and secure their support. As matters now are, it is on the educated people themselves, therefore, and their influence on the rest that we have largely to depend for the financial strengthening of our modern institutions. In justice to them it must be said that they are alive to what is expected of them and that here and there there are already notable instances of their liberal support in the cause of education.

Gentlemen, I started from this school and took you out for a ramble. But we did not go far from the school. Indeed I kept you as close to it as possible. You had only to apply to this institution much of what I spoke of in general terms. And now let me ask you to go once more inside the institution and examine it a little more closely. It has more than 800 pupils on rolls and is thus one of the largest schools of its grade in the Presidency. If you judge, therefore, the condition of a school by its numbers, you must say it is flourishing. It is efficient, for the numbers are well distributed, the highest form has been doing well at the public examination

and the school is being favourably reported on by the Government Inspector. It has the good fortune to have for headmaster an excellent gentleman. Mr. Jayaram Rao is a teacher of high ideals and with a reputation for character and capacity and unflinching zeal and devotion to his work. He has, I am assured, the hearty co-operation and sympathetic support of a liberal and enlightened body of management. All these are gratifying features. But—(I regret, gentlemen, there is not one but several *but*s)—look at this accommodation. Does it satisfy the modern requirements of an educational building, with its separate spacious, well-lighted and ventilated class rooms, its retiring rooms and sick rooms, libraries and reading rooms, laboratories and demonstration halls? Has the school a good recreation ground? Is it provided with a hostel for the benefit of pupils coming from the villages round? Has it availed itself of the advantages of the new Secondary scheme and opened a technical side for the benefit of the pupils whose means or prospects are such that they cannot proceed to the University but must turn to something technical or other that would enable them to make a living? I am afraid that if the authorities in charge of this institution are subjected to this category of questions, they must break down and confess their shortcomings. And yet these are now essential requisites of a well-organised Secondary school. How are they to be secured? Money, money, it is money that this institution, like so many other institutions under Indian private management, sadly wants. Its funds, I understand, amount to a sum made up of the fee-income, insufficient to meet current demands. To provide funds for the improvements required—at least for the more urgent needs such as extended and im-

proved accommodation—the endowment must be raised. It is really a sad commentary on both the Madras Grant-in-Aid system and the public spirit of the people of this part of the country that an institution of more than 60 years' standing, an institution of such high traditions and endearing associations, an institution that has done so much useful work in the past and promises so much useful work in the future, should be still left to carry on its work in this sorry remnant of an old Dutch warehouse, more fitted to be consigned to the care of the Archaeological Department than put to the uses of a school. The most urgent need, gentlemen, is a good building for the school and a hostel and recreation ground attached to it. If the State cannot give all the money that is required for these objects, can you not combine together, raise donations and meet it half way? If you cannot find even the money that is required for this contribution, can you not raise debenture loans, raise the buildings and lend them to the school for rent? Let me appeal in particular to the old boys of the school, now that you are all assembled together for the celebration of this Jubilee. Will you not avail yourselves of this excellent opportunity and decide on a course of action so as to place the school, which is and ought to be so dear to you, on a sound financial basis? Think of the happy old days that you spent here and of the teaching and training you received within these walls and think out what you can do for the well-being and further efficiency of your *Alma Mater*. She wants your help, and she expects your help. Do not disappoint her.

And now, gentlemen, you may proceed to the celebration and I wish you all joy. Make yourselves happy, but see that the celebration does not pass off without substantial good resulting from it to this dear old institution.

RESEARCH IN INDIAN HISTORY.*

WHAT HISTORY IS.

'History is fable agreed upon' was how history was understood at one time when the idea of history primarily as a piece of literature held sway. We have since gone a long way from that position. Without attempting to set forth what history is, a task which baffled the genius of far greater men than I am, I may make an extract from one of the leading thinkers of the day on matters germane thereto, to gain an idea of what is actually understood by the term. Lord Morley has it in his notes on Politics and History, 'History, in the great conception of it, has often been compared to a mountain chain seen far off in a clear sky, where the peaks seem linked towards one another towards the higher crest of the group. An ingenious and learned writer the other day amplified this famous image, by speaking of a set of volcanic islands heaving themselves out of the sea, at such angles and distances that only to the eye of a bird, and not to a sailor cruising among them, would they appear as the heights of one and the same submerged range. The sailor is the politician. The historian, without prejudice to monographic exploration in intervening valleys and ascending slopes, will covet the vision of the bird.'

SHORTCOMINGS OF HISTORICAL STUDY.

Discussing the distinction between ancient and modern history on this basis, Lord Morley passes on to some of the shortcomings of historical study at the present time, and makes the following observations commenting on specialization: "We may find comfort

* Inaugural Address to the Presidency College Union Society, by Professor S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, M.A.

in the truth that though excess of specialization is bad, to make sciolism into a system is worse. In reading history it is one common fault to take too short measure of the event, to mistake some early scene in the play as if it were the fifth act, and so conceive the plot all amiss. The event is only comprehended in its fullest dimensions, and for that the historic recorder, like or unlike the actor before him, *needs insight and imagination*. Further on, the same great authority says: 'All agree that we have no business to seek more from the past than the very past itself. Nobody disputes with Cicero when he asks: "Who does not know that it is the first law of history not to dare a word that is false? Next, not to shrink from a word that is true. No partiality, no grudge." Though nobody disputes the obvious answers, have a majority of historical practitioners complied?'

HISTORY OF HINDU INDIA.

These extracts are quite enough to indicate on the one hand what history is according to the most enlightened modern opinion and on the other, what difficulties confront a labourer—a journey-man labourer—in the vast fields of that history in India as yet but little explored. Even from the coveted height of the eagle if one casts his eyes upon the history of Hindu India one feels—one hardly sees enough even of the volcanic islands, and the few that he might be able to see, one feels he sees but too dimly through the mist of age and increasing distance. It is notorious that India has but little history of her own.

WANT OF CHRONOLOGY.

It was the illustrious historian of India, Elphinstone, that observed in 1839 that, in regard to Indian History, 'no date of a

public event can be fixed before the invasion of Alexander; and no connected relation of the national transaction can be attempted until after the Muhammadan conquest.' Cowell extended the application of this caution to the whole of the Hindu Period, writing as he did in 1866. During the next half century we have advanced from this position a long way indeed, and Vincent A. Smith's *Early History of India* is the most substantial vindication of the possibility of compiling a connected history of Hindu India, but even so much advance does not invalidate the first part of Elphinstone's dictum.

AN OXFORD CHAIR FOR INDIAN HISTORY.

ONLY BRITISH CONNECTION.

It is nearly half a century since, that the first attempt was made at Oxford to institute a chair or something near it, for the study of Indian History; but the work of this foundation was, however, limited to the history of the British connection with India. The inaugural address delivered in January 1914 by the present occupant of this position, Rev. William Holden Hutton, B.D., contains the following appeal anent this question: He (the Reader) is instructed by statute to lecture on "The Rise, Growth and Organization of the British Power in India." This leads me to say what I think very much needs saying to-day. It is a grievous weakness in the University's provision for learning that there is nothing done for the study of Indian History in ancient and mediæval times. I should like to direct the attention of those who have the control of the Chancellor's Fund to this strange omission. A period of the world's history of extraordinary interest and of really enormous importance is entirely neglected in our provision for learning, education, and re-

search. It is true that we have distinguished scholars who have from time to time dealt with a part of this subject, such as Professor Macdonnell and Mr. Vincent A. Smith; but the former has already a subject so wide that only his knowledge and energy could adequately deal with it, while the latter has, I deeply regret to say, no official position in our midst.

NO PROVISION FOR GENERAL INDIAN STUDIES.

Purely Indian History, with its literature and philosophy, Indian Geography, historical and descriptive, (except so far as I am told to deal with it) a subject of extraordinary fascination in itself, Indian archæology, are unprovided for in this University. In spite of the generosity which created, and has from time to time enriched, the Indian Institute, it still fails to play the important part it might play, and was intended to play, in the education at Oxford. What the Chancellor of the University said in 1909 is, I am afraid, still true.

THE INDIAN INSTITUTE.

'The Institute has not in any appreciable degree provided a meeting-ground for the East and West, or a place of social intercourse between English and Indian students. Its Museum has failed 'to bring together a typical collection of objects suited to educational purposes and sufficiently complete to give a fair idea of the industrial occupations, domestic and religious customs of the people subject to our rule; or 'to present a fair epitome of India, eminently attractive not only to indologists, but to ethnologists and anthropologists of all nationalities.' The scheme of constant lectures by distinguished Anglo-Indian administrators and Orientalists which started under happy auspices, has fallen into

desuetude. The Institute possesses no permanent endowment, and is ill-provided in respect of staff and attendance, besides being quite unable to extend its sphere of influence'.

THE DEMAND OF THE GREATEST OF OXFORD HISTORIANS (BISHOP STUBBS).

I believe that this is largely due to the fact that we have still left unheeded the declaration of the greatest of Oxford historians, made so long ago as 1876, when Mr. Sidney Owen had been teaching Indian History in Oxford for eight years. 'At the present moment we want,' then said the Regius Professor of Modern History (after proclaiming another need which is still, as I think most disastrously, unsatisfied) :—

"We want a permanent chair of Indian History. The labours of our friend, the present Indian Reader, have shown us how thoroughly that study, the importance of which can scarcely be over-rated by Englishmen, falls in with the current of our University work. I say a permanent chair, because that is a subject of permanent necessity, not a subject like palæography or numismatology, in which the labours of one good professor may serve for two or three generations, and the endowment of the man is of equal importance with the endowment of the chair or study."

That demand of Dr. Stubbs, made nearly forty years ago, is not yet met. I appeal to those whose interest in India is real, who desire that her history should be fully known and rightly understood, who desire that she should be recognised in her greatness among the nations, to Indian princes, and to Europeans who have made fortunes in India, to provide for the creation of a Professorship of Indian History in the University which is already so clearly linked, and could be linked more closely, to the Indian Empire.

THE SAME NEED FOR INDIA.

This was the demand made for Oxford forty years ago, already provided with some kind of equipment to meet this particular need. Thanks to the Universities Act of 1904 and the munificent generosity of the Government of India it has become possible for us now to think of doing something to reclaim that part of the history of our country of which the distant Oxford Professors of History shewed themselves so solicitous nearly half a century ago.

THE MATERIAL AVAILABLE FOR MEETING THIS NEED.

The difficulties that have to be overcome in any work of research in this field are many and require talents of the highest order over a wide field of study. Broadly speaking the sources of Indian History can be grouped into three broad classes, namely :—

1. Indian Literature (Traditionary and Historical);
2. Foreign Literature, chiefly the works of travellers, &c.;
3. Archæology, Monumental, Numismatic and Epigraphic.

INDIAN LITERATURE.

The first of these classes falls naturally into two groups, namely, (a) Ordinary literature, embodying traditional history in regard to striking incidents and personalities. These find casual mention in works with no historical object of any kind and will be of invaluable service in the construction of history. The chief difficulty that besets the subject here is the absence of any chronological clue, which many of the classical works of literature want generally, either in Sanskrit or in our Dravidian vernaculars. There are some works which, either in the preface or in a colophon

at the end of the work, give invariably the name and ancestors of the author, sometimes also the name and ancestry similarly of the patron; and occasionally the date of composition or completion of the work. Where this clue is available the work is of some value to the historian—not generally for history as it is ordinarily understood, Political History—but as throwing some side-light upon a social, religious or other feature of general history.

ARRANGEMENT UPON A CHRONOLOGICAL SCHEME.

The greater part of the literature of the country has first of all to be carefully studied critically and arranged on a well-planned chronological scheme. This is true alike of Sanskrit and Vernacular literature—the only difference being that in regard to Sanskrit some work has already been done, while in regard to the Dravidian languages which are of material importance to the history of this part of the country, the work has hardly received attention except in very rare instances. To the aspiring historian of South India this will prove the first preliminary spade work essential to any undertaking. He has unfortunately to deal with not any one language but with three, four or five languages, according to the period and the locality to which he directs his ambition and his attention. It is here co-operation and combination, in the shape of a school of workers in history is required, each one of whom limiting his ambition to contributing to the main result, without special recognition or reward for each brick he might have directly contributed to make.

PROFESSEDLY HISTORICAL WORKS.

The next department of the literature of the country that has here to be taken into

consideration is the purely historical literature—a department in which, so far as the available materials go—India is peculiarly weak so much so that we often hear it said that the faculty for history is utterly absent in India. Bearing in mind that history as we understand the term now is practically the work of nineteenth century Europe, we can still say with justice that Europe is well provided with historical literature for many ages and many countries. So it is even with China. In regard to India we can hardly say the same, and when we limit our vision to the south we can almost say there is none such at all. The absence of professed histories does not necessarily imply the absence of historical material in literature. There is much of that kind of ore that can be mined in literature, but it requires the smelting furnace of criticism, with plenty of oxydising material in the shape of chronological data from other sources, and slag of confirmatory evidence to separate the facts from the figments of imagination in which these get embedded. Much of this is true even of the few professed histories that we possess. The typical examples of such are Kalhana's *Rājataranginī*, Bāṇa's *Harsha Charitam* and Bilhana's *Vikramāṅkadeva Charitam* for Sanskrit, the *Kongudēśa Rājākkal* in Tamil and various other smaller historical pieces found in the Mackenzie Manuscripts collection. There is the *Rājāvalikathe* in Kanārese, and the various historical chronicles of Buddhist history that we have for Ceylon.

THEIR VALUE AS HISTORICAL MATERIAL.

Various other smaller compositions might be brought under this class, as they deal often with topics contemporaneous with the writers themselves. These, however, and

most other of the works already referred to had not the writing of history as their object, and would be more liable to the charge contained in the quotation with which I started that 'History is fable agreed upon.' On the whole these two connected sources do offer to the critical student valuable historical material, neglect of which would make any history of the country, of a higher conception or lower, almost impossible.

THE WORK THAT LIES AHEAD.

Without entering into any detailed description of the various works of a historical character, or attempting to appraise their relative worth as contributing to history, I feel called upon to point out that the work that lies ahead here, almost immediately in front of us, is a critical examination of these, and their presentation in the form of a connected description, so as ultimately to lead up to the writing of a hand-book of literature for each of the literatures of these Dravidian languages on the lines of similar works for European languages we have in such number and variety. When this is done it will be found that the amplitude of the material available for history is much more than we imagine at first sight.

FOREIGN SOURCES OF INDIAN HISTORY.

Greek.

Passing on to the next division, 'Foreign Sources of Indian History' we have here a very large number of contributaries in regular succession beginning almost with the Father of History, Herodotus. For Northern India we have a number of Greek accounts of varying degrees of value historically from the age of Herodotus to the days of Asoka almost, and when this begins to fail, Chinese sources begin to appear, about the beginning

of the Christian era. Of the Greek sources I may just mention besides Herodotus, Ktesias, Megasthenes and Arrian, not to mention Qunctus Curtius and Appollonius of Tyana.

Chinese.

Of Chinese sources there is the Chinese Father of History Ssu-ma-ch'ien in the first century B. C. and from that time a large number of travellers came in almost up to the Muhammadan conquest. Of these we need only mention the well-known ones, Fa-hien at the beginning of the fifth century and Hiuen Tshang in the middle of the seventh. Excepting this last none of the foreign sources cited above have anything but an occasional reference to South India. There is besides the recently discovered Tibetan sources which have not yet been adequately worked up to be of use to the student.

For South India.

Under this head South India is not without its own share of illumination from the outside. Megasthenes has a few references about the south. There is the Geographer Pliny, then comes in chronological order the unknown author of the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea*, and then Ptolemy. Past this period we are able to derive some valuable information from Hiuen Tshang. Last of all there is Marco Polo. For periods later than this we have the Muhammadan travellers, some of them are of very great value, such as Ibn Batutah and Abdur Razak. There are besides a number of other European travellers that came to some part of the southern coast or the interior, Nicolo-dei-conti who was a contemporary of Deva Raya I, Varthema, the Portuguese fathers Nuniz and Paes, and others.

THESE SHED BUT INTERMITTENT LIGHT.

With very few exceptions the light that

these throw upon the history of the country is anything but continuous, and often the information that we gain of the best among them can be regarded as of value only when we have other sources of information to control them. All the same we owe it to them that we have recovered a few bright chapters of South Indian History, and we must acknowledge our obligations to the disinterested labour of European savants to whom entirely is due the credit of having made these available to us.

MUHAMMADAN HISTORIANS.

I have so far not made any mention of the Muhammadan historians as a class: For the later period of Hindu History of South India these historians are of considerable importance as outside sources, though hitherto they were the only sources. I class them as outside; for none of them, of design, write the history of any State of Hindu India. Such reference as they make are only incidental and bring them in in the course of the history of the particular Muhammadan State or States whose history they attempt to write. These again have been made available for use by us by an elder generation of European scholars, though there is still room for good scholarly work left upon these.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOURCES.

(i) Monumental.

We come last of all to the sources, archaeological. These have been divided into (1) monumental, (2) numismatic and (3) epigraphic.

These monuments in the shape of buildings, temples and structures of various kinds throw very considerable light upon the religion, art and civilization in general of the particular period to which they belong. They also let

us in into the secrets of history in regard to the various influences, foreign or local, that may have had operation in the production of these monuments. To be able to study these monuments, these monuments must exist. So work in this branch of archaeology, as a necessary preliminary, takes the character of an organisation for the preservation of those monuments that are visible; then it requires an organisation to carry on work in search for new monuments, and the exposition of those that may be available for study.

PRIVATE EFFORT IMPOSSIBLE IN THIS LINE.

In a vast country like ours and having regard to the character and condition of these monuments as they are, this becomes particularly a branch of study which does not lend itself at all to private work in regard to its first branch; the second branch of it, research work in monuments, may to some extent be done by private workers but even in this branch organised work is so necessary for utility that it is only rich societies or Governments that can undertake the conservation and research work satisfactorily, where the latter involve as in the case of the Taxila excavations or excavations carried on at present at Patalipura a large outlay of expenditure. After a period of neglect, work upon this branch was undertaken by General Cunningham in the sixties of the last century as Director-General; but his work was confined to Northern and Central India. A decade later came on an expansion under Burgess when the whole of India was included for work. In either case these officers and their staff confined themselves to research work alone which is embodied in the volumes of Archaeological Survey, XXII by the first and XXXIII by the

second. A first shy attempt was made at conservation of existing monuments in 1881, and ultimately, thanks to the exertions of various influences, a more comprehensive scheme was put into force at the beginning of the new century, and we are now on a further step forward in the development of archaeological work as the Government of India Resolution on the subject indicates.

NUMISMATICS : LARGELY PRIVATE EFFORT SO FAR.

It is in the second branch of archaeological work that private effort is quite possible to a very large extent, and a great deal of work has already been done. There are very good collections of coins, seals, &c., in the various museums in India and elsewhere. They have all been carefully studied and catalogued, in addition to much private work that has already been done. It is possible that this may turn out to be a costly fad to an individual but under proper directions it need not be quite so costly at all.

INVALUABLE TO THE CHRONOLOGY OF PARTICULAR PERIODS.

Costly or otherwise it is a very useful fad and many parts of Indian History have become possible only by the study of coins and several others have received much needed chronological assistance therefrom.

Epigraphy.

Lastly we come to epigraphy, which for the part of the country with which we are directly concerned, is the most important of these sources, and which has reclaimed to us lost history in regard to various periods, localities and dynasties. For the period anterior to A.D. 400 these records obtained so far, are not very many for South

India. The total for the whole of India, both North and South, is about 1100 to 1200.

RECORDS PREPONDERATE IN NUMBER IN SOUTH INDIA FOR PERIODS AFTER 400 A.D.

For the period on this side of 400 A.D. the number already brought to notice up to 1906, when the late Professor Kielhorn compiled his indexes to the inscriptions, is about 700 for Northern India and 1090 for the South. There have since been added to these the yearly collections of which it is only a comparatively small number that has yet been placed before the public in a shape to be dealt with in that manner.

LARGE NUMBERS OF THESE RECORDS.

Dr. Fleet, one of the greatest living authorities in Indian Epigraphy, has it, 'And, whereas new records are every year being freely obtained in Northern India it is known there is in Southern India a wealth of materials the extent of which can hardly yet be gauged.' According to the same authority the collection of transcripts made by Sir Walter Elliott was 595 from the Kanarese country, besides a considerable number from the Telugu Districts. These are placed in the libraries of the Royal Asiatic Society, London, and the University of Edinburgh. Dr. Hultzsch had collected and edited about 300 inscriptions in the first two volumes of South Indian inscriptions, and about an equal number has been added since to the same publication by the issue of one more part of volume II and two of Vol. III, by his successors, the late Mr. Venkayya and Rai Sahib H. Krishna Sastri. Mr. Rice brought out about 9000 inscriptions in the *Epigraphia Carnataka* and his successor, Mr. R. Narasimhachariar, has added a considerable number to these,

though he has not published them in the same form as his predecessor had done. Dr. Fleet has collected about 1000 and placed them all in the Bombay Museum. He further states that 'the southernmost parts of Dharwar which abound with such materials, and some parts of Belgaum and Bijapur Districts, and the Nizam's Dominions still remain to be explored. And a great mass of material from the eastern parts of Southern India.'

THEIR VALUE.

Apart from this copiousness these inscriptions have a historical value which is all their own. They vary in substance from the simple record of the death of a rural hero who fell fighting in a cattle raid or of his widow's immolation on the pyre of her husband, to a detailed account of a battle or a treaty. If it happens to be a donative offering to a temple or a Brahman it not merely gives genealogical details of the donor and donee, but very often elaborate details of rural administration. Sometimes we come upon records of how justice was administered, in these very documents. In regard to the simpler details of history these records describe them concisely and accurately, and being not deliberately set out as history are all the more reliable. A great number of these records are precisely dated in some one era or another, or in regnal years of the sovereign for the time being. Thus they give us an amount of information of such a character that ordinary histories even of a modern character will not usually give us; so that it is possible to construct from the inscriptions alone something more than mere political history. Thanks to the exertions of various scholars of the passing generation, we have all the various Indian eras in use equated to the

Christian era and tables constructed to give equivalent dates.

CO-ORDINATION OF WORK DESIRABLE.

These records, available to us in such large numbers, have made it possible to compile a political history of India from the first century B.C. onwards with sufficient fullness up to the fourth century A.D. and with greater fullness afterwards. But to make the best use of these records and get them to yield all the results they are capable of yielding work in this line will have to go hand in hand with work in other departments of research 'in which hardly a beginning has been made, beyond a preliminary treatment, in detached writings, of details which will have to be hereafter brought together and handled on broader lines in connected and more easily accessible works.'

FLEET'S TWO DESIDERATA: (i) RESEARCH IN MONUMENTS.

Dr. Fleet calls for two lines of work of which we have promise of one being taken up systematically and in a more liberal spirit than heretofore, in the Government of India Resolution on Archaeology, namely research work in monuments by excavation. This is very necessary to supplement the rather meagre information available for periods anterior to A.D. 320.

(ii) REVISED CORPUS OF INSCRIPTIONS.

The next desideratum to which he calls attention is the revision and republication of the Epigraphic material available in a single corpus, *Corpus Inscriptionem Indicarum* of which a beginning was made in the only two volumes so far published, Vol. I, 'The Inscriptions of Asoka, by General Sir Alexander Cunningham, and Volume III, 'The

Gupta Inscription, by Dr. Fleet himself. The need certainly is very great.

COLLATION OF OTHER MATERIALS FOR HISTORY.

Along with this work has to go on work upon the collation of all historical material available in literature, numismatics, art works, &c., and unless all of these are examined carefully and the material that can be drawn from them made available in a form accessible to students of history, no historical work proper would be possible. This will involve great labour in the literatures of four or five languages, in thousands of inscriptions in all these languages, besides the monuments, coins and works of art generally.

SYMPATHETIC STUDY OF INDIAN ART.

It is a hopeful sign of the times that these last are coming in for their share of attention at the hands of some individuals and Governments, and what is more they are coming to be studied with more of that sympathy which hitherto was notoriously wanting. In the words of Justice Woodroffe: "It has been the fashion amongst European art-critics to decry the merits of Brahmanical sculpture on the ground of the alleged monstrosities of the Hindu *pauranic* conceptions, which, it has been said, are incapable of artistic treatment. The examples collected in this volume will, it is hoped, help to dispel such misconceptions and to refute the unjust criticisms which they have engendered, and will further a juster appreciation of the fact that Indian Sculpture is not a freak of Asiatic barbarism, but is a worthy representative of a school of æsthetic performance as logical, articulate and highly developed as those of any country in Europe, ancient or modern."

Vincent A. Smith's "History Fine Art in India and Ceylon," Havell's "Ancient and Medieval Architecture," Gopinath Rao's "Hindu Iconography," Gangooly's "South Indian Bronzes" and a more systematic work upon a narrower field of work, only the Tamil country, namely "South Indian Architecture and Iconography" by Professor Jouveau-Dubreuil of Pondicherry, all works of recent years do but indicate the rising interest in this line of work.

UNIVERSITIES SHew INTEREST.

It is therefore none too soon that the University of Madras, along with a few others of her sister Universities, resolved to utilise the liberal annual grant of the Government of India for starting a school of Indian studies by instituting Professorships and Readerships in Indian History and Languages having reference to South India chiefly. The success or failure of this scheme depends upon the interest it can evoke and the co-operation it can enlist from among the *alumni* of the University—past and present.

In calling for sympathetic interest and co-operation particularly from the University students here, I cannot do better than quote from Professor Maitland the words in which he once expressed the needs of historical study, 'needs which are nowhere more explicit and evident than in regard to India'.

'More co-operation, more organisation, more and better criticism, more advice for beginners, are needed. And the need, if not met, will increase. History is lengthening and widening, and deepening. It is lengthening at both ends, for while modern States in many parts of the world are making history at a bewilderingly rapid rate, what used to be called ancient history is no longer, by any

means, the ancientest; Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, and even primeval man, are upon our hands. And history is widening. Could we neglect India, China, and Japan, there would be still America, Australia, Africa, as well as Europe, demanding that their stories should be told, and finding men to tell them well or to tell them badly. And history is deepening. We could not, if we would, be satisfied with the battles and the protocols, the alliances and the intrigues. Literature and art, religion and law, rents and prices, creeds and superstitions have burst the political barrier and are no longer to be expelled. The study of interactions and interdependences is but just beginning and no one can foresee the end. *There is much to be done by schools of history: there will be more to be done every year.'*

Co-operation in this particular line is easier for us as the languages that have to be mastered are many and the knowledge that would be really useful is a deep knowledge of one or more of these. The other technical details in the present state of work in the subject are admittedly easy of acquisition. Indian talent comes in very handy in archaeological work and ought to be offered largely and accepted liberally. It is only then that the school of Indian studies will become a realised ambition. I leave it in the hands of the younger members of this audience either to realise this ambition or face the alternative of the eternal want of historic sense.

THE PROPOSED NAGPUR UNIVERSITY.

THANKS to the wise and enlightened statesmanship of Lord Hardinge, we are now having an expansion of higher education in India, on a scale unparalleled in the history of the country. The attempt made by Lord Curzon to improve University education in India pales into insignificance besides the steady and enthusiastic work of our present Viceroy which is being visibly embodied in the various new Universities rising in all parts of the country. Added to the munificent grants that have enabled the present Universities to place themselves on a new and improved footing, it is a record of work of which any Viceroy may be proud.

The progress is as noteworthy in the case of the Universities that already exist as in those upon which the Government is now embarking. Every University has done its best to transform itself from the pure examining body she has been, to a real, living University, taking an active share in guiding the advanced courses of study of its alumni, and in extending over them a close and beneficent supervision. Courses of post-graduate work, with facilities for special research have come into existence. Special lectures of an advanced kind have been delivered under the auspices of the Universities from time to time and libraries and laboratories have sprung up in large number to give all the assistance that an under-graduate or post-graduate student could desire. The features are found in a more marked degree in the new Universities that have been proposed to start. Those who have perused the Dacca and Patna Universities' reports must have noticed the numerous points of advan-

tage which the schemes possess over the present centres of higher education in the country. Their superiority is to consist not only in improved arrangements for residential life in the University for its students as well as its professors. In every branch of University-life, they would be far ahead of the existing ones, having had the benefit of a longer experience to guide them and a *tabula rasa* to work upon, with economic resources, ampler than those enjoyed by the present Universities at their start.

The proposed scheme of a University for the Central Provinces and Behar, to be located at Nagpur, but with powers of affiliation over two other places in the province, comes up to an equally high level of efficiency and displays an attention to details, a grasp of the essentials of University-life, and a knowledge of Indian needs which deserve the close study of all lovers of higher education in India. Citizens of this Presidency may take pride in the fact that the scheme is the work of a committee presided over by Mr. A. I. Mayhew whose name is well-known in the educational circles of this Presidency and who has to his credit a large experience of education in Southern India in various offices.

All higher education will be centralised at the University in Nagpur, though the colleges in Jubbulpore and Amraoti will be teaching up to the Pass Course of the B.A. degree examination. The University will exercise very large teaching functions and also control the incorporated and affiliated colleges more closely. The colleges will be absolutely residential, with buildings for all members of the staff, and the entire University area will breathe the academic

spirit and nothing else. The care exercised in drafting the scheme will be patent from the fact that the committee has not forgotten any details conducive to the comfort of the expected inmates. Provision, for instance, is made for a hospital and dispensary with a resident surgeon and sick-rooms. Such modern comforts as electric lighting and a good water-supply have not been forgotten and there is the absolute guarantee that the young man entrusted to the care of the University will live amidst pleasant and comfortable surroundings, without being exposed to the physical and moral dangers of a busy, modern city.

A reference will be made here, to some of the special features of the University in more important directions, which seem to invite appreciation. Firstly, with regard to management, it is interesting to note, the voice of the educationist will be dominant. The committee have very wisely declared: "After careful consideration, we have arrived at the conclusion that a University possessing the wide administrative and educational powers which we propose, must be governed by a body in which professional and expert opinion will predominate. This we think we have secured by giving the members of the teaching staff a predominant voice in the counsels of the University. Under their influence we may rest certain that that body will not be unduly swayed by extraneous interests." Out of the seventy-five Fellows who are to constitute the Senate of the University, thirty-eight are to be members of the teaching staff of the colleges to be nominated by the Chancellor and it is to be expected there will be some more members of the educational profession among the fifteen Fellows to be elected by

Registered graduates and among the fourteen other Fellows to be nominated by the Chancellor. Provision has been made for the University being in close touch with the administration of the province, by empowering Government to nominate four officers to serve on the Senate, in addition to such *ex-officio* Fellows, as the Director of Public Instruction, the Bishop of Nagpur, and the Judicial and Financial Commissioners of the Province. An interesting feature of the composition of the Syndicate is that the Deans of the Faculties should be *ex-officio* members and there are to be in addition to them, the Director of Public Instruction and four Principals of Colleges representing various groups of colleges. There are also to be three members elected by the Senate, but one of them again is to be an educationist. The teaching element will thus predominate in the executive as well as the advisory bodies of the University and there will not be the pathetic spectacle of dabblers in education torturing the University with their persistent attentions and anxious to make a record of educational work for purposes other than the real advancement of the University or even of education in general.

The courses and syllabuses of study also display some features of special value. While the University of Madras is imposing upon the students of the Intermediate course in History a volume of reading which is as artificial as it is heavy, the new University will make the History branch of the Intermediate consist of Indian History of the British period, *Outlines* of English History including the expansion of the British Empire and a knowledge of simple economics, analytic and descriptive, with special reference to India and the economic Geography of India. The student in

Nagpur will not con by rote the legislation of Solon, the reforms of Lycurgus, and the causes of the Peloponnesian war, or enter into a minute study of the causes underlying the struggles between the Plebeians and the Patricians in early Rome or the agrarian agitation of the later Roman republic. He will read of the beneficent reforms of Lord William Bentinck, the expansion of the Indian empire, and the recent history of India, and will know of the material resources of the great country, from North to South and East to West. A knowledge of the general tenor of Grecian and Roman history is undoubtedly inspiring, but the policy of encumbering the brains of young Indian students, with every available detail concerning the histories of Greece and Rome and the industrial history of England—there is no limit to the comprehensiveness of the syllabuses of the Madras University—will find no countenance within the four walls of the University of Nagpur. The History course in the B.A., similarly includes the Hindu and Mahomedan periods of Indian History, and analytic and descriptive economics with special reference to India. Every body interested in the effective assimilation of Western culture in India will approve of such schemes for bringing the education imparted in the Universities, nearer the actual surroundings of Indian student.

Another interesting feature with regard to the courses of studies is the special provision made for the M.A. course after taking the B.A. Honours degree. All graduates, whether they have taken the mere Pass degree or Honours degree, will be eligible for the M.A., the former after a two years' additional course and the latter after a single year's additional course. The production of a thesis, sensibly

enough, is to form the special feature of the M.A. degree. The committee have avoided the danger, into which the Madras University has fallen, of unduly narrowing the range of the subjects studied by the Honours student, by prescribing a subsidiary course in a second subject for each student. Thus the student offering English for his Honours course will be acquiring some general culture by having to take up a subject like History or Philosophy or Economics and studying it, if not in any specialised form, at least with some general understanding of the outlines. The immaturity of intellect which must be the result of the present English Honours course of this University, where the callow Intermediate student proceeds to the Honours degree in English without any general culture, will not be allowed to exist in Nagpur. The inevitable evils of written examinations will be considerably reduced in the new University, by a wide adoption of *viva voce* examinations in the Honours, M. A. and even law courses. The special stress laid upon the tutorial system, to supplement the work of professors and lecturers, by providing for tutorial classes of twenty-five students each is another noteworthy feature of the scheme. With a view to securing the highest efficiency possible in the work of the professors, lecturers, and tutors, the committee have resolved wisely, upon limiting the work of teachers of all classes. No professor or lecturer in the University will be expected to deliver more than twelve lectures per week and no tutor give tutorial instruction for more than twenty hours a week. We are familiar with the 'sweating' of professors in colleges in this part of the Presidency and we are glad to see it will be effec-

tively prevented by University regulations in Nagpur.

The institution of a Director of Physical Education with control over a separate department of the University entrusted with the work of the periodical medical examination of students and the keeping of a record for the purpose and the supervision of their physical development, is a matter considerably in advance of the other Universities in India and deserving of imitation throughout the country. That the members of the Nagpur University Committee are men with some of the most progressive ideals of education is potent from the provision they have made for an Art Museum. The committee writes: "In addition to the ordinary courses of instruction which we have mentioned, the University, should, as far as possible, provide facilities for the artistic training of its students—a function which has hitherto been entirely ignored by Indian Universities. We need hardly say that we do not aim at the inclusion of courses of instruction in the Fine Arts in the regular curriculum of the University. But we are strongly of opinion that a University, which seeks to give a general culture, should at least provide its students with opportunities for the development of such artistic tastes as they may possess. A small collection of casts and paintings, representative of Eastern and Western art, would suffice in the first year and additions might be made from year to year. But, however modest its beginnings, a University Museum of Art should be established under the control of the University itself." Who will not applaud their decision?

In their zeal for efficiency and high standards of University life and education, the com-

mittee have not been unmindful of the case of poor students of the province who will find it no easy matter to share the benefits of the new University. They have made provision for a large number of bursaries, about a hundred, which will enable a number of poor students to have their education in the healthy and pleasant surroundings of a fine University at almost no cost to themselves.

Above all every attempt is to be made to create a sense of corporate University life among students by the creation of a University Union. There will also be a University Club for the teaching staff, which will serve to bring almost into daily contact, all those engaged in teaching in the University. There will be separate club-houses for the two organisations. There will also be a co-operative stores to be run by students for their own benefit, who will thus receive there their first lessons in co-operation. The students in residence will also be assigned to the charge of preceptors, each of whom will stand in *loco parentis* to fifty students. The scheme is thus a happy improvement upon the existing Universities of India and we have no doubt, that it will meet with the signal success, which it so richly deserves. The rise and growth of the new University will be watched with keen interest by educationists in this part of India.

P. SESHADRI.

The beautiful new building for the Madras Government College for Women is formally opened by H. E. the Governor on the 17th instant

"THE WAR"—ITS PLACE IN THE CLASS-ROOM.

MANY are the great wars that have been waged in the world's history but it is no exaggeration at all to say that, compared with the titanic war that is now going on in Europe, they will all be found to pale into insignificance. All the Great Powers of Europe are already involved in the mighty conflagration and the Smaller Powers too appear to be coming in one by one. The war has justly been characterised as an Armageddon for it certainly is in the nature of a spiritual conflict between the forces of light and those of darkness, in a word, between Right and Might. It is well-known that, for many years it has been the unrighteous ambition of Germany to absorb the smaller nationalities and to impose her will on Europe and that, with her needlessly inflated armaments, she has, all along, been a menace to European peace. It was recognised by England and her allies from the very beginning that, unless the German bully were stricken to the ground and her policy of 'mailed fist' discredited, there could be no settled peace and well-ordered progress in Europe. It is then, to secure lasting peace in Europe, to vindicate the sanctity of Treaties which, to Germany, are but "Scraps of paper" and to maintain the cause of smaller nationalities, that England and her allies have been carrying on the war with such unflinching courage and unshaken resolve. And now after more than a year's course of the war, during which Germany has been guilty of no few acts of diabolical wickedness and brutality, the allies have been fully able to understand what German 'kultur' is like and what German triumph would mean. It is no wonder then, that,

with the resources of mighty empires to fall back upon, and the sympathies of the whole civilised world to inspire them, the allies are now more determined than ever to carry the war through to a triumphant issue.

The interest felt in the war is universal and profound. It pervades all nations and all ranks and conditions of men. The eyes of the whole civilised world are fixed, day after day, on the course of events taking place on the gory battle-fields of Europe. The whole British Empire is 'one with Britain heart and soul' at this crisis and has made a splendid rally to the imperial cause. India, in special, has given a unique and magnificent response to Britain's call and thus borne eloquent testimony, to the fact that she is 'the brightest jewel in the British diadem.' Interest in the war, instead of being confined to courts and palaces or to the press, the pulpit and the platform, extends to the market-place and the bazaar and the lonely hamlets of untutored rustics. War telegrams and bulletins are in evidence even in out-of-the-way villages. The raids of the plucky 'Emden' are still fresh in men's minds. The rise in the prices of imports, the decrease of export-trade, the loss of employment and consequent distress on the part of the poor, the scarcity of money—all these have brought the economic effects of the war, home to all classes. Women and children too often display keen interest and curiosity in the events of the war and, not unfrequently, pester their educated husbands, fathers or brothers for 'war news.'

Coming to schools and colleges, we find that their juvenile members are second to none in the enthusiastic interest they take in the war. Newspapers are eagerly perused and war bulletins and news earnestly discussed

by them, if not in the class-room, at least in the Library or at the Coffee-Club or in the sports-grounds or at their evening parties. Even the children of the Primary department are not altogether devoid of war-interest. There is absolutely nothing unnatural in all this, seeing that youthful hearts are even warmer, more sensitive and more generous than those of older men and throb with pride or quiver with wrath or writhe in agony, more keenly and quickly than those of elders. Is all this enthusiasm and curiosity to be left unregulated and allowed to run riot? It seems to me that it is the solemn duty of every person who has the welfare of our young men at heart to gratify and regulate this enthusiasm and curiosity and make them a useful means of their intellectual and moral improvement.

It needs no saying that, to carry out this noble task, no one is more fitted or has better opportunities than the teacher himself. There cannot be a teacher who, if only he has the will for it and is prepared to take some pains, cannot find abundant scope in the course of his every-day lessons, to deal with topics bearing on the war. It is impossible even for the dullest teacher to whom the past is dead past, without any connecting links with the present, to handle subjects like History and Geography, without being constantly tempted into lively and luminous talks on some aspect or other of the many protean aspects of the colossal struggle. If he has failed to indulge in such talks, he has failed, to say the least of it, to make his lessons more intelligible, more interesting, more educative. Whether it be to gratify the curiosity or stimulate the enthusiasm of his pupils or to arouse a feeling of loyalty and patriotism in their minds or to enable them to understand the causes and events of the war in the right spirit and

without a distorted vision or to nourish their minds with a great deal of useful and captivating knowledge, frequent lessons on the war, in and out of the class-room are highly desirable.

Even as regards teachers of the Primary Department it is not desirable that they should be altogether mute in connection with the war. Nothing can delight the sprightly little urchins of the Primary department so much as to hear sensational stories about great men and great events and picturesque descriptions about objects of novelty or curiosity. There is absolutely no doubt that it would be such a rare treat to Primary children to be told, now and then, with glee or pathos or indignation as occasion demands, lively stories as regards such subjects as the origin of the war, the intrigues or aggressions of the Germans, the brave deeds of the soldiers and generals of the allies and of Indian soldiers, the deeds of shame and brutality wrought by Germany at sea and on land, the raids of the 'Emden' nearer home, etc. Further what a source of enjoyment—often painful, no doubt—and of instruction, must it be to them to be occasionally treated with descriptions, illustrated with pictures as far as possible, about such things as torpedoes, submarines, cruisers, trenches and trench-fighting, air craft, hospital ships with special reference to 'the Madras,' etc. Suitable opportunities for all this are sure to present themselves to the teacher in connection with story-telling and object-lessons as well as in English lessons.

Coming to the Secondary Department—especially the Upper Secondary Department—it is possible, as well as highly desirable, for the teacher to give, directly or indirectly, teaching of a higher order and a more systematic kind,

on the several aspects of the war. A great deal of useful and varied literature has been thrown up by the war and it is the duty of every teacher, as much for his own benefit as for that of his pupils, to make a free use of it all. I will now proceed to consider, very briefly, the opportunities that are present to the teacher, within the class-room, to deal with matters relating to the war.

Referring to geography lessons to start with, it should be observed that, especially when they deal with Europe, they cannot but afford enough and more scope to the teacher, to dwell upon a great many geographical points in connection with the war. It is almost a truism that, without a clear knowledge of the geographical features of Europe, on the physical as well as on the political side, it will be hard for one to understand the origin or follow the events of the war. Many are the geographical points that may well be explained in the class-room. The position of Britain "girt by the inviolate sea" and the consequent security that she enjoys, her position, at the same time, in such proximity to Europe as to render her liable to the submarine and aerial raids of the enemy, the geographical circumstance that has made Belgium the 'Cock-pit of Europe,' the strategic situation of Calais, the security that the Alps and the Carpathians somewhat afford to Austria and their effects on the operations of the allies, the importance of the integrity of Belgium to Britain and of her occupation to Germany, the value of the Baltic Provinces to Russia and the significance of the German operations in these regions, the fateful position of Serbia that has made her the victim of Austrian and German hate, the circumstance that has made an alliance with Turkey and Bulgaria an object of German policy, the significance of

English operations in the Dardanelles and the far-reaching results that might be expected to follow from their success, the importance of the position of Constantinople and the great role she has played from antiquity, the effects of winter on military operations, especially in Russia and the Balkans—these are some of the geographical points that are deserving of attention at the hands of the teacher. It may be observed in this connection that, while the geography of Europe can be made to elucidate the war to a great extent, the war too, in its turn, cannot but be of some use in elucidating the former.

Coming to History lessons, in the second place, it should be observed that, in dealing with the history of England and of Europe, no few opportunities will present themselves to the teacher to call the attention of his pupils to some of the historical phases of the war. It is well-known that instead of being a sudden and mysterious irruption, the war has its roots deep down in the past and is only the outcome of forces, tendencies, ideas and ideals long in operation. This historical background, it is essential for one to traverse, for a proper understanding of the origin and developments of the war.

In preparing the minds of his pupils to understand the origin of the war, so far, at any rate, as Germany is concerned, it will be necessary for the teacher to call their attention, to some extent, to the past history and traditions of Prussia, her growth as a military power ever since the time of Frederick the Great, the policy of "blood and iron" and the traditions of Machiavellian statecraft inaugurated by Bismark, the mischievous influence of Professors and writers like Nietzsche, Bernhardt, and Treitschke, the rapid growth of population in Germany in recent

years and her consequent desire for a 'place in the sun' her deadly hate towards England as a formidable rival in the way of her commercial and colonial expansion, her long-standing ambition to impose her will on Europe, to sweep away the British flag from the seas and to wrest from England some of her over-sea jewels, her restless intrigues in several countries of Europe in recent years, etc., etc. Secondly, the attention of the pupils may have to be called to the long-standing jealousy and hatred between the Teutons and the Slavs in Europe, between Austria and Serbia, for example, as much as representatives of rival races as because of the ambition of Austria to cleave a way to the Aegean through the Balkan Peninsula. Thirdly, it will be necessary for the pupils to know something about the past history of the Balkan Peninsula itself, the series of revolts by which the power of Turkey was shattered and her dominion reduced, the policy of England, Russia, France, etc. towards Turkey in the 19th century, the rise of strong independent States in the Peninsula and the important part played by Russia in that connection. Fourthly, some reference will have to be made to such events as the neutralisation of Belgium, the formation of the Triple Alliance and of the Triple Entente, etc. Lastly, as regards England, it may easily be seen that the motives with which she has engaged herself in the present war have been more or less the same as those which prompted her to take part in previous wars, that it has been her traditional policy to crush despots and protect smaller States, to be in fact 'the umpire and pacificator of Europe.'

In the course of his History lessons, it should be the aim of the teacher, whenever

possible, to call the attention of his pupils to parallels and contrasts in past history, in connection with the events and features of the present war. A few instances may be given. It can easily be shown that not merely in the present war but in all previous wars, the Navy of England has been her 'all in all,' that it has not merely kept her shores from invasion but struck effective blows at her enemies at all vulnerable points and brought about a remarkable expansion of her colonial empire. The alliance of England with France and Russia at the present day may be contrasted with her deadly rivalry with France in the 18th century and her strenuous resistance to Russian aggressions in the 19th. The sham German blockade of England in the present war may be compared with the paper blockade of the British Isles by Napoleon. The Kaiser's ambitions and aggressions may in some degree be compared to those of Napoleon and his diplomacy be contrasted with that of Bismark. It has been the misfortune of Belgium to be the 'cock-pit' not merely in the case of the present war but in the case of scores of wars in the past. The colonial character of the present war should be brought out and compared to that of the 18th century wars. The methods and engines of warfare employed in the present war should be carefully explained and compared or contrasted with those of previous wars. The novel developments of to-day, such as submarine and aerial raids and trench-fighting should specially be dwelt upon. For purposes of information on these and other matters, not merely text-books on modern European History may be consulted by the teacher but also the series of valuable tracts and booklets published by the Oxford Press, Macmillan & Co. and other firms and the

hundreds of excellent articles on the war that have been appearing in Newspapers and Journals, ever since its outbreak. Reference may also be made in this connection to that excellent book, "All about the War"—recently brought out by Messrs. Natesan & Co.—which is a mine of very useful and interesting information as regards the war.

Literature and composition lessons too may, to some extent, be called by the teacher to his aid in connection with the war. It is certainly desirable that patriotic verses calculated to inspire and stimulate the pupils should occasionally be read out and explained in the class and that, for composition exercises, topics connected with the war should, once in a way, be chosen. In science lessons, it will not be out of place for the teacher to give the pupils some instruction on such matters as the manufacture of bombs and bullets, the mechanism and working of torpedoes, submarines, aeroplanes, etc., which are more or less connected with his subject. If lessons were to be given on civics, as they ought to be, the attention of the students may with advantage be invited to the manifold benefits that India has derived from British rule, to the unique loyalty and patriotism that she has displayed in the present war and the great place that she is coming to occupy in the British Empire.

Lastly, it remains to be pointed out that, at meetings of the literary or debating society of the school, subjects in relation to the war may occasionally be taken up for essays or debates and that, at such meetings, under the strict and salutary supervision of teachers, a great deal of useful information may be imparted to the pupils. It is certainly

necessary for teachers to take part in and guide such meetings lest they take any undesirable turn or exercise any unhealthy influence over the juvenile members. It is desirable that the essays read at such meetings be previously sent to the headmaster or some other appointed teacher for approval. Finally, it has to be observed that, under the auspices of the school society, magic lantern lectures in connection with the war may occasionally be arranged for.

Coming to the College Department, more advanced lectures may well be given by the lecturers and professors on the manifold aspects of the war and on its historical background. Not a few opportunities will present themselves for this, in connection with the class lectures on modern History. In addition, under the auspices of the College Literary or Debating Society, a series of general lectures may be given by the College lecturers themselves or by outside gentlemen, on subjects directly or indirectly connected with the war or of a more general character such as the evolution of military and naval tactics from ancient times, the rules of International Law as applied specially to war and neutrality, the problem of a Slav federation in Europe, the history of the Eastern question, the development of English foreign policy, the history of the Hohenzollerns, Europe after 1878, the British Empire, its history and problems, India's place in the British Empire, etc. It need not be said that incalculable good may rightly be expected to accrue to students from lectures of this nature.

P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER.

ADAM SMITH ON EDUCATION.

IF the "Wealth of Nations" were as much read as talked about, these lines perhaps, would not have been written. But this great work, among other classics, has been more honoured in the neglect than in the reading. We live in an age when every one talks of culture, but few know in person the great ones of literature; when society prates about Shakespeare but does not know that the title-role of "Cymbeline" is not a woman's, when young ladies talk airily of Plato and Bergson, but wonder why so many quotations appear in "Hamlet."

An apology is also needed, it would seem for going for help in education to such an old-fashioned authority as Adam Smith in this age of Montessori and Liberty for children. The present writer's excuse for this lapse from grace is that of Samuel Rogers, the banker-poet who, I believe, used to say "Whenever a new book is published, I read an old one."

Like most philosophers of the 18th century Adam Smith placed a great value on education—that is to say, in the looser and more popular sense of instruction. The political benefits of education, so much insisted on by public men in India, were anticipated long ago by Adam Smith. "The State" he says, "derives an inconsiderable advantage from their (the people's) instruction. The more they are instructed, the less liable they are to the delusions of enthusiasm and superstition, which, among ignorant nations, frequently occasion the most dreadful disorders. An instructed and intelligent people, besides, are always more decent and orderly than an ignorant and stupid one. They feel themselves, each individually, more respect-

able and more likely to obtain the respect of their lawful superiors, and they are, therefore, more disposed to respect their superiors. They are more disposed to examine, and more capable of seeing through the interested complaints of faction and sedition, and they are, upon that account, less apt to be misled into any wanton or unnecessary opposition to the measures of Government." That sounds almost like a paragraph from Macaulay's famous Minute on Education or like a passage from one of the educational speeches of Mr. Gokhale. This belief in the political value of education seems to have lost none of its strength in spite of the disillusionment of a century of riots, strikes, panics and anarchism. If, of course, by education, Adam Smith and his followers meant discipline and the formation of character, their advocacy of education on political grounds would be above criticism. The State's duty to educate its citizens must be based on other reasons. Adam Smith himself tells us what these reasons are. "In some cases" he says, "the state of the society necessarily places the greater part of individuals in such situations as naturally form in them, without any attention of Government, almost all the abilities and virtues which that state requires or perhaps can admit of. In other cases, the state of the society does not place the greater part of individuals in such situations, and some attention of Government is necessary in order to prevent the almost entire corruption and degeneracy of the great body of the people." So the State is bound to educate its people not because education will decrease the number of policemen in the country, but because it is one of the means of a people's culture and enlightenment.

The common people have neither the leisure nor the means to afford that irreducible minimum of education which every citizen should possess. Therefore the State must see to the education of the poor. As Adam Smith puts it, "though the common people cannot in any civilised society be so well-instructed as people of some rank and fortune, the most essential parts of education, however, to read, write, and account, can be acquired at so early a period of life, that the greater part of those who are to be bred to the lowest occupations have time to acquire them before they can be employed in those occupations. For a very small expense the public can facilitate, can encourage, and even impose upon almost the whole body of the people, the necessity of acquiring those most essential parts of education." But this compulsion should be indirect and should not saddle the State with any great expense. "The public can impose upon almost the whole body of the people the necessity of acquiring those most essential parts of education, by obliging every man to undergo an examination or probation in them before he can obtain the freedom in any corporation, or be allowed to set up any trade, either in a village or town corporate." Although he would make elementary education compulsory, he has no desire to make it free. "The public" he says, "can facilitate this acquisition (of the three R's) by establishing in every parish or district, a little school where children may be taught for a reward so moderate, that even a common labourer may afford it; the master being partly but not wholly paid by the public because if he was wholly or even principally paid by it he would soon learn to neglect his business."

This disbelief in the educational value of fixed salaries paid either out of endowments or by the State you find also in Adam Smith's views on University Education. "The endowments of schools and colleges" he says, "have necessarily diminished more or less the necessity of application in the teachers. Their subsistence, so far as it arises from their salaries is evidently derived from a fund altogether independent of their success and reputation in their particular professions." He recognises, however, that for purposes of research and in the case of conscientious teachers fixed emoluments are worth keeping. But he cannot shut his eyes to the fact that "whatever forces a certain number of students to any College or University, independent of the merit or reputation of the teachers, tends more or less to diminish the necessity of that merit or reputation.....No discipline is requisite to force attendance upon lectures which are really worth the attendance." The compromise, of which he speaks, "where the salaries make but a part, and frequently but a small part of the emoluments of the teacher, of which the greater part arises from the honoraries or fees of his pupils" is perhaps the best way out of the difficulty of choice between two extreme policies. It has been tried and has proved a success at the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford in the case of the large body of University lecturers. It might be brought to the notice of the foster-fathers of the Universities that are going to be in India.

Adam Smith's views on University education are interesting at this moment in view of the enthusiasm for Universities which has taken hold of both the Government and the people. India in the matter of Universities, as in that of other public institutions, goes

for her models to the West; so that the ability to choose with wisdom between various patterns of the institution is of the highest importance. Are the Universities of India to be fashioned after the modern University of America, or are they to preserve the older ideals of the ancient Universities of Cambridge and Oxford? Are only those subjects to be taught in Universities that will be materially useful to the student when he goes out into the world, or are the less obviously useful subjects like the Classics, Philosophy, the Humanities, in one word, to have a place and a prominent place in a scheme of University education? Here is Adam Smith's reply to this question, "The parts of education which are commonly taught in Universities, it may, perhaps, be said are not very well taught. But had it not been for those institutions, they would not have been commonly taught at all, and both the individual and the public would have suffered a good deal from the want of those important parts of education." If the Humanities are driven from Universities where on earth will they find a refuge?

Well-endowed Universities run the risk of becoming stagnant pools of thought. As Adam Smith says "The greater part of Universities have not been very forward to adopt those improvements (in philosophy) after they were made, and several of those learned societies have chosen to remain for a long time the sanctuaries in which exploded systems and obsolete prejudices found shelter and protection, after they had been hunted out of every other corner in the world. In general, the richest and best-endowed Universities have been the slowest in adopting those improvements, and the most averse to permit any considerable change in the

established plan of education." His remedy for this evil is hinted at in the following sentence: "Those improvements were more easily introduced into some of the poorer Universities in which the teachers, depending upon their reputation for the greater part of their subsistence, were obliged to pay more attention to the current opinions of the world."

It cannot be denied that Universities are monopolists in the trade of higher teaching; and Adam Smith, true to his principle of freedom, stands up for the liberty of teaching. "In modern times" he says, "the diligence of public teachers is more or less corrupted by the circumstances which render them more or less independent of their success and reputation in their particular profession. Their salaries, too, put the private teacher who would pretend to come into competition with them in the same state with a merchant who attempts to trade without a bounty in competition with those who trade with a considerable one.....The most careful attendance upon the ablest instructions of any private teacher cannot always give any title to demand them. The endowments of schools and colleges have in this manner not only corrupted the diligence of public teachers, but have rendered it almost impossible to have any good private ones."

The education of women, in India as in other countries, has become a public affair. Adam Smith would have deplored it if he were living in our times. "There are no public institutions" he says "for the education of women, and there is, accordingly, nothing useless, absurd, or fantastical in the common course of their education. They are taught what their parents or guardians judge it necessary or useful for them to learn, and

they are taught nothing else. Every part of their education tends evidently to some useful purpose, either to improve the natural attractions of their person, or to form their minds to reserve, to modesty, to chastity; to render them both likely to become mistresses of a family, and to behave properly when they have become such." These words of Adam Smith might make those who have been bitten with a zeal for the education of women on the same lines as that of men, at least to pause and reconsider their position.

One would hardly expect a professor of political economy to-day to be a militarist. But Adam Smith belonged to a saner and a more virile generation. No system of education, he believes, is complete which does not compel the practice of military exercises. "A coward" he says, "a man incapable of defending or of revenging himself evidently wants one of the most essential parts of education. He is as much mutilated and deformed in his mind as another is in his body, who is either deprived of some of his most essential members or has lost the use of them..... Even though the martial spirit of the people were of no use towards the defence of the society, yet to prevent that sort of mental mutilation, deformity, and wretchedness which cowardice necessarily involves in it, from spreading themselves through the great body of the people, would still deserve the most serious attention of the Government, in the same manner as it would deserve its most serious attention to prevent a leprosy, or any other loathsome and offensive disease, though neither mortal nor dangerous from spreading itself among them; though, perhaps, no other public good might result from such attention besides the prevention of so great a public evil.

Adam Smith was not a mere dry-as-dust economist. He had a right to speak on education. Educated at the Universities of Glasgow and Oxford, he was a very successful Professor of Moral Philosophy at Glasgow. He was quoted by Macaulay in his famous speech on education in the House of Commons. He looked at education from the point of view of economy and culture. And it is hoped, his views on University education and education in general, if they cannot revolutionise the educational opinion of this country, will at least make that opinion informed and well-founded.

M. RATHNASWAMY.

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DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS.*

Mr. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN:

Introduction.

THE subject which I have chosen for to-night's discussion is Discipline in Schools. It is a subject in which all of us are equally interested. I admit that it is not one of the burning questions of the day in the educational world, like Denominational Universities, the Higher Education of Women, Free Compulsory Elementary Education or the Position of the Vernaculars in Secondary and Collegiate Courses of Studies. From a general point of view, it pales into insignificance by the side of such subjects as these or even by that of the much-criticised and much-abused School-Final system. But I claim that it yields to none else in its bearing on the teaching profession and from a pedagogue's point of view it is of the last importance. Unlike the other subjects in which every educated man is entitled to express his own views, this subject requires and deserves treatment at the hands of experts. Further, unlike the other subjects in which any solution requires the co-operation of a number of parties outside the teaching profession, the overcoming of any difficulties in the field of discipline requires only the right understanding of certain principles forming the basis of the art of teaching and the determination to carry them out, on the part of the teaching profession. Thus the solution lies mostly in our own hands. Hence, if I should stimulate thought and induce those among you who are, owing

to the natural conservative instinct of men, going along old ruts, to tread along other paths, my purpose will be more than fulfilled.

Meaning of Discipline.

I am not prepared to enter into any learned disquisition on the meaning and scope of the term 'discipline.' Discipline in a school may for all practical purposes be taken to mean the relation between the teacher and the taught. It is not an independent entity, but is the product of a number of factors, the most important of which are the nature of the organization in the school, the morale and the ability of the teachers to handle their respective subjects and the suitability or otherwise of the curriculum, regard being had to the nature and age of the pupils. It is a common thing for two different persons to have two different opinions on the nature of the discipline or 'tone' of a particular school. But any body who observes the working of a school for a pretty long period can understand what its real tone is. Inspectors and men of that sort pass remarks after a mere surface observation. It seems to be an extreme view,—that of those that say that he who runs may read the nature of the discipline in a school. What may appear excellent to a passing observer may contain foibles which a more searching investigation will unfold and a generalisation made from a trifling but obtruding defect may have to be modified considerably, nay, even completely, after a closer scrutiny of the deeper and more abiding characteristics of true discipline.

Direct religious and moral training in schools.

Good discipline is an end in itself being the basis of the moral training of the pupils. It is an open question whether this moral training derivable from the school can be accelerated

* A paper recently read by Mr. A. Natesa Aiyar, B.A., L.T., London Mission High School, Salem, before the Salem Teachers' Association with Principal P. Seshadri, M.A., the President, in the chair.

and given a stamp of permanence, by a course of systematic religious and moral instruction. It is not safe to express any opinion on this point, for, to do so before any audience will divide it into two hostile camps and the speaker will be drawing a hornet's nest about him. However, with all due deference to the advocates of direct religious and moral teaching in schools, I may say that they are visionaries, oblivious of the innumerable limitations within which a school-master, especially in India, has to act and of the weaknesses of human nature to which he is, like other men, prone. It is a counsel of perfection to say that a teacher must be a paragon of virtue. I do not for a moment underrate the importance of high character in teachers, but to insist upon an inaccessible high standard of morality in teachers, just as men outside our profession usually do, is only crying for the moon. Even though it is not possible or even desirable for all school-masters to play the role of direct moral and religious teachers, let them see that they practise what they preach, if they should give the pupils any advice on general morality. Let not any pupil say to the teacher, 'Physician, heal thyself.'

Discipline an end in itself.

Good discipline is an end in itself whether brought about by direct moral teaching or by incidental reference to moral principles in the course of teaching the several subjects of the school curriculum or by the various other influences brought to bear on the pupil in the school. Says Mr. P. Seshadri, our learned President, in the course of an address given to the students of the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, "To be able to obey in youth is to be able to command in later life, and the self-control implied

in collegiate discipline, if properly understood and properly developed, is at the root of all great achievements in the world, forming the basis of all successful execution of one's duties in life."

Good discipline as basis of instruction.

Even though it is a debatable point whether the school-master should give set lessons in religion and morals, there can be no controversy about the duty imposed upon the teacher of giving instruction in the subjects entrusted to his charge to the best of his abilities. In order that this task may at all be done, good discipline is an indispensable requisite. We, as practical teachers, are more concerned with this aspect of discipline and the main object of this paper is to set forth an almost attainable ideal of discipline in our schools and also practical means whereby that ideal may be achieved. Good discipline in a school may be compared to external and internal peace in a country, whereas a state of bad discipline resembles the condition of war. In a state of war, either foreign or civil, all schemes of reform are, for the time being, shelved and no progress is made in any department of national activity inside the country. Similarly so long as there is at school a state of loose or no discipline, progress in teaching must either be retarded considerably or cease altogether.

External manifestations of discipline.

The next question is this—What are the external manifestations of good discipline? Briefly put, it is the fulfilment of those conditions in a school which makes teaching firstly possible and secondly as effective as it can be. In a good school at work, there should be the busy hum of work, neither

funereal silence nor a babel of tongues. The pupils must be punctual and must never be loitering in the verandahs or compound. They must be regular in their attendance and must not be absent on flimsy reasons. Each pupil must mind his own business. There should be no unpleasant scenes between the teacher and any pupil or pupils. Any movements of pupils from one classroom to another or to the drill-ground, must be done quietly, if not with military regularity and precision. The pupils should be *en rapport* with the teachers taking a keen interest in their expositions.

A drawback of collective teaching.

While admitting that the catechetical method is the only correct method in the education of the young, it must be confessed that collective teaching does not lend itself perfectly to this method. In individual teaching, a pupil may be led on, by questions and answers framed according to his own abilities. In collective teaching, the interest of a number of pupils has to be consulted. That means a compromise, an adjustment, a policy of give and take. There is the consideration that the teacher should not attend to one particular boy or a particular type of boys. Questions have to be distributed among all the boys and various kinds of answers must naturally be expected. So the current of mental activity of a pupil has to be checked or directed into other channels. Consequently there is sure to be a certain amount of impatience especially on the part of the better section of the class. Such impatience has to be checked and too much license should not be given to any pupil to interrupt the lesson. Pupils who are over-inquisitive to learn may be a delight in individual teaching but are not very welcome in collective teaching.

Compensating advantage of collective teaching.

Collective teaching has the compensating advantage that it trains the pupil to exercise self-control. He is made to think that he is to subordinate himself to the general needs of the class. There is a necessity to put a check on his tongue. He must not consider his own convenience and progress as the only aim. Collective teaching conducted with proper discipline prepares the pupils for taking part in larger assemblies, such as political and other bodies. Our learned President in the address to which I have already referred has given the following estimate of Indian students, so far as discipline is concerned. "They are easily amenable to discipline and are remarkably docile in their attitude to the authorities concerned. But much of it seems to proceed from their inherent mildness and reverence for authority rather than from any reasoned appreciation of the need for subordinating one's convenience for the general good and of the great moral effect which a rigorous observance of discipline has upon character." It is a well-known and widely-admitted fact that our boys are rarely bullies or dare-devils. But the defect which has pointed out in his character is at times more sickening to the soul and makes the life of the schoolmaster a series of little worries. The impudent and bravado spirit has at least some romance about it. But the boy who knows not when to put a question to the teacher or when to go to him with a request is a veritable nuisance. In order that collective teaching may be carried on with success, it is essential that each boy must learn how to exercise a little self-restraint and how not to put his own advantage as the foremost consideration.

Ideal of discipline.

What should be the ideal of discipline in collective teaching? In the practical life of the world, no principle or rule of conduct taken by itself is perfectly correct and while there are conflicting principles, the golden mean is the only proper line of action. We should not take as our model either German militarism with its utter effacement of the individuality of the citizen or the individualistic self-assertion prevailing among the carnivorous beasts. Mild yet firm discipline is the only ideal either in the political or in the educational world. Moreover, to have obeyed with a conviction that the obedience was deserved and reasonable is a training for rulership, but to have obeyed blindly is the best training ground for tyranny. The best examples for the latter are parents and teachers who have been tyrannically treated by their own parents or teachers and, when they assume the later role, practise the same tyrannical methods. Hence, we should try to instil into our pupils a love of discipline or at least a feeling that obedience to the teacher is necessary in their own interests. In discipline, we have to steer clear of the Scylla of harshness and tyranny on the one hand and the Charybdis of laxity and undue license on the other. The iron rule of school discipline which prevailed in Europe one or two centuries ago and in this country a few decades back even in schools where English was taught is to be condemned. Such is even now the case in the so-called pial schools. It is within my experience that the fear of the teacher was so keen that it was an ordinary thing for pupils to lose control over their excretory organs at times. The school-master was an object of terror and it was common for school boys to hide themselves from the

notice of the teacher even if they should be engaged in out-door games. Happily such a state of things has entirely disappeared in schools which are not pial schools but it seems to me that the pendulum has swung to the other extreme. The teacher has become in most cases a chum of the boys. Action and reaction following—this seems to be the law even in the educational world. But most school-masters are lax in discipline, not from having imbibed the principles and methods of Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Fröbel who were the exponents of the reaction from the Jesuit ideal of rigour in discipline but on account of their easy-going habits and lack of earnestness. The older generation of teachers in Southern India, at any rate, strike me as men who were wedded to the profession and in spite of their drawbacks—hot temper and utter ignorance of the principles of psychology and the art of teaching—were more respected by the boys. It may be that we have lost the old-world reverence for age, but the excessive familiarity which characterises the relation between the present pupils and some of the teachers is not commendable. In love for the profession and earnestness of purpose, the teachers of the old school were far superior to most of the modern school-masters. In the case of the former, imparting instruction was the very breath of their nostrils and they wore the pedagogue's mantle wherever they went. It seems to me that we have to take from these at least one lesson—absorption in the duties of the profession. Lack of earnestness and a lamentable want of will-power are the reasons why so many of the teachers have lost all control over the pupils. When too late, their eyes are opened and they recognise the initial mistake committed and resignedly give themselves up to what they think to be the

inevitable drawback of the profession and feel very miserable. I would therefore warn teachers against loose methods of discipline at the outset of their profession and of their contact with a new set of pupils.

General directions to secure discipline.

I shall now proceed to point out briefly the points to which the teacher must pay great attention. He must insist upon perfect silence in the class-room and only one pupil at a time should be allowed to speak. He must exercise his discretion in answering or in refusing to answer questions put by the pupils. The benefit of the whole class should be the only criterion and not that of one precocious, forward, inquisitive or dull boy. Such boys must be strictly warned not to interrupt the work of the class, save under very extraordinary circumstances. Boys should be told that the teacher will be perfectly ready to clear their doubts, if any, out of school hours. Even here, they must be informed that they should not ask the teacher to repeat a point already mentioned in the class. As the class naturally consists of boys of different mental calibre and different aptitudes, it is inevitable that some are bound to feel that the teaching is not suitable for them. In any case, the teacher must insist upon perfect self-restraint and absence of any symptom of inattention such as reading newspapers or novels or talking with other pupils or drawing pictures. It seems to me to be a very necessary and useful lesson to learn how to be physically inactive keeping the mind busy and even how to put up with boredom. Such a training received by boy at school will stand them in good stead in later life. In our daily lives, we experience numerous occasions for the exercise of patience and self-restraint, for instance, in a

public gathering before the business begins, on the station platform before the train arrives or in the midst of a company of friends and acquaintances, when one of them is indulging in useless talk. Such instances may be multiplied without number. Persons that have received proper training do not show any signs of impatience or fidgetiness which are characteristic of less polished natures. I may in this connection refer to the 'Lessons in Silence' so vividly described by Madame Montessori in her treatise on Method. I wish that all of us had undergone this kind of training. It is no doubt incumbent upon teachers to make the teaching as interesting as possible but let the pupils be made to clearly understand that their duty is not to show any signs of inattention or impatience when the teacher is going on with the lesson even if they think that the lesson is not suitable to them. Such exercise of self-restraint on the part of pupils is the very basis of discipline in the class.

How pupils are to be treated outside school.

Even though I would advocate a certain appropriate degree of studied display of superiority in the teacher when he is in the class, I would condemn any display of the touch-me-not attitude or putting on airs or treating pupils with scant courtesy outside the class and especially when they visit us in our homes. The relationship then should be perfectly friendly and almost on equal terms. But we have to take care that undue intimacy does not degenerate into vulgarity. Let us make the boys understand that they must make a difference between the teacher in the class and the teacher outside the class or in his own home. This training is very much needed in this country where we have to

learn how to differentiate between the private capacity of an individual and his public capacity. I know an instance where a great but haughty lawyer had to plead before a Judge who was his own younger brother. When an indiscreet and hasty remark fell from the lawyer's lips, the Judge coolly pointed out that he was addressing the Court and not his younger brother.

The important agencies tending towards good discipline.

Thus, I have been at some pains to point out what seems to me to be the ideal relationship between the teacher and the taught in the schools under our charge. Let me next proceed to mention rapidly the important factors that go to the formation and maintenance of good discipline. They are good organisation, suitability of curriculum, the headmaster and the teacher himself. Let me deal with these in order briefly.

Good organisation.

The first requisite for the maintenance of discipline in the class is good organisation. The class-rooms should be properly lighted and ventilated. The attention of boys will be disturbed if the class-room is by the side of the street or of another class or of a passage or corridor through which persons are frequently walking. The seats should be suitable and convenient for the pupils. The black-board which should be on the left side of the teacher's seat should be visible to all the boys. If the parallel arrangement of seats is adopted, the teacher should sit on a platform so that his face might be seen by all the boys. It is impossible to expect the teacher to stand always and to teach. When written examinations are conducted, the pupils should be seated sufficiently apart and there should be

efficient supervision; otherwise, we expose them to the temptation to copying. Owing to the almost daily examinations in the present S. S. L. C. system and owing to the absence of adequate seating arrangements, pupils in the High School classes have come to think that copying is a matter of course and we have also to wink at it. The sooner the worry of these daily examinations is got rid of, the better. The drill-ground should be protected from the sun with shady trees and the ground must be smooth enough in order that the boys might not complain of pebbles or thorns.

There should be suitable arrangements for supplying the boys with drinking water and there must be special tiffin rooms for them. Teachers must insist upon boys' taking tiffin, during the interval. The system of commencing the day's work at about 10 o'clock which obtains in offices and educational institutions is not suitable for the Indians who are accustomed to take the heaviest meal in the day time and that meal is generally not ready before 11 o'clock. Unless we change this habit and have a light breakfast at about 9, Indian students and officers must suffer as they do at present. Students taking a hurried, stingingly hot and insufficiently cooked meal and almost running to school cannot be expected to be attentive to school-work. Further, the system of insisting upon students to wear a coat and a cap irrespective of any climate is the cause of much uneasiness. I would very much like to adopt the system of decent clothing according to Hindu ideas, at least in hot climates.

Teachers must visit the pupils and their guardians in their homes and make suggestions regarding the conveniences of the boys in matters relating to food, tiffin, furniture and light.

The time-table should be framed by the headmaster after consultation with all the teachers. The most difficult lessons must come when the students are freshest. Lessons requiring great mental effort and not requiring so much effort must alternate.

Entire absence or insufficiency of suitable teaching appliances such as apparatus, models, charts, diagrams and specimens is a great drawback in most of our schools. Every school should have a good museum and a magic lantern with historical, scientific and geographical slides.

Suitability of curriculum.

The second factor that affects the discipline of the school is the suitability of the curriculum. From this point of view, the S. S. L. C. system is in many respects to be condemned. The scant attention naturally paid to the B group subjects owing to their having no examination value is a fruitful source of lack of discipline in the classes in which these subjects are taught. They are the Cinderella among the subjects for the School-Final Examination and nobody cares for them. Some subjects, for instance, Physics and Chemistry as prescribed for the course, are too high for the standard. The specialisation within specialisation which obtains in English History is intolerable. How can discipline be kept, when the boys know that the subjects taught are valueless from the point of view of the examination or when they feel the subject too difficult for them? We cannot expect from boys of immature understanding, as our High School students are, a love of knowledge for its own sake.

The Headmaster.

The third factor in the establishment of good discipline is the head-master. It may

be said with a great amount of truth that the school is the reflection of the headmaster. He is the fountain-head of discipline and if he is lax, the position of the assistant-masters becomes extremely trying. The headmaster should feel that any insult or affront to any of his assistants has been given to himself. Any case reported to him should be severely and promptly dealt with. While the headmaster should make it an invariable rule to punish any student reported to him for punishment, the assistant-master should think, not twice, but ten times before he sends the case to the headmaster. He must do so only in case all the remedies in his power are exhausted. If an assistant reports frequently, he is sure to be disliked by the headmaster. The latter in such a case should talk to the assistant in private and offer suggestions for his improvement as a disciplinarian. If a case is reported to the headmaster and if he does not take action, it means that the headmaster does not like him, and he will do well to seek employment elsewhere. The headmaster should take particular care not to criticise any teacher in the presence of the pupils. Such a procedure cuts at the root of discipline. In a good school, the students must feel that the headmaster and his assistants are of one mind.

The Teacher.

The fourth and the most important factor in the maintenance of discipline is the teacher himself. First of all he must be free from physical defects. Good personality in a teacher is a very desirable thing, no doubt, but it is not indispensable. The teacher's character, at least so far as it is observable by the pupils must be above blame. He must never indulge in vulgar or indecent language

The teacher's knowledge of the subjects which he teaches must be adequate for the standard. Fitch in his "Lectures on Teaching" says that there is an inevitable waste in the very process of communication of knowledge. So the teacher must know much more than he is expected to teach. No mannerism should be used since the attention of the boys is drawn to them and there is the waste of time in uttering automatically a string of words so many times in the course of the lesson. The commonest mannerisms among Indians are 'of course,' 'in fact,' 'you see,' 'now see,' 'very well then.' Let every teacher watch his own language closely at all times and take scrupulous care not to acquire any mannerisms. Another common mistake of teachers is that they repeat the ends of the answers given by the pupils. If the whole answer is repeated deliberately for the sake of effect, it is desirable but repetition of the ends of answers automatically is sheer waste of time and does not tend to the concentration of attention in the pupils. The habit of some teachers to say out a sentence almost completely and stop short at the end expecting the boys to finish it is highly to be condemned. This leads to simultaneous answering and consequently a babel of voices. The teacher cannot find out which student or students were the origin of the right or the wrong answer and also the less forward boys take no interest in the lesson. The teacher should modulate his voice to the size of the class. He should not speak too loud or too low. He must learn how to manage the class with the eye and the ear and not with the voice. If pupils know that nothing escapes the notice of the teacher, they are less likely to commit mischief. In order to secure attention, the teacher should always direct his

eyes towards the class and not at any book or outside the class. Even when reading from a book, he should look at the book only occasionally. He should be steady at one spot whether he sits or stands. He should not be walking up and down the room and at the same time going on with the lesson. Let the teacher never expose his back to the pupils. Even when writing on the black-board let him not turn his full back to the class and let him frequently turn his eyes back.

Teachers who find it rather difficult to manage boys owing to defective eye-sight, meagre appearance or any other cause may do well not to move with boys very closely outside the class. Let them be kept at arm's length. Let such teachers talk with the boys only in English. Insisting upon talking only in English is, in most cases, a good preventive of breaches of discipline.

Ability in the art of rapid questioning is an extremely useful qualification for a teacher. The system of questioning the pupils in order should never be followed. Let every pupil be ready to be put a question at any time. The teacher should not put questions looking at the text-book and going through the lesson line by line. The habit of some teachers leaving their seat and going to each student for questioning must be given up.

Let not the teacher create in the minds of boys the impression that he would never lose his temper and that he is a soft man or a saint. A little display of anger on occasions which call for it is very necessary, but let not the teacher actually lose his temper.

Let the teacher insist upon pupils sitting or standing properly. Let him not sit awkwardly in the chair or throw his legs over the table. In order that we may get respect from the boys, we must respect them.

Finally, let the teacher always bear in mind that one great secret of discipline is to keep the boys busy. Breaches of discipline are mostly caused by the boys not having anything to do.

Punishments.

A discourse on discipline cannot be complete without at least a passing reference to the punishments which the teacher can inflict for transgression of the rules of discipline. They are expulsion from the school, suspension from the class, corporal punishment, fining, forfeiture of marks, imposition, detention after school hours, standing on the form and ridicule. Let me deal with these briefly.

Expulsion is an extreme punishment. It has been wisely laid down that this can be done only with the permission of the Inspector. Resorting to this punishment denotes to some extent that the school authorities are too powerless to bring the boy round. But for the sake of setting an example, it has to be resorted to in such cases as immoral practices, flagrant insubordination, rioting and gross insult to any teacher.

Suspension from class is objectionable, for it prevents the boy from following the class work. However, if the teacher wants to be rid of an impertinent or extremely talkative boy, at least for a short time, let him resort to it.

The power to inflict corporal punishment has been given only to the headmaster. It is desirable that this rule is relaxed to this extent:—such teachers as are competent to administer this punishment in the opinion of the headmaster may be given written authority to resort to it and let there be a record of the occasions on which it is administered. Corporal punishment in schools

is an unpleasant necessity, like capital punishment in law. When this punishment is inflicted, which must be done only in extreme cases, the headmaster should be serious and must not be in a light, jocular mood. He must display signs of having been offended and must manifest a feeling of loathing and contempt for the culprit. It must be given with such a force that the boy must slightly smart under it and not treat it lightly afterwards. Most headmasters are not particular about this point.

Fining has to be adopted when the guardian has to be punished. Such cases are unpunctuality, not having the required text-books or exercise books, truancy or absence from examinations.

Forfeiture of marks is a very effective punishment in the lower classes where boys attach much importance to rank in the class. In the higher classes, this sort of punishment is too serious in the interests of the pupil, owing to the fact that school-marks are recognised in the School-Final system. However, it must be resorted to in cases of copying.

Imposition is an effective punishment in light cases, but when it is resorted to at all, it is likely to assume great proportions. It may be resorted to to impress a point in the lesson on the pupil's mind. Let the teacher insist upon the imposed work being done neatly and not in a slovenly fashion.

Standing on the form or ridicule of any kind are objectionable forms of punishment and must be resorted to only in cases where the pupil is sensitive enough to feel it and even here it must be sparingly inflicted in order that the sensitiveness may not be dulled. In the case of thick-skinned boys, these forms of punishment do no good and make all boys look upon such punishments as mere matters

of course. Hence, it is a very objectionable sight to have a regular row of boys standing on the bench as is often seen in the lower classes.

Detention after school hours is a very effective punishment. This is to be resorted to for unpunctuality or irregularity due to the pupil's own fault and want of preparation of lesson at home. If the teacher could make the boy learn the lesson after school hours, it will be beneficial. This punishment is effective only in the case of boys who recognise the value of time especially in the evenings. It should not be resorted to frequently, as it interferes with the hours of physical recreation which is needed so much both by the teacher and the pupil.

Let the teacher understand clearly when these several punishments should be administered and give that punishment which is appropriate to the nature of the delinquent and to the occasion.

Conclusion.

In conclusion, I thank you for the patient hearing you have given me and I trust that, whatever may be the shortcomings of this paper, it will impel you to adopt sound methods of discipline and that, as a consequence, your professional life may be made happier than it would otherwise be.

The Convocation of the Punjab University will be held on the 23rd December 1915.

THE SCOPE OF HISTORY.

Part I.

HISTORY, as the name indicates, is but the fuller form of story; and whatever else it is not, it is primarily and fundamentally a story. We do not use the latter word usually to denote history, because there are certain implications attached to it which preclude us from doing so. History is systematic, accurate, and dignified, whereas story need not possess these qualities. There is another word which is often used synonymously with story. In common parlance, fiction means very much the same as story or tale, and hence the associations of these terms naturally cling to the former also. Our idea of fiction is that of an interesting concoction with a view to amuse the reader rather than give him information. Popularly therefore, it has come to be identified with untruth, and as such an antithesis has come to be established between fiction and truth. But it is not correct to say that fiction is mere "yarning" or purely imaginative production, for in the majority of cases it deals with probability. On the other hand, story is usually an ethereal production with little or no claim to a basis of reality or truth. Paradoxical as it may be, fiction seeks truth; whereas story, having no pretensions to advance that way, suggests a greater degree of untruth than fiction has acquired. Hence it is that we avoid the use of the term to denote the science of history.

The idea of history as a science has taken a long time to evolve. Such a brilliant and recent historian as Froude has been led into many inaccuracies for which modern historians take him to task, simply because he did not view history from the scientific stand-

point. The roots of history being in obscurity and interlaced with much legendary matter, it is pardonable if one does not believe in it as a serious and systematic study. Two eye-witnesses giving an account of a quite recent occurrence, differ so much in their versions, that trust in the accuracy of even the most modern history may well be shaken. Yet allowing for human frailty, much of what history contains is accurate enough for our purposes.

History, as we have already said, has its origins in fiction. We sift the truth out of fiction to get at the most probable and continuous account of a people. The earliest records of Greece and Rome, India and England, Egypt and Palestine, and indeed all civilised nations are legendary. Real history emerges out of mythological stories and ætiological fiction when we discard the improbabilities and put new meanings into old legends. The various tales that circumscribe Rome from its foundation to the fall of monarchy, the elaborate legends connected with the fall of Troy, the scriptural stories in the Book of Daniel to account for the fall of the Assyrian Empire, and the concoction which ascribes the foundation of the kingdom of Albion (England) to Brutus, the descendant of Æneas, are all instances in point. Our own Ramayana and Mahābaratha, and the numerous other treatises dealing with those times, regarded from a historical standpoint, are only exaggerated and picturesque narratives of events which occurred about B. C. 1500.

We tread on surer ground when we are able to base history on written documents, inscriptions on rocks and metal plates. Much of the ancient history of India is compiled from epigraphic and numismatic evidence. But a certain amount of civilization and pro-

gress in arts and learning on the peoples' part is presupposed, if they are to leave any such records. Many of the legends that we have mentioned above are mere concoctions of the succeeding generations, who, having evinced a desire to unearth the history of their ancestors, have invented these as most probable, because they could not proceed far in their inquiry. A very striking instance of this nature is furnished to us in the opening chapters of the Book of *Genesis* where the Hebrews, having tried to probe into the distant past satisfy themselves with deistic fiction to account for the existence of man, and other organic and inorganic matter on the earth. Even as late as the Twelfth Century of our era, Geoffrey of Monmouth tried to palm off as history what sprang from his own or others' brain.

There is more than one reason why the ancients satisfied themselves with mere myths. Love of novelty and strange occurrences being so much ingrained in humanity, people cared more for what interested and amused them than for what was true. They were so taken with the artistic and the beautiful that they did not care to question the veracity of a legend, simply because it satisfied their cravings. Moreover, they had little patience to search after truth which our present-day scientists and antiquaries have attained, after years of training. They were also less methodical in their inquiry so that they were quite willing to accept an improbable myth to account for almost anything. It is only by degrees when peoples' love of artistic legends had been gratified that they seriously began to devote themselves to the record of truth. In Greece and Rome the poet and the playwright had so satiated the citizens that they found their way to the comparatively dry as-

dust historian and the sophistic philosopher.

In the history of human development the strange and the artistic take possession of men's mind prior to the sober and the recondite. The comparatively dry sciences of History and Philosophy therefore flourish after Folklore, Poetry and Drama, have had their day. Thus in the progress of Letters, there has been a period when the latter held a predominant position, and a succeeding period when the various sciences also claimed attention. We are able to glean our facts for the history of the first period, through researches into the literary productions of the time, while for the second, we have records of the old historians.

The oldest written documents that have been the father of true history, either the dry chronological records or the eloquent panegyric of the court poet and the scholar, in prose or in verse. History is based upon fact; but it does not consist in fact. It is not a catalogue of events as the Chronicle or the Annal; neither is it an exaggerated and biased version of facts. The real historian is expected to bring his critical judgment to bear upon the facts recorded, wherever he may find them. The early history of England is to a great extent constructed from the various chronicles begun in Alfred's reign and continued in many monasteries, the latest coming down to the reign of Henry II.

The history of Nations before the time of written records is being slowly built up by archaeologists. Here we shall attempt to indicate the scope of history by giving an account, noting only the broadest tendencies, of the civilisation and institutions of man.

However remote a period may be and

however much hidden in obscurity, we can be sure of one institution which has been constantly present in all known races of man. Kingship is of great antiquity and is remarkable for the important part it has played in history. Kingship in germ is found in the father of the family, who not only had absolute power over the members of the family but gained also much veneration being the performer of religious ceremonies. The family was the unit; a number of families made the clan; a number of clans made the tribe. The head of these groups was the oldest man, but more often it was the man of valour who was chosen, because the times were rude. The elective title of the chief gradually became hereditary when successive heads of the tribe were chosen from the same house. In course of time also the mere chief of the tribe assumed a distinguishing title, such as king.

Kingship has developed on different lines in East and West; or rather, it did not develop at all in the East. Oriental monarchs have always been either partially or completely absolute, except perhaps in Japan which has transformed itself quite recently. In Europe, monarchy has had a long history. In the Fourteenth and the succeeding centuries, Christianity had put the King on a high pedestal by declaring him to have been appointed by God to rule men. The Holy Roman Emperor was the avowed temporal guide of the destinies of Man, while the Pope was the undisputed spiritual leader of Christendom. Medieval Europe firmly believed in the Divine Right of kings; and even in the Modern Period we see James I. solemnly declaring that he ruled England by it. Dante, the greatest of medieval poets, has expressed the same view in his "De Monarchia", and has also made it one of his funda-

mental assumptions in the "Divina Commedia." The Church almost declared it sin either to question the authority of kings or to rise up in rebellion against even bad monarchs. There was sufficient prospect of absolutism holding sway for centuries if things remained the same. But fortunately the struggle between Empire and Papacy broke out, and during the two centuries when it vigorously went on, both the Papal and Imperial powers were shattered. Not only that, the citizens of the Empire came to understand that they could defy the Emperor as long as the Pope backed them up. Thus the Italian cities, Milan, Florence, and others established popular governments, while oligarchic Venice steadily attempted to regain her old prestige. Another blow was dealt at the old theory that kingdoms existed for kings, when the renaissance stimulated independent thought and was closely followed by the reformation to fan the flame.

Men now discredited the Divine Right and thought that kings ought to rule for the benefit of the people. But it was a time of mental revolution, not of action. Europe was too weak and disunited to put thought into action. Absolute monarchy therefore, continued to exist well into modern times, but yet the king's position had virtually changed. The large-scale commercial and industrial enterprises which usher in Modern Europe, brought much wealth; and wealth demands power. Hence monarchs were constrained to tolerate the independence or semi-independence of rich cities within the realm, where the merchants lived. Even in England there was, in the Fifteenth and the preceding centuries a tendency among boroughs to break loose from monarchical control by means of charters. Hence, as every city considered

itself an entity, there was no *national* demand for liberal constitutions. Democratic government was in abeyance until about the end of the Eighteenth Century, when the French Revolution brought ideas of "Liberty, Egalite, and Fraternity" forcibly to men's minds and set kingdoms tottering. But the subsequent rise of Napoleon to the Emperorship partially obscured the benefits of the Revolution; and it is only in comparatively recent times that rigid Nationalism and Democracy have come to the forefront in politics.

From what we have said of monarchy in Europe we may see that it invariably leads to a freer form of government among progressive nations, either to Limited Monarchy as in England, or to complete Republicanism as in France. Purely Absolute Monarchy exists nowhere in Europe, excluding Turkey. Even "semi-Asiatic" Russia has its Duma, and the present Czar is not what Peter the Great, or Catherine II. was.

D. S. GORDON.

Social Legislation under Hindu Governments

BY

PROF. S. KRISHNASWAMI AYYANGAR, M.A.

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UNIVERSITY OF BOMBAY.

Convocation Address

By H. E. LORD WILLINGDON,

The Chancellor.

Mr. Vice-Chancellor, Members of the Senate, Ladies and Gentlemen :

The circumstances in which it has fallen to my lot to address for the first time the Senate and members of this great University assembled in Convocation have caused me, as you will readily understand, some anxious deliberation as to the subject to which I should most opportunely invite your attention. In times past former Chancellors have found in these Convocations an appropriate occasion for submitting their views on questions which I may call of a specially academic character, on some specific problem of educational policy, on some branch of knowledge or other matter directly affecting the interest, progress or polity of the University. I shall, however, make no apology if, on this present occasion, I travel somewhat beyond these customary limits.

It is not because I consider that the intense and anxious pre-occupation of the great conflict which is now raging throughout the world must necessarily preclude us from all leisure and disposition to consider the peaceful operations of our great institutions. On the contrary I hold it to be incumbent on every good citizen, whose circumstances do not permit of his taking a personal part in the active defence of the Empire, to carry out, in addition to the extraordinary burdens which a state of war entails, calmly and courageously the ordinary duties of his position. The fact, however, must be recognized that the issues now at stake in the war are vital to every interest both of humanity and of the individual and must profoundly affect, in particular, the responsibilities of all public institutions which, if they are to be of any account at all, must partake of the good and evil fortune of the social organism of which they are important members. And of all public institutions there is none which should be so intimately concerned with these great moral issues than that which vindicates to itself the functions of a great University, and holds the custody and dispensation of the best traditions of human thoughts and conduct.

The most significant and formidable circumstance of the present war, the circumstance by which it

will be denoted in history rather than by the magnitude of its military operations, or its vast expenditure of blood and treasure, is that it represents, to a degree hitherto unknown in the records of humanity, an irreconcilable collision of opinion as to the fundamental ideas which should regulate the existence of civilization and the rational communion of men and nations. Predatory, political, national, religious and dynastic wars have been waged in the past from an infinity of causes, good and evil, and in their course great crimes have been perpetrated and multitudes of innocent persons have been the victims of cruelty and ambition. But never until the present time have the issues at stake rendered so remote any possible basis of moral accommodation between the belligerents. We are witnesses to-day of the terrible and sinister portent of a nation with very great traditions in letters, in science, and in almost all that has hitherto been regarded as synonymous with the most advanced civilization, embarking with cynical deliberation on a course which violates not only the high injunctions of the religion which it professes or the philosophies in which it claims to be our instructor, but the most elementary dictates of natural justice and humanity. This is a nation which has been conspicuous for the ordered methods by which it has inculcated into its citizens a certain idea of citizenship and especially for the perfected organization of an educational system primarily designed to impress this idea indelibly on the minds of its children and young men. We have seen this nation, so educated and equipped with all the material resources of science, march in a premeditated and calculated progress from the violation of the most solemn public engagements and of the limitations imposed by common consent on the inevitable severities of war, to the perpetration of more horrible crimes than were ever conceived by Attila or Tamerlane. Generations of enlightened men have been brought up in the belief, derived from study of the progress of human institutions, that the amendment of the moral, economic and political evils from which society has never at any age been immune, was to be sought largely in the propagation of right ideas of civic duty by a rational and wisely directed system of education. Now we have seen a well defined idea of civic duty instilled by an educational system, without doubt the most efficient and methodical ever yet devised, and we have seen the terrible consequences. The incredible moral downfall of Germany, for all whose faith is unshaken in divine justice and those inexorable laws which no statesman, strategist or economist has ever evaded with permanent success, merely precedes a political and military downfall on the same prodigious scale;

and even as a purely academic question, it is a matter of profound moment to every reasoning citizen of whatever nationality, and more particularly to all who are themselves charged with grave responsibilities in the maintenance of public morality and the education of youth, to inquire dispassionately, what is the significance for us of this monstrous phenomenon. But the question is not academic in the sense of being something removed from the arena of practical affairs. However secure we may feel in the soundness of our own creed and practice in regard to the fundamentals of public morality, we could not remain indifferent to this moral bankruptcy of what was once a great, and is still a formidable, State, even if these questions were not among the most pregnant issues in a conflict to which we are ourselves irrevocably committed. And they are, in fact, the crucial issues. I have said that this is not only a war of men and munitions on an unprecedented scale, but it is also, in a more profound and significant sense, a war of morals, a war of liberty against despotism, of justice against insurgent force, of humanity against all that is base and brutal in man. It is more than a war, it is a crusade. To consummate the victory, which, sooner or later, must be ours, it will be necessary not only to mobilize our military and financial resources but to mobilize also our moral resources. And beyond this immediate task there lies one even greater. When the German legions have been crushed, it will fall to us to repair the ruin and devastation they have made; the still greater task of reconstruction will lie before us. How much of the order of things which we have hitherto regarded as established will have passed away in this ordeal of fire no man can tell. This much is certain, that the passing of the clouds will reveal to us a strange and unfamiliar horizon. I can conceive of no more solemn reflection than that which must be inspired by a sense of the responsibility which this generation owes to itself and to posterity to see to it that the new order shall be auspicated by all that we can command of courage, wisdom and insight.

With these vast enterprises before us, we shall do well to consider carefully and betimes what are the moral resources which we can command. To part of this problem, with which as an educational institution we are specially concerned, I propose to invite your attention, so far as is possible in a brief and summary survey. Since it has been demonstrated to us in the most signal manner how essential to the well-being not only of individual states but of the whole order of human society is a true conception of citizenship, of civic morals in the widest sense, and the relation between this civic

idea and educational ideas and practice, let us endeavour to arrive at some conclusion as to how we stand in these grave matters ourselves.

In some form or another, education is a necessary condition of the permanence of human society in however primitive a form. It is primarily the instrument which enables the new generation to profit by the experience of the old and in the preservation and progress of communities of men it performs a vital and necessary function. Education in this wide sense is therefore an aspect or reflection of the communal tradition itself, and in proportion as the community rises in the scale of political development and consciously evolves a characteristic temperament and tradition, its educational system is necessarily inspired by this tradition and we find it recognized, tacitly or expressly, that the primary purpose of education is to make good citizens. To our modern notions this proposition is so axiomatic that it appears rather a matter for doubt whether any system of education could be consciously put into force for any other purpose. If time and the scope of my address permitted, it would not be difficult to show historically that this is not the case, and that our instinctive conception of education as a great instrument for the moral and intellectual advancement not only of the individual, nor even of the state, but of human society itself, is the mature product of a long and laborious groping after the truth, of persistent enquiry and experiment, of some brilliant successes and many disastrous failures. And it would be vain to imagine that the process is yet complete. If any one in this twentieth century has been sanguine enough to suppose that we had so far profited by the experience of the past as to apply effectively in our civic and national relations the plain lessons which it reads to us, the circumstances of the present war must have been a bitter and peremptory disillusion. Nevertheless, though we must admit the lamentable failure of much that we had regarded as a secure and inviolable pledge for the maintenance of at least a reasonable standard of decency in the intercourse of nations, there are certain principles, the validity of which, in all sane and civilized communities, remains unshaken and will survive, will indeed emerge with enhanced authority from the horrors and perils of the present time.

What then are these principles, so far as we are concerned in our present enquiry?

The first is that the basis of all organized societies must be a moral basis. This moral basis is the political sense of *esprit de corps* which unites all the individual members of a state in a common

bond of interest and allegiance; it is, in short, the basis of common citizenship.

But this idea, though it is the fundamental basis of civil society, is not sufficient in itself. It may be inspired by the loftiest ethical ideals, but, without some further regulating principle, it will result in inevitable conflicts, conflicts between moral ideals themselves, conflicts between individuals and conflicts between the individual and the State. Who or what is to determine how such ideals are to be disciplined and placed in their proper co-ordination, to what extent the individual can pursue his own material or moral or intellectual interests without detriment to the commonwealth and, finally, what are the limits of the control which the State can safely assert over the citizen? This leads us to the second great principle. It is the principle of law, which denies to the State the right to arrogate to itself a position of despotism without responsibility to an equitable code of conduct, based on practical experience of human affairs, and which denies to the individual the claim to oppose his interests, whatever their moral or theoretic validity may be, to the manifest interest of the commonwealth.

These are the two pillars of State, the idea of citizenship, with all that it implies of liberty, public spirit and mutual affiance, and the idea of law, with all that it implies of justice, order and stability.

My third principle is this. Poets may be born and not made, but good citizens are both. It is the function of education to make good citizens. In the noble words of Milton, "I call therefore a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform, justly, skilfully and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."

An education which aims at making a man an efficient but subservient tool of an arbitrary authority is not a civic education; it is merely an instrument of despotism. The training which makes a man expert in some art or craft is not education at all; it is merely instruction or a sort of apprenticeship. There is no education worthy of the name which does not aim at fitting a man to perform all the duties and obligations of a man and a citizen, at developing his best faculties for his own advantage and that of others, and at enabling him to enjoy, according to his capacity, the resources that nature and society place within his reach.

Education, then, rightly conceived, is a civic discipline which, by developing and exercising in the most liberal manner of which he is capable the best faculties of the individual, aims at fitting him to discharge the obligations and to enjoy the advan-

tages of citizenship, in a community of free men, united by the bond of common laws, interests and allegiance. It is the instrument above all others most powerful to enable us to hold fast to the heritage of the past, to secure the most complete and rational enjoyment of the present and to provide for the necessities and potentialities of the future.

It is, no doubt, a dangerous undertaking to apply a uniform formula, however general its terms, to an Empire of more than 42½ crores of citizens, which comprehends so many races, creeds, and tongues and so many grades of civilization from the highest to the lowest. But the undertaking is less formidable if we premise that, though our conception can for the present only be fully realized in the more progressive groups of our great commonwealth, it may be the goal to which the efforts of all should be directed. In the larger spirit of patriotism which is inspired by our common imperial citizenship, there is room and necessity for local patriotism in each member, and in the same manner the common interest will best be promoted by each member pursuing with ardour and perseverance its own specific development, along the lines and by the expedients which its particular circumstances determine. We have our own problems, economic, educational and political, as they have theirs in England, and Australia and Canada. The energy and public spirit which we apply to these problems form a tributary, and an important one, of the great stream which animates the public spirit of the Empire as a whole. We ought, therefore, whether we are considering imperial interests, or our own immediate public concerns, to think imperially. This may sound a vague and rather rhetorical phrase, but it has a definite and practical meaning. The characteristic genius of our polity stands on a basis of freedom, justice, toleration and the recognition of obvious facts. We have always preferred to proceed by evolution rather than by revolution, with an instinctive distrust of abstractions and a reluctance to push things to extremes. Other nations have often derided in us a certain spirit of conciliation or compromise, and equally often they have envied us the results. Above all, in conceding the greatest degree of personal liberty ever attained in a political community, our tradition instinctively presumes an equal measure of individual responsibility and initiative. Therefore when I talk of thinking imperially, I mean that we should approach public problems in an attitude of mind constantly inspired by this characteristic political tradition of ours. The duty of a citizen is not discharged by criticism. It is no less his business to

help to construct and to see particularly that his personal responsibility, whatever he can contribute by deed or word in the right direction, is adequately discharged. There are few private activities, there are no public activities, which should not be undertaken with an abiding sense of the reality of our common heritage of imperial citizenship. To Europeans in India, some of whom perhaps are at times disposed to complain of their 'Eastern exile' and to regret the familiar surroundings and amenities of the land of their birth, I would suggest the reflection that no part of His Majesty's wide dominions is alien soil and that to have a share in promoting the welfare of this great Empire is a privilege to be regarded with pride and to be undertaken with a deep sense of personal responsibility.

I would reply in the same terms to those of my Indian fellow citizens who may be inclined to entertain the view that the British Government of India is an alien Government. To gather together into one great imperial community so many creeds and races is a gigantic achievement which inevitably involves the gradual and delicate adjustment of particular interests and aspirations. There are many questions of this nature, for the final solution of which we must possess our souls in patience, confident that for every grievance a remedy will be found. And the ground of our faith is this that we possess inalienably in our political heritage the fundamental principles of justice and conciliation. We must indeed labour ourselves strenuously to apply them to our needs as they arise, but nothing should shake our faith that ultimately they will and must prevail. I can answer for it that this is the honest conviction of every citizen of British birth who reflects soberly on his own political creed, and, if it is not yet shared with equal confidence by every Indian citizen who does likewise, it is my earnest belief that the time is not far distant when this confidence will be established and justified.

It is not, however, enough to stand by idly and expect our hopes to realize themselves. We must all discharge our own share of the common task, and perhaps I may be permitted to suggest some practical applications of our principles.

In educational matters, for example, do we always recognize sufficiently how immense is the responsibility that devolves on parents in the upbringing and training of their children? A parent who has a sick child and, having called in a doctor and administered the prescribed dose, thereafter abandons all care and attendance, will be universally condemned as either incredibly foolish or culpably

indifferent. If this is true of the body, how much more so in things of the mind and the spirit. Remember that, however perfected a state system of education may be, it can never replace the training in conduct and morals which should be received at home. Apart from the obvious human truth of this proposition, it is a logical inference from our premises. Firstly, because the natural preceptorship of the parent is one of the gravest of individual responsibilities which he must accept and discharge and of which no one can relieve him; and secondly, because, if the State presumed to arrogate to itself the right or to accept the responsibility of being the sole and sufficient authority in such matters, it would violate one of the most essential of our principles, a due balance between the collective and the individual function in the State.

Again let me ask do we always recognize how great is the responsibility of the teacher appointed by the State in his relation to the students in the various schools and colleges who come under his care and influence. If he thinks he has executed his charge by teaching, in the prescribed hours of tuition, the curriculum of his school or college, he is in grievous error. It is obviously his duty to study the character and moral tendency of each of his pupils, so far as this is possible, and to do his best to correct what requires correction, to encourage what merits encouragement and to secure a feeling of confidence and sympathy between himself and every pupil under his charge.

Another important practical application of our theory is this. Education must be a continuous process in the individual and a comprehensive activity in the State. The first of these inferences I commend more particularly to the young ladies and gentlemen whom the University has to-day invested with the academic gown.

I hope you will not suppose, if any of you have ever had this persuasion, that your education is completed. It is only beginning. You cannot completely learn your civic duties in books, however sedulous you may be, nor in the society of your contemporaries, nor even from the instruction of your tutors. You can only learn them after many struggles and disappointments in the world of men and affairs. Honour and success will, I trust, be yours, but these are prizes still to be run for, as Milton puts it, "not without dust and heat." You have had great advantages and opportunities. For this reason you are among the greatest debtors of society and your first obligation is to discharge the debt. Do not regard your academic distinctions as giving you a claim to ease and emolument.

You have still to justify the sacrifices of your parents or friends in sending you here and of your fellow-citizens, whose public spirit or industry has furnished here the material needs of your instruction. Above all you owe to yourselves the high duty of proving that you are good stewards of the talent which has been given into your custody to-day.

"To thine own self be true
And it must follow as the night the day
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

Our second inference was that education should be a comprehensive activity in the State. By this I mean that it is insufficient that even the highest educational ideals should be attained by a small and select group. Culture which is enjoyed by the few at the direct expense to the many of the elementary decencies of life is the worst form of capitalism. Consequently, it is of the first importance that education should be extended, in proportion to their capacity, to the lowest in intelligence and attainment as well as to the highest, and that there should be an opportunity for all to partake of the best that we can give. When the conditions of life are so severe that every energy has to be applied to its bare sustenance, we can hardly hope for rapid progress in morals or intelligence. The social and economic improvement of the backward classes is, therefore, in one of its aspects, a great educational problem, and if it should be objected that the ideal of education which I have sketched is, in relation to such questions, rather a transcendental ideal, I reply that on the contrary it is largely upon them that I rely for its justification. Its demands are quite as insistent on behalf of the ignorant and unprogressive as on behalf of the best endowed in capacity and opportunity. The State suffers throughout its whole fabric if the humblest of its members is denied justice; and the existence of a large number of human beings in any community living hardily in penury and uncleanness of body and mind, is not only repugnant to humanity; it is an anomaly, a danger and a disgrace even in a social system animated by no higher motives than prudence or expedience. This, I repeat, is one of the most insistent tests of our conception of education and citizenship, and I am of the opinion that its only solution will be found on the lines which I have indicated.

In the few remaining words with which I shall detain you, I shall invite your consideration of another aspect of our enquiry, which if it is not an immediate deduction from these conclusions, is, at any rate, an inevitable corollary.

I have dealt with these subjects so far as a domestic concern of our great imperial family, as

something generated by and contributing to the powerful sense of organic unity which common citizenship conveys and my argument has implied that the faculties of the individual can never be more highly developed than when they are addressed to the advantage of the commonwealth. The greatest good of both is an indissoluble unity.

But the duty which the individual owes to the State, is owed by both to humanity. The type of civic morality which permits of broken faith towards other nations or outrages upon the common conscience of men is the brand of Cain; the spirit which conceives it and the State which brings it forth are enemies of the human race. The civic spirit which we have traced in its internal operation must rise about the limitations of nationality to the generous conviction that nothing human is alien to it. To meet the immediate national task, in co-operation with our gallant allies, of organizing victory, and vindicating the cause of liberty and justice among nations, I am confident that, though much remains to be achieved in the orderly mobilisation of our resources, nothing is wanting in the spirit of our people. To quote the words of an eminent historian, who died a few months ago just as the solemn warning, which his prophetic mind addressed almost unheard to the Empire, was about to be justified, "I seem to discover everywhere stirrings of a new life, to hear the tramp of armies fired by a newer chivalry than that of Crecy and on the horizon to discern the outlines of fleets manned by as heroic a resolve as were those of Nelson or Rodney."

But, as I said at the outset, the aftermath of victory will be an even more searching test of the validity of our principles and the constancy of our faith and courage. We shall require all that is implied in the moral resources of a great State, political instinct, public spirit, resolution and humanity. Above all we shall require men. Ours must be the prayer, and I am confident that it will be vouchsafed to us, of a great citizen of the United States in the hour, big with destiny, of his country's supreme peril,—

"God give us men! A time like this demands
Great hearts, strong minds, true faith and willing hands!"

Men whom the lust of office does not kill:
Men whom the spoils of office cannot buy:
Men who possess opinions and a will:
Men who have honour, men who will not lie.
For while the rabble with their thumbworn creeds,
Their large professions and their little deeds,
Wrangle in selfish strife, lo! Freedom weeps,
Wrong rules the land and waiting Justice sleeps."

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

No. 3041, dated 15th October, 1915.

REPORT ON THE SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOL FINAL EXAMINATION HELD IN MARCH 1915.

Letter from the Director of Public Instruction, No. 8139, dated the 4th September, 1915:—

"With reference to Government Resolution, Educational Department, No. 2005, dated the 25th June, 1914, I have the honour to submit a short report on the Supplementary School-Final Examination of 1915, which was held on Monday, the 22nd March, 1915, and the following days at the following centres:—(1) Bombay, (2) Poona, (3) Ahmedabad, (4) Dharwar and (5) Karachi.

"The late submission of the report is due to the non-receipt until recently from the Educational Inspector, Central Division, of the accounts for the Poona Centre.

"2. The Divisional Inspectors and the Principal, Elphinstone High School, Bombay, acted as Superintendents as usual, assisted by local committees of expert officers.

"3. The examiners appointed to set the papers were as follows:—

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS.

1. Vernaculars—

(a) Kanarese—Mr. V. B. Joshi, B.A., Principal, Training College for Men, Dharwar.

(b) Gujarati—Mr. K. A. Bala, B.A., Principal, Premchand Raichand Training College for Men, Ahmedabad.

2. History and Geography—

Mr. O. H. T. Dudley, M.A., Inspector of European Schools.

"The examiners for other compulsory subjects and for the optional subjects were the same as for the examination of 1914.

"The examiners appointed to correct the papers, where different from the above, were as follows. Here also the names are given only in those cases in which the examiners were different from those for the 1914 examination:—

BOMBAY.

Marathi.—Mr. V. N. Nabar, B.A., Second Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

English and Latin.—Mr. J. T. Turner, M.A., Principal, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Mathematics.—Mr. V. P. Divekar, B.A., S.T.D., Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

Sanskrit.—Mr. N. H. Barve, B.A., S.T.D., Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay.

POONA.

English.—Mr. O. H. T. Dudley, M.A., Inspector of European Schools.

AHMEDABAD.

English.—Mr. C. R. W. Griffith, B.A., Acting Vice-Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

History and Geography.—Mr. B. N. Desai, B.A., Personal Assistant to the Educational Inspector, Northern Division.

DHARWAR.

English.—Mr. A. C. Miller, M.A., Head Master, Sardars' High School, Belgaum.

Marathi.—Mr. N. V. Kolhatkar, B.A., Assistant, Training College for Men, Dharwar.

Mathematics.—Mr. P. S. Chandavarkar, B.A., Head Master, Karwar High School, and Mr. R. M. Mahishi, B.A., Assistant, Training College for Men, Dharwar.

History and Geography.—Mr. R. G. Terigundi, B.A., Second Assistant, Dharwar High School, and Mr. K. H. Kelkar, M.A., Assistant Master, Sardars' High School, Belgaum.

Sanskrit.—Mr. V. K. Deshpande, B.A., Assistant Master, Dharwar High School.

KARACHI.

Mathematics.—Mr. W. Grieve, M.A., B.Sc., Head Master, Narayan Jagannath High School, Karachi.

Persian.—Mr. R. D. Advani, B.A., Personal Assistant to the Educational Inspector in Sind.

"4. The examination is to be held in future in March instead of in November, in accordance with Government Resolution, Educational Department, No. 2005, dated the 25th June, 1914. Candidates were admitted to the supplementary examination under the three conditions sanctioned in Government Notification, Educational Department, No. 2006, dated the 25th June, 1914. In addition to candidates who fulfilled these conditions, I also allowed those candidates

to appear for the examination who had not qualified by two years' attendance at school for the 1914 examination, but had now satisfied this condition.

"5. The number of candidates registered for the examination was 690, of whom 7 did not appear. The number examined was therefore 683, of whom 145 passed, giving a percentage of 21. This percentage is considerably lower than usual. But it must be remembered that of the 683 candidates no less than 635 had appeared and failed in the examination held in October, 1914. It is thus useless to compare the figures with those for previous years.

"The names of successful candidates were published at pages 786 and 787 and 840 of the *Bombay Government Gazette*, Part II, dated the 28th April, and 11th May, 1915, respectively.

"The results at the various centres were as follows:—

Centre.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage.
Bombay ...	66	16	24
Poona ...	190	29	15
Ahmedabad ...	119	30	25
Dharwar ...	158	46	29
Karachi ...	150	24	16
Total ...	683	145	21

"In compulsory subjects the results were as follows:—

Subject.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of success.
English—			
Written ...	683	270	40
Oral ...	683	375	55
Vernacular—			
Written ...	683	510	75
Oral ...	681	536	79
Mathematics ...	683	478	70
History and Geography	683	392	57

"The following table gives the results in the different vernaculars:—

Vernacular.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of success.
Marathi ...	289	217	75
Gujarati ...	125	90	72
Kanarese ...	108	97	90
Sindhi ...	146	93	64
Urdu ...	13	7	54
Latin ...	2	...	...

In the optional subjects the results were as follows:—

Subject.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of passes.
Classical languages ...	45	18	40
Drawings ...	4	3	75
Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence ...	3	2	67
Shorthand and Typewriting ...	1	1	100

The results in the classical languages were:—

Language.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Percentage of passes.
Sanskrit ...	12	7	58
Persian ...	36	11	33

"6. A statement* showing the results of the examination classified according to schools is appended as per paragraph 2 of Government Resolution, Educational Department, No. 1267, dated the 22nd May, 1912.

"7. A summary of the reports of the Superintendents and Examiners is not thought necessary

* Printed as an accompaniment to this Order.

on this occasion, as a fairly full summary† of them was given in my report on the 1914 examination; most of the examiners were the same, and most of them report the same common mistakes as on the last occasion.

"8. The financial result of the examination was as follows:—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Receipts ...	8,280	0	0
Expenditure ...	9,920	0	4
Excess of expenditure ...	1,640	0	4

Thus there is an excess of Rs. 1,640-0-4 over the fee receipts; but the balance in the allotment of Rs. 18,000 provided in the budget for examination charges, to which the expenditure is debited, is more than sufficient to meet this.

The details of the expenditure are given in the subjoined table:—

Item.	Amount.
	Rs. A. P.
Remuneration to Superintendents ...	2,000 0 0
Remuneration to Examiners ...	5,171 5 0
Remuneration to Supervisors ...	770 0 0
Remuneration to clerks ...	335 0 0
Charges on account of printing ...	831 10 0
Stationery ...	102 7 6
Answer books ...	168 12 0
Postage charges ...	10 0 0
Miscellaneous ...	329 10 1
Travelling allowance ...	201 3 9
Total ...	9,920 0 4

"9. It is recommended that this report be published, and that 600 copies may be supplied to me for distribution."

ORDER.—The report should be printed for distribution as proposed by the Director of Public Instruction.

† Printed in the preamble to Government Order No. 1374, dated 29th June 1914.

Accompaniment to Government Order, Educational Department, No. 3041, dated 15th October 1915.

SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOL-FINAL EXAMINATION, 1915.

Classification of results according to schools.

No.	Name of School.	Number of regular students.		Number of ex-students.	
		Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
Bombay Centre.					
1	Elphinstone High School, Bombay.	...	...	5	2
2	Aryan Education Society's High School	1	1	12	2
3	B. J. Parsi Charitable Institution	...	...	3	...
4	Gokuldas Tejpal High School, Bombay	1	...	...	...
5	St. Xavier's High School, Bombay	...	...	1	...
6	Robert Money School, Bombay	...	...	1	...
7	St. John Night High School, Bombay	...	...	2	...
8	American Mission High School, Byculla	...	...	1	...
9	Poona Native Institution	...	...	1	...
10	Maratha High School, Bombay	...	...	3	1
11	General Education Institute, Dadar	...	...	1	...
12	Savantvadi High School	...	...	1	...
13	Wilson High School, Bombay	...	...	4	1
14	Ratnagiri High School	1	1	4	2
15	Gibb High School, Kumta	1	...	3	2
16	John Elphinstone High School, Alibag	...	...	3	...
17	Karwar High School	...	...	8	...
18	S. P. G. Mission High School, Dapoli	...	...	4	2
19	B. J. High School, Thana	...	...	2	1
20	Bhandari High School, Malvan	1	1	...	...
21	A. S. Desai High School, Malvan	...	...	2	...
Poona Centre.					
22	High School, Poona	3	...	...	...
23	High School, Satara	...	...	6	2
24	Northcote High School, Sholapur	4	...	...	...
25	High School, Nasik	...	...	20	3
26	Garud High School, Dhulia	...	...	1	...
27	New English School, Poona	...	...	30	5
28	New English School, Satara	...	...	11	2
29	Nutan Marathi Vidyalaya, Poona	17	5	...	...
30	Poona Native Institution, Poona	31	1	7	...
31	P. E. High School, Junnar	...	...	4	1
32	A. E. Society's High School, Nagar	23	5	2	...

No.	Name of School.	Number of regular students.		Number of ex-students.	
		Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
38	A. M. High School, Nagar...	8	1	...	...
34	S. P. G. M. High School, Nagar	...	...	3	...
35	Arya Education Society's High School, Bombay	...	1	...	...
36	V. J. High School, Pandharpur	1	1	2	...
37	Mudhoji High School, Phaltan	2	1	2	...
38	S. S. High School, Aundh	...	...	2	...
39	A. V. School, Akalkot	...	...	1	1
40	P. E. High School, Kolhapur	...	...	3	1
41	S. P. G. M. High School, Dapoli	...	...	1	...
Ahmedabad Centre.					
42	R. U. High School, Ahmedabad	1	1	3	1
43	Government High School, Nadiad	13	5	...	...
44	Telang High School, Godhra	...	...	1	1
45	R. S. Dalal High School, Broach	9	6	10	...
46	Sorabji J. J. High School, Surat	5	2	...	...
47	Union High School, Broach	...	6	...	...
48	Union High School, Surat	...	6	1	2
49	I. P. Mission High School, Ahmedabad	...	2	2	2
50	Proprietary High School, Ahmedabad	...	2	...	...
51	New English School, Ahmedabad	1	1	...	...
52	New English School, Nadiad	12	1	...	...
53	Mohandevji High School, Dharmapur	...	1	...	...
54	Baroda High School	...	3	1	1
55	Sarvajani High School, Surat	...	4	...	...
56	O. J. N. Z. Madressa, Navsari	...	1	6	2
57	Cambay High School	...	1	...	...
58	Palitana High School, (Harris)	...	3	2	...
59	Talukdari Girassia High School, Wadhwan	...	3	1	...
60	Alfred High School, Bhuj	...	...	1	1
61	Nandod High School	...	5	...	...
62	Patan High School	...	4	1	...
63	Edward Memorial High School, Kaira	...	3	...	2
64	Rajkumar College, Rajkot	...	1	...	...
65	Petlad High School	...	...	1	1
66	Bhadran High School	...	1	...	...
67	Coronation High School, Nadiad	3	...	...	...
Dharwar Centre.					
68	Dharwar High School	...	1	24	6
69	Sardars' High School, Belgaum	...	1	31	9
70	High School, Bijapur	...	11	2	15
71	High School, Karwar	...	...	3	1
72	Mission High School, Dharwar	6	1	2	...
Karachi Centre.					
73	Victoria High School, Dharwar	12	4	2	...
74	Lamington High School, Hubli	...	...	6	1
75	Mission High School, Belgaum	6	3	1	1
76	Gibb High School, Kumta	...	...	2	1
77	High School, Sangli	...	...	9	5
78	Rajaram High School, Kolhapur	...	...	2	1
79	Nutan Maharashtra Vidyalaya, Kolhapur	...	...	5	...
80	Private English High School, Kolhapur	17	2	2	2
81	Shikarpur High School	...	1	1	25
82	Sukkur High School	...	2	...	7
83	Shikarpur Academy	...	...	10	2
84	Hyderabad High School	...	1	1	8
85	N. H. Academy, Hyderabad	36	6	2	1
86	N. V. High School, Hyderabad	13	1	4	...
87	N. J. High School, Karachi	...	9	1	8
88	Sind Madressah, Karachi	...	16	2	4
89	St. Patrick's High School	...	1	...	...
90	New High School, Karachi	...	...	3	...

UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA.

(Dacca Division.)

Rules for the Admission of Private Candidates to the University Matriculation Examination, 1916.

1. A student who has not attended any school, recognised or unrecognised, for at least one year previous to the examination will be treated as a private candidate. Teachers of schools are also considered as private candidates.

2. Private candidates desirous of sitting at the ensuing University Matriculation Examination must appear at the test examination of one of the undermentioned schools to be held on the 6th December 1915 and the following days:—

1. Dacca Collegiate School.
2. Mymensingh Zilla School.
3. Faridpur Zilla School.
4. Barisal Zilla School.

3. Every private candidate must submit his application for admission to the test examination on or before the 1st November 1915 to the head-

master of one of the schools named above where he intends to appear, producing a certificate from a respectable gentleman to the effect (1) that he has not attended any school, recognised or unrecognised, for at least one year previous to the examination, (2) that his conduct and character have been good, (3) that he has diligently and regularly prosecuted his studies and has been subject to proper discipline.

A student who failed to pass the annual examination for promotion to class X at the end of the session 1914 and then left the school should not be allowed to sit at the examination.

4. He should also forward with his application his transfer certificate from the school (if any) in which he last read, or the Registrar's receipt (if he appeared at any previous Entrance Examination) or a certificate from a respectable person with personal knowledge of the facts of the case that he has never been to any school.

5. No one will be admitted to the test examination unless he shall produce satisfactory evidence that he will have completed the age of sixteen years on the 1st day of March 1916. For the purpose of this rule the age as recorded in a transfer certificate from a recognised school or in the Registrar's receipt (in case of those who appeared at any previous examination) will be accepted. Those who have never read in any school must produce either their horoscope or an affidavit sworn by their parents or guardians before a competent Magistrate declaring their age.

6. Every private candidate shall state in his application his name, father's name, date of birth, residence, postal address and the following particulars:—

1. Whether he appeared at the Entrance Examination in any previous year.

2. Language in which (besides English) he is to be examined.

3. Vernacular language for composition.

4. Vernacular language from which translation is to be made into English in the 1st English paper.

5. Which of the following subjects taken up—

- (a) Additional Mathematics.
- (b) Additional paper in classical language.
- (c) History.
- (d) Geography.
- (e) Elementary Mechanics.

7. Every private candidate must pay a fee of Rs. 2 to the headmaster of the school at which he appears for examination. After payment of the necessary expenses the balance of the fees will be paid to the examiners as remuneration.

8. On the date of examination, he must be accompanied, for the purpose of identification, by some person known to the officer conducting the examination, otherwise he will not be admitted to the test examination.

9. The headmasters of the schools named above should send to this office for orders a statement in duplicate showing the marks gained by each private candidate in each subject at the test examination within a fortnight from the date of the said examination. The application forms of candidates who are declared eligible should be forwarded to this office for counter-signature duly filled in and signed and accompanied by the documentary evidence referred to in paragraphs 3, 4 and 5.

10. Private candidates should arrange to remit their examination fees, together with the countersigned application forms, direct to the Registrar, so as to reach him on or before the 17th January 1916. The fee payable by each candidate for the examination is Rs. 12.

11. The Matriculation Examination for 1916 will be held on the 1st March and the following days.

Rules for the Guidance of Private Candidates for the Matriculation Examination of 1916.

The following rules for the guidance of private candidates for the Matriculation Examination are published for general information:—

2. Private students are those who have not attended any recognised or unrecognised school for at least one year previous to the examination. The term "private students" includes *bona fide* school-masters.

3. Private students must appear at the Test Examination of one of the following institutions on the dates mentioned against it:—

Name of School.	Date of Test Examination.
1. Comilla Zilla School	6th, 7th, 8th and 9th December 1915.
2. Noakhali Zilla School	"
3. Chittagong Collegiate School	"
4. Rangamati High English School	"

Each private student will pay a fee of Rs. 3 to the head of the institution in which he ap-

pears for the Test Examination. No private student will be admitted to the Test Examination unless he is accompanied for the purpose of identification by some person known to the Headmaster of the institution at which he appears.

4. Application for permission to appear must be sent in time to reach this office not later than the 5th November 1915. The information to be given and the documents to be appended in original are the following :—

(a) The name of the school in which the candidate last studied ;

(b) the Transfer Certificate in original granted to the candidate by the Headmaster of the school in which he last read ; or

(c) in the case of a candidate who previously appeared at the Matriculation Examination the Registrar's receipt in original for the fee paid.

(d) Age of the candidate. No candidate who has not completed the age of 16 years on the first day of the Matriculation Examination will be allowed to appear at it.

(e) In the case of school-masters a certificate of good conduct from the Secretary or proprietor of the school in which he is serving, or from the Deputy Inspector of the district concerned.

(f) A certificate from a respectable gentleman to the effect that the candidate has prosecuted a regular course of study and has been subject to proper discipline and that he has not read in any school since the last Matriculation Examination.

(g) A statement by the candidate giving the following facts :—

(i) Residence.

(ii) Father's name.

(iii) Second language besides English.

(iv) Vernacular language for composition.

(v) Vernacular language from which translation is to be made into English in the first English paper.

(vi) Which of the following subjects he has taken up :—

(i) Additional Mathematics.

(ii) Additional paper in the classical language.

(iii) History.

(iv) Geography.

(v) Elementary Mechanics.

N.B.—A student who failed to pass or appear at the annual examination for promotion to class X at the end

of the session 1914 and then left the school can, under no circumstances, be allowed to appear at the examination.

5. The Inspector on being satisfied will countersign and return the application, which will then be the candidate's passport for admission to the Test Examination.

6. Every candidate must deposit his fee for the Test Examination with the Headmaster of the institution in which he intends to appear, at least 15 days before the date of that examination. The Headmaster will deposit the amount realized by him into the local Treasury and forward a copy of the Treasury chalan to this office. He should also submit to this office an account of the charges incurred by him (including remuneration to examiners) for conducting the examination of private candidates together with vouchers in support of the charges, on receipt of which the Director of Public Instruction will be moved to sanction the expenditure.

7. The Headmasters of the institutions named above should direct private students who satisfy the test to appear before them in due time with their applications for admission to the Matriculation Examination and to sign them in their presence. They will then grant the necessary certificates and forward the application to the Inspector for countersignature, after which they will be sent by the Inspector direct to the candidates.

8. In no circumstances should the fee for the Matriculation Examination be sent to the Inspector's office. It should be sent to the Registrar by the candidates themselves together with the countersigned applications.

9. Private students must understand that the Test Examination of any school other than those named above will not be accepted by the Inspector.

10. The Matriculation Examination will be held on the 1st March 1916 and the following days.

11. Applications and fees for admission to the examination must reach the office of the Registrar on or before the 17th January 1916.

Rules for the Guidance of Private Candidates for the Intermediate and B. A. Examinations, 1916.

Bona fide teachers of schools, recognised by the University, or of any other schools, approved for the purpose by the Syndicate, who have served as such for a full period of three academical years preceding the examination, will be admitted to the Intermediate and B. A. Examination as non-collegiate students.

2. Applications for permission to appear at the abovementioned examinations in the printed form prescribed by the University must be submitted to the Inspector of Schools for signature, on or before the 10th January 1916, with the following papers :—

1. Registrar's orders showing that the candidate's name has been registered as a University student.

2. Permission of the Senate allowing the candidate to appear at the examination.

3. F.A. certificates by candidates for B. A. Examination or Matriculation certificates by candidates for the Intermediate Examination and also the Registrar's receipt by candidates who had been admitted to a former examination.

4. Certificates of good character, length of service and diligent and regular study from secretaries of the schools in which the candidates may be serving.

3. No candidate shall be admitted to the abovementioned examinations who has been enrolled as a regular student of a college during the twelve months previous to the date of the examination at which he applies for permission to appear.

4. The Intermediate and B. A. Examinations of 1916 will be held on the 13th and 20th March respectively and the following days.

5. Applications and fees for admission to the above examinations must reach the office of the Registrar on or before the 28th January and 5th February 1916 respectively.

*Office Memorandum by the Inspector of Schools,
Burdwan Division.*

University Matriculation Examination, 1916.

PRIVATE STUDENTS.

1. Private students are those who have not attended any recognized or unrecognized High English schools for at least one year previous to the examination. The term "private students" includes school-masters.

2. Private students must appear at the Test Examination to be held on Monday, the 6th December 1915, and the following days at the Hooghly Collegiate School.

Each private student will have to pay a fee of Rs. 6 which should be remitted to the Inspector of Schools, Burdwan Division, Chinsura, along with his application for admission to the Test Examination by the 9th November 1915, after which date a fine of Rs. 2 will have to be paid for

each week's delay. *Under no circumstances will the admission fee be refunded.* No private student will be admitted to the Test Examination unless he is accompanied, for the purpose of identification, by some person known in the office of the Inspector of Schools, Burdwan Division.

3. Applications must be submitted through the headmaster of the schools in which the applicant last read. The headmaster, in forwarding the application to this office, should note whether he recommends the application or not. If he does not, his reasons should be stated. The application of no candidate is to be forwarded who did not leave school from the first class, or who had not been declared fit for promotion to that class. The information to be given and the documents to be appended (in original) are the following :—

(a) The name of the school in which the candidate last studied.

(b) The transfer certificate (in original) granted to the candidate by the headmaster of the school in which he last read ; or

(c) In the case of a candidate who previously appeared at the Entrance Examination, the Registrar's receipt (in original) for the fee paid.

(d) The age of the candidate is not required in cases (b) and (c). No candidate who has not completed the age of sixteen years on the first day of the Matriculation Examination is eligible.

(e) In the case of school-masters, a certificate of good conduct from the Secretary or proprietor of the school in which the candidate is serving.

(f) A certificate from a respectable gentleman to the effect that the candidate has prosecuted a regular course of study and has been subject to proper discipline, and that he has not read in any school since the last Matriculation Examination held in March 1915. Detailed information is needed under this head. The person granting the certificate should state his social or professional position.

(g) The names of subjects in which the candidate wishes to be examined.

4. *The fee for the Matriculation Examination has not to be sent to this office.* It should be sent to the Registrar by the candidates themselves, together with the countersigned applications.

5. The address of each private student should be supplied to this office.

6. The Matriculation Examination in 1916 will be held on the 1st March 1916 and following days. Applications and fees for admission

must reach the office of the Registrar on or before the 17th January 1916.

INTERMEDIATE AND B. A. EXAMINATIONS.

1. Deputy Inspectors of Schools, Sub-Inspectors of Schools and *bond fide* masters of English schools, who have served as such for the full period of three academical years preceding the examination, will be admitted to the above-mentioned examinations.

2. Candidates for the Intermediate and B. A. Examinations must produce certificates of character and length of service from the Secretaries of their respective schools. Candidates for the B. A. Examination must forward with their applications their F. A. certificates, and those for the Intermediate Examination their Entrance or Matriculation certificates. Those candidates who were admitted to a former examination must produce the Registrar's receipt in addition.

3. *Under section 19 of the Indian Universities Act, candidates for the Intermediate and B. A. Examinations are informed that their applications for admission to these examinations will not be considered unless they enclose with their applications to this office the sanction of the Senate to appear at the said examinations. Candidates who have applied for or have obtained the special permission of the Senate for the purpose are required, under section 9, chapter XV of the Revised Regulations dealing with the registration of University students, to apply at once to the Registrar for the registration of their names as University students. No person will be deemed a "University student" unless and until his name has been duly registered, and none but "University students" will be eligible for admission to any University examination other than the Matriculation.

4. The printed form of application should be carefully and correctly filled in and submitted to this office on or before the 12th January 1916, together with other papers, as mentioned in rules 2 and 3, after which no application will be received.

5. The Intermediate Examination of 1916 will be held on the 13th March 1916 and following days. The B. A. Examination of 1916 will be held on the 20th March 1916 and following days. The applications and fees for admission to the Intermediate Examination must reach the office of the Registrar on or before the 28th January 1916, and those for the B. A. Examination on or before the 5th February 1916.

MADRAS COLLEGE FOR WOMEN.

H. E. THE GOVERNOR OPENS NEW BUILDINGS.

His Excellency Lord Pentland performed the ceremony of opening the new buildings of the Madras Women's College on the Mylapore Beach on the 18th inst. at 4-30 P.M. A very large and representative gathering of European and Indian ladies and gentlemen had gathered on the occasion in response to the invitation of the Director of the Public Instruction and the Lady Principal of the College.

Among those present were noticed Sir Harold Stuart, the Hon. Sir John Wallis, Justices Ayling, Coutts-Trotter, Sadasivier and Napier, the Hon. Mr. F. H. M. Corbet, the Hon. Dr. T. M. Nair, the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, Director of Public Instruction, Archbishop Aelen, Dewan Bahadurs C. Krishnan, Govindaraghava Iyer, C. Karunakara Menon and Parankusam Naidu, Messrs. S. Sreenivasa Iyengar, Tirunarayanachari, S. Kasturiranga Iyengar, Bhavanandam Pillai, K. R. Subramania Sastri, S. Krishnaswami Iyengar, P. M. Sivagnana Mudaliar and S. Guruswamy Chetty. The guests were assembled in a tent pitched on the open ground in front of the new building. Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Pentland accompanied by Capt. Money, Military Secretary, arrived at 4-30 and were received by the Hon'ble Mr. Stone and Miss De La Hey, Lady Principal of the College, and conducted to the dais in the tent.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone then in a short speech requested His Excellency to perform the ceremony. He said that many of them would not have expected that "Capper House" standing in lackadaisical isolation in the midst of that arid plot of ground would have become such a prominent place in the course of the past few months. They examined various sites and they decided to locate the College on that spot with its undeveloped possibilities. There were only few pupils in the beginning, but they had reasonable hopes of increasing numbers of students and it was obviously necessary to have a new building and in the course of last spring they began the building. Mr. Montagu Thomas has been exceedingly successful in the design of the building. The building contains two very spacious lecture-rooms and two rooms for hostel accommodation and also contains quarters for some of the staff. He congratulated the Public Works Department on the expeditious way in which they completed the building which was indeed a record, the building having being completed in about six months' time. He expressed his thanks to Messrs.

S. P. Murray and O'Reilly, under whose supervision the building was constructed and also to the contractors for the expedition with which they carried out the work. Although they had done so much it must not be supposed that the work is complete. They must for instance have the compounds enclosed and the grounds raised so that they should not have that monument of water on the grounds. Also they require laboratory accommodation. He hoped that they would have not merely the external aspects of education but would have as well the intense internal instruction and that this College would not fall short of any of the great seats of learning in England. He then on behalf of the Principal and staff, expressed hearty welcome to Their Excellencies and expressed their thanks for the interest they have been showing in the institution and for the honour they have done them by going over there that afternoon.

HIS EXCELLENCY.

His Excellency before performing the ceremony spoke as follows:—

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—Mr. Stone, in his remarks, has given us some information regarding the history of the buildings which we are about to open and has bestowed appropriate and well-deserved praise upon the architect and the other officers of the Public Works Department to whose skill we owe these buildings. Let me in the first place endorse most heartily the remarks which have fallen from Mr. Stone and congratulate the officers of the Department on the results which they have achieved.

The occasion which calls us together to-day, the formal opening of the new buildings of the Madras Government College for Women, marks, I think, an important stage in the progress of female education in Southern India. I say advisedly a stage in that progress, because, as most of my hearers are doubtless aware, this College may be regarded not so much as a new College, but as a continuation, under better conditions, of the educational work for women which Government has been doing in the Presidency College for many years past. It is my hope that as we find it practicable to extend the Women's College by taking up the B.A. courses and other groups of the Intermediate course, the separation from the Presidency College will become more complete until eventually the attendance of women there will become unnecessary. The Women's College itself, as you know, has been open now for about 18 months, and I am glad to learn from the report of the Principal that in

this short time it has made a good start, and evidence is not wanting that it supplies in some measure a need which no one who is familiar with educational and social tendencies in this Presidency will deny to be real and increasing. The following figures—let me hasten to say that my excursion into statistics shall be of the briefest—illustrate my statement: the total number on the rolls on the 31st March 1915 was 33, the majority being Europeans, while Indian Christian, Brahman and non-Brahman caste students numbered 6, 7, and 7 respectively. The number of students now on the rolls is 44, notwithstanding that a certain number withdrew to the Christian College for Women on the opening of that institution; and the new admissions numbered 22, of whom 12 were Hindus, 8 were Europeans and 2 were Indian Christians. Considering that our staff has yet to be fully assembled, that we have yet to open tuition in the two senior classes, and that the College is scarcely yet settled in its new home, it may, I think, be said that the institution, though young, is yet a very healthy infant and is doing very well indeed. You will, I am sure, all join with me in congratulating Miss De La Hey and the staff of the College very cordially on the success which has thus far attended their labours.

In an institution such as this, where students of various communities are brought together and which includes a relatively large proportion of resident pupils, there will unavoidably arise problems of management in respect of which the advice of ladies and gentlemen belonging to the various classes from which the pupils are drawn, cannot fail to be of great value and assistance to the College authorities. It has accordingly been decided to constitute an Advisory Council for the College, and I am pleased to be able to announce that the following ladies and gentlemen have accepted the invitation to become members of it:—Lady Stuart, Mrs. Cardew, Mrs. Bedford, Mrs. Bhoré, Miss De La Hey; The Rajahs of Pithapur and Kollengode, Mr. Justice Abdur Rahim, Mr. Justice Sadasiva Aiyar, The Hon'ble Mr. V.S. Srinivasa Sastri, the Hon'ble Mr. L. D. Swamikannu Pillai, and Rao Sahib C. Ramanujam Chetty Garu.

One of the first questions to be laid before the Advisory Council will be the arrangements to be made for religious instruction of the College students according to their respective faiths. I need scarcely say that in this, as in every other Government educational institution, the maintenance of religious neutrality—which is and

must remain a cardinal principle of our educational policy—is essential, but there is nothing incompatible or inconsistent with the maintenance of that principle in the provision of instruction in religious subjects for such of the students as may desire it, in their respective faiths, by the appointments of ladies acting as tutors, or wardens of hostels, or in some other suitable manner. These instructors would include women of the Christian denominations to guide and associate with Christian students, and similarly where possible Hindu ladies of suitable caste and high character for similar purposes among Hindu students, and so on in respect of the other creeds and denominations. The College, as you are aware, is designed to offer facilities for college education to women students of all creeds under conditions which will be acceptable by non-Christians as well as Christians. It will be freely open to all and incidentally it may, it is hoped, be of use to Christian women students, and go some way to enlarge the opportunities now available to them. On this subject—and I doubt not in many others of equal importance—the advice of the Advisory Council will, I trust, be of much value.

Before I conclude, ladies and gentlemen, it is an especial pleasure to me to be able to announce the foundation of two scholarships of a monthly value of Rs. 25 each tenable for 4 years, one to be awarded to a Hindu student and one to a Christian student. These scholarships owe their foundation to the munificence of Rao Sahib C. Ramanujam Chetti Garu who has undertaken to endow them. He has paid Her Excellency Lady Pentland and myself the compliment of naming them after us, and they will be known as the Lord and Lady Pentland scholarships founded by Rao Sahib C. Ramanujam Chetti Garu. They will be awarded by the Director of Public Instruction in consultation with the Principal of the College, and the first two holders will be selected with effect from 1st July 1915. I am glad to have this opportunity of expressing my high appreciation of the generous support which Mr. Ramanujam Chetti has thus accorded to the advancement of the cause of female education, and I trust that his example may serve as an inspiration to other benefactors.

I will now, ladies and gentlemen, with your permission, proceed to open the new buildings and to wish the College and its staff on behalf of the Government and of all here present, a long and prosperous career.

His Excellency then proceeded to the building

where Mr. Lacey, the Superintending Engineer, introduced to him the contractors Messrs. A. K. Venkatarama Iyer and A. K. Ranganatha Iyer of the Madras Timber Warehouse. His Excellency then opened the building with the silver key presented by the contractors. After having inspected the building the guests were served with refreshments on the grounds in front of the new building.

The gathering dispersed at about 5-30.

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

Open-Air School

By the Headmaster, the Satyabadi School, Orissa.

The following are extracts from the paper read recently at the Inspectors and Teachers' Conference, Bihar and Orissa:—

People ordinarily understand a school to be a big building consisting of several rooms furnished with benches and chairs. In toils and path-salas no attention seems to be paid to the sanitary aspect of a school. Many of such institutions are found located in small rooms without sufficient provision for light and air. But fortunately for our children such a state of things is now much discouraged and the department rules are very particular about light and air. But nevertheless people of the old type are often heard to ridicule our keenness and concern about school sanitation. They point out to the general physique, eyesight and manly habits of our student population who do not often compare favourably with the students of toils and path-salas in this respect. It may appear very strange that the students of toils and path-salas with so little attention to sanitation should develop a better physique. But that is a fact and cannot be ignored. There may be many reasons for it. But undoubtedly one reason is that for the most part of the year, why, almost throughout the year, the weather permitting, toils and path-salas sit out of doors, sometimes under shady trees, at other times in open sheds. The virtue of such an open air system is little understood by those that follow it simply by habit and tradition. But may be traced to the old Gurukul of bygone ages where it was deliberately devised and adopted by the teachers and professors of ancient India. The system has been found successful as it was bound to be in a tropical country like

India. It has had a natural growth and stood the hard test of time.

Economy is no small advantage. This is perhaps the most important thing to be attended to in any system of administration. It is a matter of great satisfaction that the Indian educational expenditure is increasing year by year. But complaint is often heard in many quarters that the quality of education is not improved in proportion to the amount of money expended as a great part of the money assigned in the budget on the education head goes towards the construction of buildings and supply of furniture. The complaint is not without reason. The importance that is given to buildings in the present educational system is really in many cases more than what it should be. A building may be a primary necessity, for that affords a place for the school to sit throughout the year. But it is not the school, as it is said, "brick buildings do not make a home." We must have books—the more the better. We must have teachers of as superior quality as possible to make the school a real success. Complaint is often heard that the right sort of men do not come to the education department. Why, it is commonly seen that men disappointed in other and more lucrative departments are forced to take shelter in the education department which they are ready to leave on obtaining a situation in some other department where the present and prospective emolument is more attractive. The expression—a poor school master—has almost passed into a proverb. This stigma must be removed before we can hope to have a number of teachers who would take the work of teaching as their life's calling. The savings made from the building head will I am sure, help the department a good deal in this matter. Again the effects of the open air school on the physique of the student are quite evident. There he has plenty of pure air in the wide atmosphere around him and sufficient light, without the glare which can be prevented by overshadowing trees. It gives a sense of freedom to the pupil. It is at once his school and his play-ground, and a field for the enjoyment of his leisure and recreation.

College Education of Women.

The *Brooklyn Eagle* gives this historical summary:

"That fifty years of the life of Vassar covers almost the whole history of the higher education of women in this country. In view of what that education has done for women, and what it is doing to our social and political institutions no

other social development during the Nineteenth Century was of equal importance.

"When Vassar was founded there were a considerable number of 'female seminaries,' all less than half a century old, the courses of almost all of them being based upon the universal belief that there was fundamental difference between the brains of women and of men, that it was not only unbecoming for women to study many subjects taught in the men's colleges, but that women lacked the intellectual endowment for many of those studies as well. Ten years before Vassar, Elmira opened a four years' course for women, said to equal that of many men's colleges at that time, but the eminence of Elmira in that respect was lonely and of little more than local influence.

"When Matthew Vassar built his college at Poughkeepsie, without clothes closets in its dormitories, he opened the gates for a tide which has been flowing more and more swiftly and broadly ever since, until there are now more than 75,000 women receiving collegiate instruction in the United States. The dates of the foundation of the more famous institutions are eloquent of the newness of the admission that, intellectually, women are human beings and not an inferior order of creation, and of the spread of that belief once it had begun to take root.

"The two foremost leaders of the movement were Emma Willard and Mary Lyon. Miss Willard opened her famous 'Female Seminary' in Troy in 1829 but in 1808 she had opened a school for girls at Middlebury, Vermont, and so can fairly be called the pioneer of the movement. Mary Lyon came into the story at Ipswich, Mass., where she conducted a 'female seminary' in 1828 in conjunction with a teacher who had been a fellow student with her at Joseph Emerson's school at Byfield, Mass., opened in 1819. Miss Lyon undoubtedly believed in education for women, but so well had she learned the power of prejudice that when she started Mount Holyoke in 1837, she only called it a seminary; indeed, it did not adopt a full college course until 1888. The first use of the name college for a school for women seems to have been at Kent Hill, Maine, where the Wesleyan Seminary and Female College was established in 1821. It was almost half a century later before people began to perceive the ridiculousness of attributing sex to an institution instead of to its students.

"After Vassar in 1865 women's colleges came by decades. Wellesley and Smith were founded in 1875, and Bryn Mawr in 1885. Wells emerged

ged from a seminary into a college in 1870. Radcliffe was opened in 1879 and Barnard in 1889."

Meanwhile Mr. and Mrs. John Martin are arguing in the *New York Times* that college education of women lowers the birth rate and makes the maternal instinct fade away.—*The School Bulletin*.

University Reform, by Mr. C. Ramalinga Reddy, M.A.

In the Mahajana Sabah Hall, Madras, Mr. Ramalinga Reddy, of the Mysore Educational Department, delivered an interesting lecture on "University Reform." Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar presided. There was a large gathering of students and members of the Mahajana Sabha.

The lecturer said that to find out what was really wanted to make the Madras University a first-rate one it was necessary to study the constitution and functions of other Universities in foreign countries. The Madras University, like other Indian Universities, was modelled on the lines of Cambridge and Oxford, which, according to Mr. Balfour, were until recently chaotic and a laughing stock to the entire Universe. These Universities had since been reformed, and the Indian Universities had undergone changes, but not for the better. All foreign Universities had not only been doing intra-mural work but also extra-mural work. There were not a number of colleges of various degrees of efficiency and sufficiency affiliated to one University. The University was a single institution with different departments of studies, theoretical and practical, attached to it. It was of uncollegiate type. Students were not in those Universities merely to take degrees, but ample provision had been made, to allow them to train themselves in one or more special studies for which they had special aptitude, and were encouraged to obtain diplomas and certificates. Those foreign Universities did also extra-mural work, which was unheard of in this country. Universities were maintained by public money, and when the people could not afford to go to the University, the University must go to the people. No extensive work was carried on by the Indian Universities. Another subject that had been much talked of now-a-days was Residential Universities. People who advocated such a system in India had not the ghost of an idea of what were its advantages. Except in Cambridge and Oxford no University in the whole world was residential. Did that mean that English-

men alone were wise and others fools? In India, where Indian students of diverse caste and creeds and civilisations formed the entire population of schools and colleges, closer supervision and control by a non-Indian who had not the slightest idea of Indian habits and customs was bad and unwholesome. Then again, there was only one University for one large Presidency like Madras. In Ontario, which had a population of two and a half millions, there was one University in Toronto. It was only by such means that education could be fostered rapidly. In foreign countries passing was a subject of rejoicing, but in India it was a subject of mourning; while passing was a rule there, it was an extraordinary exception here. That was the function of Indian Universities. The lecturer next spoke of the importance of Vernaculars and said, while English should be compulsorily taught, the Vernaculars must find their place in the curricula of studies. Because in India the medium of education was English alone, there was not much scope for freedom of thought and action. In conclusion, the speaker urged that there should be unity among the educationists and the Indian public so that their needs and wants might be easily obtained without opposition. He also advocated Indian control over Indian education.

Education in Behar, by Mr. G. J. Jennings, Director of Public Instruction, Behar.

On the 16th instant Sir Charles Bayley opened three institutions which Government has built at an enormous cost, the Patna Collegiate School, the Training School and the Training College for teachers. All these new buildings occupy the land between the Patna Arts College and the Behar School of Engineering. The Director of Public Instruction in his speech reviewed the last few years' work of the Education Department. He said that drill-sheds and schools and grants had been made for playgrounds, manual training classes to improve the Cuttack, Bhagalpur and Ranchi. First-grade training schools had been opened in Muzafferpur and Bhagalpur and every division had now one such institution. Teaching of Urdu had now been introduced as a compulsory subject for all teachers to enable them to explain their meaning to Moslems. A similar measure was being tried in Gurm training schools. A training class for women teachers had been opened at Muzafferpur in addition to the training college at Bankipur. The Director looked forward to the day when at

every district headquarters there would be a training school for women teachers. Before separation from Bengal, Behar had four Inspectors and one Inspectress but now there are six Inspectors and one Inspectress. Each division had now an Assistant Inspectress and a special Moslem Inspecting officer. Special Deputy Inspectorships had been created for aboriginal schools in Santal Perganas and Chota Nagpur. Government's secondary education scheme included the placing of all Deputy Inspectors in charge of districts in the Provincial Education Services. Out of the Imperial grants for primary education five lakhs recurring and nearly one lakh and a quarter had been placed at the disposal of the District Boards and Municipalities. The District Boards had also received ten per cent. from Public Works cess to be devoted to education. Government had not neglected classical language. An association to control Toles and Sanskrit examinations had been formed and a Sanskrit College at Muzafferpur had been sanctioned and buildings were under construction. A similar institution for Orissa would be established at Puri. The details of a scheme for establishing a Government Madrassa at Bankipore and other places were being worked out. The total number of public educational institutions had risen since April 1912 by 909 and that of all pupils by 37,500 and that of Moslem pupils by 16,500. In the past year the departmental expenditure was nine and a quarter lakh more than in the preceding year. In conclusion the Director said: "The educational edifice of which we see the beginning would be a noble one, broad as the whole province and as lofty as the aspirations of the best spirits among our numbers can build it up. The broader it is based the loftier will be its golden summits under which the whole people of the province may in some period of their lives enter and learn."

Sir Narayan Chandavarkar on Female Education.

In the course of his address congratulating the lady candidates who came out successful in the last examinations of the Bombay University, Sir Narayan Chandavarkar spoke as follows:—

Time will not permit me to survey the past history of female education relating to the whole of British India. I shall therefore confine myself to the Bombay Presidency in illustration and to know the fortunes of one province is to find the fortunes of the rest more or less. For the purposes of my survey I must deal with what

Government and the people have each done and failed to do. I will premise by saying that we owe a debt of gratitude to Christian Missions for the first and earliest impetus given by them to female education and for still continuing their support to the cause. But we are here concerned with the efforts of Government and the people. Looking at the question in that way, the palm of first pioneer of female education in Western India must be given to India's grand old man, Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji who in the forties of last century, started the Students' Literary and Scientific Society, gathered girls in classes under its auspices, and with an enterprising band of young Elphinstonians taught in those classes as Voluntary Teachers receiving no remuneration but teaching as a duty of love. That is the people's first landmark in the course of female education in this Presidency. It was that initiative of Mr. Dadabhai and his lieutenants of the time which encouraged Government to start girls' schools here and there. Then came in 1854 the famous Education Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, then Secretary of State for India, in which he directed the Governments here to forward female education. But the Mutiny of 1858 with the need for strict religious neutrality which it emphasised marred the promise. In 1866 Miss Mary Carpenter, a name still a household word in many parts of India, visited this country with the object of promoting the cause of female education and prison discipline—which two were her life's mission and passion. The Government of Bombay placed every facility in her way for the purposes of her object and she was able to visit important towns and submit a report to Government, pointing out that "Hindu girls wanted only proper instruction to make them in every way equal and in some respects superior to those of our own country" and recommending immediate institution of Female Training Colleges as the first necessary step. Something was done in that direction by Government. In 1882 came the Education Commission appointed by Lord Ripon and while remarking that "the intellectual activity of Hindu women is very keen" the Commission recommended that the promotion of female education should be mainly left to private enterprise until Indian opinion had grown so strong as to demand more help from Government and that in the meantime Government should take steps for the training of women as teachers. Private enterprise saw the establishment of a High School for girls in Poona in 1884 but the Government was indifferent to its claims and the Hindu public, led by certain reactionary newspapers of the day, were more of

less hostile to it. Those newspapers from day to day charged the late Mr. Justice Ranade, the late Mr. Shankar Pandurang Pandit and Sir Ramakrishna Bhandarkar and others who had pioneered the High School as men with 'perverted brains' for seeking to spoil "Hindu womanhood." For the first few years but a small number of Hindu girls attended the High School. The majority were Jews and Christians. Soon the tide turned and the High School for girls at Poona has not only for a majority of pupils Hindu girls but it has to refuse admission for want of accommodation. Our next landmark in point of the secondary education of women is the institution of Prof. Karve's Widows' Home, the Seva Sadans and Vanita Vishrams. All this shows the situation now. The demand for female education has increased; the old orthodox opposition has greatly disappeared; the attitude of bigoted orthodoxy is now one of toleration; and the crying and increasing want of the day is a sufficient number of trained women as teachers. The evil is that girls are withdrawn from school when they are 11 or 12 of age because then they are married; and there is still a strong prejudice against sending married girls to schools manned by males as teachers. The Seva Sadans and Vanita Vishrams are no doubt striving to give a supply of female teachers and in that way supplementing the efforts of the female training colleges supported by Government. But what is their number compared to the increased and increasing demand? For several years we have appealed for a model Girls' High School in Bombay supported entirely by Government; but the appeal has been in vain. The steps of Government have been tardy; and our own enthusiasm in respect of female education has been in the multitude of public activities, one characterised by fits and starts. We have no wholesome household literature suited to present conditions and those of our ancient ideals of hearth and home which are healthy and inspiring but dormant. Our periodicals and magazines intended for women more or less live upon and revel in translations of English book and novels and the love stories of the penny magazines of England! We wax eloquent at Literary Conferences over the growth of vernacular literature, forgetting that the literature of a people is grown only with the growth of its life as a whole and reflects its tastes, ideals and aspirations and that the charm of the English tongue—its chaste simplicity—was not realised so well as when women began to write books and mould the language. "If I might control the literature of the household I would guarantee the well-being of the Church

and the State," wrote Bacon with his sense of practical wisdom. No household literature can be healthy where women are not well educated. The time has come when we should not let this national problem drift any longer and this occasion affords us an opportunity of thanking Sir William Wedderburn and others of our friends and countrymen in London for moving in the matter promptly and bringing to the fore the problem of India's womanhood on which rests the future of the British Empire for which we are, man and woman, praying to God and striving in His Grace.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

The Annual Convocation.

The Convocation of the Madras University for the purpose of conferring degrees on the graduates of the year was held on the 25th instant, at 4-30 P.M. in the Senate Hall, Chepauk. In the unavoidable absence of the Chancellor of the University, His Excellency Lord Pentland, the Vice-Chancellor, the Hon'ble Sir J. E. P. Wallis, Chief Justice, presided. The Vice-Chancellor and the Fellows (about 60 in number) had assembled in the old Senate room and came to the *dais* in procession headed by the Registrar.

The occasion was a grand one and the ceremonial function was impressive. The visitors' gallery was full and a large number of distinguished visitors were present on the occasion, prominent among them being Her Excellency Lady Pentland with an Aid-de-camp, Rajah of Ramnad, the Hon'ble Messrs. P. Kesava Pillai, Chidambaranatha Mudaliar, B. V. Narasimha Iyer, A. S. Krishna Rao, and M. Ramachandra Rao, Mahamahopadaya V. Swaminatha Iyer, Mrs. Annie Besant and others. The candidates wearing the hoods and gowns pertaining to their respective degrees were arranged in the body of the Hall opposite to the *dais* in which the Vice-Chancellor and the Fellows had taken their seats. Before the proceedings of the evening commenced, the Hon'ble the Chief Justice Sir John Wallis, Vice-Chancellor, said that he had been asked by His Excellency Lord Pentland, the Chancellor, to say that he was unable to attend that Convocation. His Excellency had been suffering from indisposition from which he was glad to say, he was recovering. His Doctors advised him not to attend that Convocation. He thought that he was expressing the feelings of every one of those present

there when he said that they regretted very much the absence of His Excellency on the occasion. The Vice-Chancellor then explained the object of the Convocation and asked the candidates to stand forward. The candidates then stood up and the usual questions were put to them and they made the usual promise. Then the candidates were presented to the Chancellor by the heads of their respective colleges, being members of the Senate, or Honorary Fellows of the University, or by other members of the Senate or Honorary Fellows of the University, the candidates having first received their diplomas from the Registrar—Candidates for degrees 1167 in number were presented in the following order:—M.L. 5, B.L. 251., M.D. 1, M.B. & C.M. 2, M.B. & B.S. 13, L.M. & S. 40, B.E. 8, L.T. 93, M.A. (old By-laws) 10, under the Transitory Regulations 25, B.A. Honours 92, B.A. 532, degrees in absentia 42, Oriental Titles 3.

After the candidates had been presented the Registrar laid the record of the degrees before the Chancellor who signed the same.

Eight lady graduates (L.T. 3, B.A. Honours 1, and B.A. 4) took their degrees amidst loud cheering of the audience.

Reviews and Notices.

WAR MAPS.

PHILIP'S LARGE SCALE STRATEGICAL WAR MAP OF EUROPE:—(1) WESTERN AREA; (2) SOUTHERN AREA; (3) CENTRAL AND EASTERN AREA. (GEORGE PHILIP & SON). Paper, 2s. 6d. net; On CLOTH TO FOLD OR WITH ROLLERS, 6s. net each.

W. & A. K. JOHNSTON'S WAR MAP:—(1) PARIS TO BERLIN (OROGRAPHICALLY COLOURED); (2) PETROGRAD TO BERLIN (EASTERN AREA); (3) BELGIUM AND NORTH-EAST FRANCE, SHOWING MAIN ROADS AND RAILWAYS; (4) DARDANELLES AND BOSPHORUS.

The regions of war are subjects of special study at present and it is but natural that publishers of maps should issue special maps of the War Zone giving full particulars to enable those interested to follow the campaigns in the different theatres of war with considerable intelligence. Messrs. Philip's maps are compiled from official sources and are faultless and excellent. They are also in colours and the colours are of such a nature as to show the nature of the country. Messrs. Johnston's map of the Western campaign is orographical and is of

inestimable value to understand the "Why" of the operations in this theatre.

In Philip's maps, the relief of the land is coloured in brown; woods and forests in green; fortified towns and places of strategical importance and railways in red. The scale of all these maps is ample and hence the inclusion of much useful detail is possible. Philip's maps have a comprehensive index which adds to their usefulness. The insets in Johnston's maps are of great value.

FIRST BOOK OF GEOGRAPHY IN TELUGU, BY MR. M. SITHARAMA ROW, B.A., L.T. Price 10 as.

Any text-book written in the vernaculars of the country by Indian teachers for Indian boys and published by an Indian firm will always be welcome to us. Mr. Sitharama Row has written a number of good books on Geography. He and the other Indian authors and publishers must constantly remember the circumstances under which they work. If books are carelessly written and badly printed, Indian publishers will be discounted and in the competition they will suffer enormously. Hence it is, we feel that the volume before us might be different from what it is at present. The first thing that we notice is, it is wanting in aim and cohesion. It is hard to see what the author is driving at. The book opens with a chapter on "What is Geography." The author evidently wants children to realize that it is the description of the earth considered as the home of man. We regret that the whole thing is but very clumsy. There is a chapter devoted to "Plans, Pictures" and we fail to see in it any explanation of what these are. In a first book of Geography, these elementary facts should be explained before practical exercises are set on the "construction of a relief model." In the chapter on "Solar System" a number of unconnected ideas are jumbled together. The chapter on the Relief of India is a most disappointing one. If anything, it is a lesson on the influence of the mountain system on the winds in determining the rainfall of this country.

We notice that the book is wanting in accuracy and precision. The author does not realize that for India as a whole, the rainy season is the summer, where వర్షాకాలం should be used వసంతకాలం is used. It is wrong to say that the Palar flows through Nellore District.

The maps are also wanting in accuracy. The position of the Eastern Ghats on the map opposite to page 46 is wrong.

We dwell more on the defects than on the merits of the book; because we are anxious that Indian authors should write books which would successfully compete with similar books written for, and published by, English firms.

THE SURFACE OF THE EARTH—AN ELEMENTARY, PHYSICAL AND ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY, BY HERBERT PICKLES, B.A., B.Sc. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 2s.

As a treatise on Elementary Physical Geography, this book is good and provides a readable account of the earth's surface and the changes that are taking place on it. The special feature of the book lies in the fact of its being a successful attempt to explain how physical and climatic conditions control human activities. It is easy to interest the children in the changes that are taking place in the world around us and the chapter on "Human Activities" is an attempt to take advantage of this interest. The opening chapter is on rain, a phenomenon quite familiar to children. The next chapter is on rivers and their work is a sequel to that on rain. The chapter on Sedimentary Rocks is built up on the statement that rivers are builders of new land. This connection between the previous chapter and the succeeding one is indicated as intelligently as possible.

The book is full of maps and illustrations. The Exercises at the end of each chapter are not merely questions on the text. They are calculated to encourage a detailed study by the more advanced pupils. Teachers of Geography will find a study of this book very profitable.

PHILIP'S SYNTHETIC MAPS—ASIA, EUROPE, BY E. G. R. TAYLOR, B.Sc. (GEORGE PHILIP & SON, LTD.) 6d. net each.

Synthetic maps are of great educational value to the proper understanding of Geography and these maps now before us are excellent in their way. Messrs. W. & A. K. Johnston introduced in their series of Atlas Geographies, maps on transparent paper and gave in addition a physically coloured map without names, to serve as the foundation map. Messrs. Philip and Sons have given in each of these series of synthetic maps two coloured foundation maps and eight transparencies to explain the political dominions, communications, minerals, winter climate, summer climate, July temperature, January temperature, Natural vegetation, &c. All these ten maps have names printed on them. They are specially prepared for the study of the bearing of one geographical phenomenon on another. The foundation maps are so coloured as to show certain fundamental phenomena with which the transparencies have a "cause-and-effect" connexion. Teachers and students ought to find these maps extremely valuable in their attempt to study Geography on thoroughly scientific and rational lines. Those who have been using the Atlas Geographies will have no difficulty in understanding how to build up the geography of a country with the help of the synthetic maps. With each series there is given a separate sheet in

which the suggestions for class use are printed and we find these suggestions very helpful.

"EDUCATIONAL VALUES AND METHODS BASED ON THE PRINCIPLES OF THE TRAINING PROCESS," BY W. G. SLEIGHT, M.A., D. LITT. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). 4s. 6d. net.

The old faculty psychology cannot be said to have quite lost its hold on men's minds, for people still talk of training the various faculties as if these were mysteriously independent agencies, and recognise it as the basis of educational practice. According to these, special subjects cultivate special qualities, have special efficacy as "whetstones of the soul"—Mathematics for accuracy and logical order, the Classics for the cultivation of literary taste, and so on. The subjects to be taught should be chosen for their *training* value, rather than for their *intrinsic* value, the choice should be with reference to the relatively disciplinary values of the subjects, there being in this an implied belief that mental power acquired by way of one subject is capable of being *transferred* to any other department of mental work. To put it briefly, *special* training has *general* effects. This theory of 'the possibility of the transfer to one subject, of power acquired by training in another,' is the well-known doctrine of *formal training* or *formal discipline* which has so long been guiding educational practice. Experience would seem to lend colour to a notion like this. An axe sharpened on any hard substance exercises its sharpness on any material; so is a well-constructed machine able to crush anything put into it. Instances like these lent a plausibility to the theory, and it soon became an accepted article of faith.

This subject of the transference of mental power has come to be recently studied in the light of educational experiments, and Dr. Sleight's book is a most valuable and up-to-date contribution towards the clearing up of this important question. He gives a minutely critical analysis of the methods and inferences of previous experimenters, and he details his own carefully-planned experiments where chances of all possible errors were sought to be excluded. The conclusions arrived at are in accord with those of Professor Thorndike of Columbia, and may be set forth thus,—special training does not produce general effects. Practice gives rise to a *specific* habit. This tends to function whenever the same stimulus occurs, or the stimulus is one with predominatingly identical elements; in other words, *prac-*

tice sometimes produces some amount of transfer. Thus, a time-honoured fundamental assumption, the theory of formal training, as a general guiding principle must be considered to have been exploded; and, as Dr. Spearman truly remarks, "to the demolition of this ancient idol no one has contributed so powerfully as Dr. Sleight."

Two positions follow, which the author clearly discriminates (a) one as bearing on *method*, and (b) the other on *matter*, one as having to do with the *teaching* of the curriculum, and the other with the *construction* of the curriculum:—

(a) The chances of transference are small. The practical educator will do well, however to avail himself of this small advantage in building up *concepts of method* in the minds of his pupils and in helping them to form right mental attitudes and *ideals*. Concepts of method are ideas of logical sequence, ideas of right modes of observation, judgment, and reasoning. These are purely intellectual, and so are distinct from *ideals* which have an accompanying emotional element in addition. The ideals are of two classes, quasi-ideals, like accuracy, neatness where the emotional element is not quite so strong, and pure ideals, as duty, patriotism, self-sacrifice, where the emotional element is strongly marked. Instead of teaching Arithmetic in the fond belief that it will effect a wonderful development of the reasoning power in general, he may get out of it some general ideas of logical sequence which may be made applicable to other branches of study, and to the actual situations of life.

(b) The subjects of instruction should be chosen for their relative *intrinsic* value; the selection need not any longer be on account of their merely *disciplinary* value.

After this 'constructive' work of establishing the criterion to be employed in the selection of material, he makes a 'critical' survey of the contributions to the subject of 'education values' that have been made by eminent writers from Herbert Spencer to Bagley.

The author next proceeds to make practical use of his criterion in building up the curriculum. The first implication in this criterion is the well-known aim of all great educators to *bring the school into closer touch with life*. One of the most erroneous notions that prevail is that the school need have almost nothing to do with real life. Not children alone but adults also separate in thought life in school from life outside it, so that the individual exhibits a double personality so to speak. The first thing then to be recognised is

that school work should be in close touch with life should mirror forth life. Now, not work alone but both work and leisure constitute life. Very few know how to occupy themselves during their leisure simply because they have had no direction at school regarding the same. So the school should prepare the individual for the work, and for the leisure, of life. Again, the work for which the school has to prepare is twofold, the acquirement of knowledge and the acquirement of skill; and in the department of leisure the school should provide opportunities for acquiring the power of appreciation or enjoyment and for acquiring a certain degree of skill. The entire scheme is graphically represented and worked out in elaborate detail and the comments with which the details are elaborated are most lucid and informing.

The curriculum to which we are led by the principle of 'intrinsic value,' will, however, have to be modified by other conditions which must be taken account of. In the chapter on 'Modifications of the Curriculum' the author therefore considers the application of his main principle to several different cases—(1) differences in mental development, (2) social differences, (3) local differences, (4) differences in the leaving age, (5) differences in the type of school; and the suggestions and conclusions are most practical and valuable.

The two positions, one as regards method and the other as regards matter having thus been discussed in a theoretical manner the author deals with them practically in his last two chapters on 'the Fundamentals of matter—English' and on 'the Fundamentals of method—Nature Study.'

In the above remarks we have perhaps gone into details a little more elaborately than the limits of a review warrant, but the unique character of the subject, and the author's mode of treatment are ample justification. There has been such a vague and distressing uncertainty about the soundness or otherwise of the principle of formal discipline, and to Dr. Sleight's admirable book belongs the credit of having once for all settled the question in the light of careful experimental research. The treatment of the subject is thorough and the exposition masterly. An index at the end would have greatly enhanced the value of this work.

TALKS TO TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, BY A. M. C. ARNOLD, RETIRED INSPECTRESS OF GIRLS' SCHOOLS, MADRAS. (LONGMANS). Price Rs. 1.

The title is sure to remind the reader of the well known 'Talks to Teachers' by Prof. James, but he will soon feel disappointed, for, he will not find in the contents anything of what the similarity of the title would have led him to expect. This book is a brief manual of the methods of teaching, with a few preliminary hints on class management and kindred topics, which the Elementary school teacher needs to know about. The defects noted are such as are actually to be met with in our Elementary schools any day, and in drawing up her suggestions and instructions the authoress has relied upon the ample experience gained by her as Inspectress of Girls' Schools in this Presidency. The bulk of this book—it is Part I, Part II, we are told, is soon to follow,—deals in detail with the methods of teaching Arithmetic, and the authoress takes care to point out how language may be correlated with Arithmetic and how the moral lesson of truth may also be inculcated. We cannot, however, consider the language quite exact when $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$ is explained to mean $\frac{3}{8}$ taken half time; nor can we help remarking that the situation is somewhat overdrawn when we are told, "when the number 2 is understood many things may be done with it. It may be decomposed and composed again; it may be counted, and with it addition, subtraction, multiplication and division sums worked." Such small points notwithstanding, the instructions must be said to be very practical and they are sure to be found of value by all Elementary school teachers.

A NEW GEOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS, BY GEORGE LAWSON, M.A. BOOKS I—IV. (W. & R. CHAMBERS, LONDON.) Price 2s. net.

This small volume divided into four books presents to us in a concise form "the ordinary modern school course in plane geometry." The scope coincides roughly with that required in the syllabus for the various public examinations.

The theorems are arranged in proper and convenient groups, and new and simple proofs given in many places. The new proof for the three-side congruence is here worth noting.

The problems and the practical exercises at the end of each section are well dealt with. It is, however, to the exercises at the end of the first

book that the teacher will turn with the greatest interest for the reason that an effort is here made to correlate astronomy and geography with geometry by means of well-selected problems.

But the author seems to hesitate when he introduces his new sequence, and takes trouble to make special arrangements and substitutions in order to drop the new sequence if necessary and go back to the standard one. We see no reason why the author should have hesitated about his new sequence.

The work is, on the whole, one of the best publications now in the field of modern geometry and is bound to become popular. We have much pleasure in calling the attention of mathematical teachers to this admirable work.

SCHOOL ALGEBRA, MATRICULATION EDITION—CRACKNELL—(UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS.) 4s. 6d.

The University Press has added yet another to their unequalled series of Text-books on Mathematics. "The object of the series is to provide candidates for examination and learners generally with text-books which shall convey in the simplest form sound instruction in accordance with the latest results of scholarship and scientific research." In the achievement of this object, the University Press is sincere, and the present volume of Algebra by Cracknell stands in evidence. This is clearly an improvement on the new Matriculation algebra published by the same press but by a different author, and which has run a number of editions.

The subjects dealt with in the former portion of the book are along familiar lines; but it may be stated that they are treated with thoroughness and attention to practical details. While, in the latter portion the lessons are most interesting; those on the laws of signs, negative quantities and zero are very instructive, especially since they are introduced at a later age.

The graph work is uniformly distributed throughout the book and this is a good feature, as otherwise pupils would be under the misapprehension that graph is a separate subject by itself. The miscellaneous exercises are numerous and of great variety. The author has already acquired a high fame for lucid explanation and we have great pleasure in inviting the attention of mathematical students and teachers to this new treatise.

ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY, THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL, VOL. I. TRIANGLES AND QUADRILATERALS. BY W. E. PATERSON AND E. O. TAYLOR, (OXFORD—CLARENDON PRESS.) 1s. 6d.

This is an excellent book on geometry and is evidently a continuation of an Introduction to Geometry by Taylor. The book has been very carefully prepared on the new lines suggested in circular 711 of the Board of Education. These authors, who have already acquired a fame in the field of modern mathematics, have attempted with success to be original in their methods of treatment without any fear for the so-called "standard sequence." They have freely introduced oral questions after most of the propositions, and these are carefully selected as to assist the pupil in understanding the propositions. Only few propositions are written out in full, while in many propositions, hints and sometimes outlines only are given, and the pupils are thereby encouraged with great advantage to fill in details. This is certainly a departure in the right direction, which few authors attempt, and is highly commendable. The authors have not given undue importance to practical or experimental work at the risk of logical treatment, and have taken care to give each its proper share and at the proper place.

A number of useful exercises are appended to each theorem; and the revision examples as well as the 15 sets of exercises in the end are well graduated. We heartily recommend the introduction of this excellent book as a class text-book in Geometry and await with interest the appearance of the other volume.

KINDERGARTEN, BY REBEKAH MCLEOD. (CHRISTIAN LITERATURE SOCIETY FOR INDIA, MADRAS). Rs. 1-12-0.

In this book the author has shown the Western Kindergarten methods applied to Indian conditions. Illustrated by numerous and excellent photographs the work shows the place and position of every subject and its relation to the child, and leaves the old methods of rigid courses of lessons for a more expansive educational life better suited to the young pupils' tastes who learn more by "doing" than by hearing or seeing.

The section on Drawing is well written and clearly shows the need for shading and back grounds, points which are neglected in many schools.

The use of crayons and pastels for color work is recommended, also water color. As many teachers have no knowledge of water color work, this subject seems to be too difficult to be attempted by such young children as owing to the lack of proper instruction much time may be wasted.

The book certainly satisfy a general need as to the true methods of teaching the little ones entrusted to the care of the teacher.

A HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO THE FALL OF ROME, BY HUTTON WEBSTER. (GEORGE HARRAP & COMPANY). 6s. net.

This book of more than 650 pages is useful not only to the student but to the teacher. Its great merit is that it is not a mere political history of the ancient world, but a social, economic and literary history as well. Carefully planned to show to the student that politics is only one department of history, it naturally gives him a true idea of the interdependence of human actions and human achievements in the different realms of politics, society, science, art,—in one word, culture. Chapter I is devoted to the pre-historic peoples,—their dwellings, their weapons, their domestication of animals, their domestication of plants, their writing and alphabet, their primitive attempts at scientific knowledge (e.g., numeration, methods of reckoning, measuring and weighing, calculation of time, etc.), their art, etc. In Chapter II, the histories of Babylonia, Egypt, Syria, and the world-Empire of Persia are described, and in Chapter III is given an illuminating account of the discovery of oriental civilization and of its ideals of government, society, commerce and industries, law and morality, literature, arts, science and so on. The remaining 16 chapters are about Greece and Rome, special chapters being assigned to Hellenistic civilization; the progress of the world under the Roman Empire, the private life of the Greeks and Romans and the art of Greece and Rome. Everywhere the true history of society and civilization is presented and not the mere dry bones of political events. The greatest defect in the book is its total ignoring of India.

REPUBLICAN ROME, BY E. L. HAVELL. (HARRAP & COMPANY). 7s. 6d. net.

We have great pleasure in recommending this excellent treatise to students of Roman History. Its great merit is that it combines a high type of

historic presentation with the information needed for success in examinations. The illustrations are good, the treatment is both analytical and informing, and a golden mean between dry facts, on the one hand, and airy descriptions on the other, is observed. A desire to inform the student of social developments and social ideals is always evinced, and the progress of civilization, in all its aspects, is carefully described. We should like to draw attention, for instance, to Chap. XIII where an excellent description of Rome on the eve of the revolution is given,—of its new populus, its aristocracy, its slaves, its religion, its economy, its women, literature, etc. The great defect in Indian schools and colleges is the lack of interest displayed in the social history of nations; and it is books like the present one that can infuse a higher standard and ensure a better and a truer education. We should like to see this book in the hands of every student of Roman History.

A SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND,
BY F. W. TICKNER. (LONDON: EDWARD ARNOLD.)
8s. 6d.

This beautifully printed book of 700 pages is likely to be very useful for the students of the Intermediate and Pass B.A. courses of our University. The text-books which have been, as a rule, placed in their hands are not quite satisfactory in the treatment of social and industrial questions; and a volume like this which avoids both the prolixity of the standard writers and the meagreness of ordinary text-books, cannot but be of immense value as a companion to books like Tout's *Advanced History*, Student's *Gardiner*, or Green's *Short History*. It is divided moreover into 47 chapters, each chapter forming a convenient lesson. The first 3 chapters deal with the social and industrial conditions of the Roman, Anglo-Saxon and Norman periods and give a good idea of the Manor House, the caste and the hut; but it must be confessed that the book would have perceptibly increased in value if more space had been devoted to this period of English history. To students of India the growth of agricultural and industrial life in the A.-S. period must be of perennial interest, as it affords a clue to the possible economic development of their own villages. Chapters IV, V and VI are devoted to the urban economy of the Middle Ages, the first to the evolution of town life and the Guild system, the second to the town at work, and the third to the town at play. The last is of singular

interest and the descriptions of the holiday festivals, the military sports, the water-games, the May-day, the fun of the fair, the minstrelsy and pageantry, and the miracle and mystery plays enlighten the student on aspects of life which have been hitherto a sealed book to him. Chapters VII and VIII are on the mediæval church, the former dealing with the organization of the church—the several grades of clergy, the monks and their orders, the monastic officials, the regulars and seculars, the Templars and Knights—Hospitallers, etc.—and the latter dealing with the service of the church in the evolution of mediæval architecture, Norman, Romanesque and Gothic in its three stages (geometrical, decorated and perpendicular). Chapter IX describes the mediæval chivalry, its features, methods and institutions, and the next takes us “By the way side in Merrie England.” It deals particularly with the custom of pilgrimage which was so common in those days, the condition of roads and bridges, the vehicles in vogue, the baronial and royal retinues, etc. Chapter XI speaks about the Black Death and its consequences, and Chapter XII with the commercial policy of the Edwards. The mediæval school and its wonderful growth into University life, and mediæval literature are the themes of the next two chapters, and a description of the mediæval constitution fittingly closes the picture.

The next 16 chapters form Book II and deal with the Tudor and Stuart periods. The Renaissance and its effects occupy one chapter (XVI), and the enclosure and sheep-farming movements, another (XVII). The Reformation is dismissed in one chapter, and the growth of vagabondage, poverty and distress in another. But the most interesting portion is that on “the London of Good Queen Bess,” its government, its inhabitants, its shops and markets, its streets and houses, its wharves and quays. Read, for example, the description of the London house in p. 281, and you will know how picturesque the teaching of history can be made. In chapter XXIII begins the description of the constitutional troubles of the Stuart period. The progress of agriculture, of industrial and commercial methods, of banking and finance; the growth of colonies and of scholars then follow; and with two chapters on the architecture and the literature of the period, the second book closes.

Book III deals with the period after the Revolution of 1688. It is unnecessary to deal with it in detail. What has been said is enough to shew the method and the plan adopted.

Chapter XXXIII, for example, is devoted to the growth of colonies and dependencies; the next to society in the 18th century. The rise of Methodism claims one lesson, and a chapter is devoted to the great agriculturists: Townshend, Coke of Holkham, Robert Bakewell, George Culley and others. The industrial and agrarian revolutions, the poor law problem, the factory system, the growth of free trade, etc., are described in separate chapters and the whole ends with a lesson on modern life in town and country.

The chronological table of events, the index and the illustrations are other features of the book useful to the student. On the whole it is a valuable publication and supplies a real want.

THE MYSORE ECONOMIC JOURNAL. (*Special number*:
July 1915).

The great service which this Journal is doing to the country is amply illustrated in this special number. Mr. Alfred Chatterton leads off with a practical article on *the Master Weaver* and points out how his position and prospects can be bettered. Dr. Coleman next follows with some suggestions on *the agricultural possibilities in Mysore* and shews how an increase in Mysore's agricultural wealth can be brought about by increasing the actual area under cultivation, by replacing less profitable by more profitable crops, or by increasing the actual out-turn per acre of the crops already cultivated. The methods of improvement he suggests under each of these three heads are of value both to the agriculturists and to statesmen. In his contribution on *the mineral possibilities in Mysore*, Dr. W. F. Smeeth gives a timely caution against exaggerated and speculative notions of Mysore's mineral wealth and proves the necessity for it by making an extremely interesting review of the past productions and future possibilities of the Kolar Gold Mines, the Manganese deposits of Shimoga and the neighbouring districts, the Bababudan and other iron ores, etc. He concludes that “the mineral possibilities in Mysore are by no means sensational and that it is very far indeed from being a country rich in mining and metallurgical possibilities. Many promising ventures have turned out most disappointing and closer investigation often discloses defects of quantity or quality, lack of water or fuel or absence of transport facilities to a suitable market.” In the next article on *Self-help in Irrigation*, Rao Bahadur K. Krishna Iyengar enumerates the various measures taken by Government to induce the people of villages to take more intelligent interest

and to cultivate a spirit of self-help for extending the benefits of irrigation all over the State, how these attempts have not been quite successful, and how the Raiyats should be made to appreciate the value of self-management. He illustrates his contentions by taking the cases of the village tanks, distribution of water for irrigation, the planting of trees, and so on. Dr. Srinivasa Rao then makes certain valuable suggestions regarding rural sanitation under the heads of (1) the provision of good drinking water; (2) the prevention of epidemics; (3) the removal of filth and refuse; (4) registration of vital statistics; and (5) attention to vaccination. Mr. N. Madhava Rao makes an earnest plea for a systematic statistical study of Mysore Economic problems. In an interesting note on *Printing as a profession for educated youth*, Mr. C. H. Yates refers briefly to the careers of the great printers of the world, and shews how there should be *pluck*, *perseverance*, *practical training*, and *suitable environments*. *Development of Banking in Mysore* by Mr. W. Rose and *the Mysore Silk Industry* by Mr. K. Subba Rao are two other interesting articles. The number gives an account of the resolutions and proceedings of the Sixth Economic Conference together with the highly interesting speech of the Dewan. It is a solid, substantial, highly useful number.

MYSORE ECONOMIC JOURNAL, July 1915.

The place of honour is given in this issue to Mr. S. K. Sarma's plea for a Permanent Settlement in India. The problem in India he points out, is “to see how the peasant proprietor can be assured the fruits of his valour and not how the State can sweep away to its coffers the savings of his toil. Whereas in England the landless people are to be protected against a tiny knot of landowners, in India the problem is entirely the reverse of it, to protect the peasant proprietor against the State itself as landlord.” The next article on *Oil Mills* by Mr. S. G. Sastri draws attention to the unsatisfactory condition of the exportation of oil seeds and the importation of oil, and discusses how the oil pressing industry can be started in the State by the adoption of the plate (or Anglo-American) as well as the cage system. In a short note on the value of prickly-pear for the making of paper pulp, Rao Sahib M. Rama Rao says that “if some cheap and easy method of getting rid of its horrible spines and irritating bristle-like tufts of hair and massive flesh can be found out,” the prickly-pear fibre “would be made one of the many raw materials available and suitable for paper pulp in South

India." Rev. E. W. Thompson's speech on the improvement of the village is then reproduced. It compares the habits of the Indian and English peasants and suggests improvements in regard to his accommodation, his environments, etc. "A son of the soil" gives a description of the Lister Milking Machine which cannot but interest those who are engaged in dairying on scientific lines. Mr. N. Madhava Rao, in the course of a review of Mr. S. K. Sarma's *Rise in Prices*, points out that the proposal to revive the coinage of the "honest Rupee" is seductive; "but at the present day when the whole of the civilized world with which, for better or worse, India has been drawn into intimate trade relations, has adopted gold as the medium of exchange, it is neither wise nor possible to revert to a system which could be applicable only to a position of isolation."

In the September Number Mr. J. S. Chakravarti writes on agricultural insurance and endeavours to prove, with the aid of statistics, that a scheme of rain insurance does not run counter to science or administrative skill; that "a system of rain insurance on the taluk basis will...work fairly well in respect of the bulk of the insured and afford relief to a large number of cases in which it is really needed." In the *War and Indian Wheat*, "Rusticus" summarises Mr. W. H. Moreland's wheat scheme, i.e., the scheme planned by him, at the instance of Government, for the increased cultivation of it in India. Mr. N. Kunjan Pillai, Director of Agriculture, Travancore, draws attention to some practical difficulties in improving Indian agriculture,—namely (1) the poverty of the ryots and (2) their illiteracy and consequent conservatism; and he makes an earnest plea for a sound technical education. Two views of India's place in imperial preference, one of Sir Lethbridge and the other of Prof. Kale, are then summarised. In his *Economic Aspect of Railway Policy and Management* Mr. S. Hiriyannaiya investigates the lines on which construction and management may proceed in future. Mr. A. Rangasami Aiyangar next controverts the theory of the hoarded wealth of India on which the *Times* recently dilated in its proposal of governmental loans. Amidst other interesting articles are *Designs for Model Villages* by Mr. H. F. Marker; the *Talgaon Glass Factory* by Mr. Balaraj Urs; and *Criminal Settlements and Co-operation* by Rev. G. N. Thomson.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

- First Lessons in English Direct Oral Method, by Alexander McLeish, Ajmer.
- An Introduction to Applied Mechanics, by E. S. Andrews, B. Sc. Cambridge University Press. 4s. 6d. net.
- Botany for Senior Students, by D. Thoday, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 5s. 6d. net.
- Stories Retold for Indian Students: The Prisoner of Zenda, by Anthony Hope. Oxford University Press. 12 as.
- The Navy, by K. C. Macartney, M.A. Madras C. L. S. 4 as.
- How I became a Christian, by Kingsbury, translated into Tamil, by Y. J. Taylor. Madras C. L. S. 6 ps.
- Simple Remedies for Common Diseases. Madras: C. L. S. 2 ps.
- A First Course in Engineering Science, by P. J. Haler, B. Sc., A. M. I. Mech. E., A. I. E. E., and A. H. Stuart, B. Sc, F. R. A. S. London: Olive. 2s. 6d.
- Langland Piers Plowman: Prologue and Passus, I. B. Text, edited by C. M. Drennen, M.A. London: Olive. 2s.
- An Anthology of English Prose, by S. E. Goggin, M.A., and A. R. Weekes, M.A. London: Olive. 2s. 6d.
- Stories of Indian Women, Part I in Tamil, by V. B. Venkatarama Sastri. Madras: Tirupati & Co. 5 as.
- Western Education in India, by S. Ambravaneswar, B.A. (Hons). Trichinopoly: Wednesday Review Office. 4 as.
- Rambles and Recollections of an Indian Official, by Major-General Sir W. H. Sleeman, K. O. B., revised by Vincent A. Smith, M.A. Oxford University Press. 6s. net.
- Elementary Lessons in Electricity and Magnetism, by S. P. Thompson, D. Sc., B.A., F.R.S., F.R.A.S. London: Macmillan. 4s. 6d.
- An Introduction to Ethics for Training Colleges, by G. A. Johnston, M.A. London: Macmillan. 3s. net.
- Social and Industrial History of England, by F. W. Tickner, D. Litt., M.A., B. Sc. London: Arnold. 3s. 6d.
- Spendrft, Salt from the Ocean of English Prose, by G. Callender, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 3s. net.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Board High School, Kulitalai.—The Hon'ble Mr. Buckley laid the foundation-stone of the new school-house of the Board High School, Kulitalai, on the 9th instant. He was received at the Station by the leading citizens of the place headed by Mr. Priestley, Sub-Collector of Karur, Mr. M. R. Sethu Rathnam Iyer, Union Chairman, Kulitalai, and by Mr. P. T. Rangasami Iyengar, Vice-President, Taluk Board, Karur. After being garlanded he was conducted in a procession with band and music to the decorated pandal in front of the site. Light refreshments were partaken. The Chairman took his seat and the Vice-President of the Taluk Board surveyed the history of the institution from the year 1860 in the course of which he referred to the influence of Mr. R. Narayanaier, I.C.S., formerly the President of the Karur Taluk Board, to the munificent contributions of the Mirasaders of the Kulitalai and Musiri taluks which made the proposal of the new buildings possible, and to the long connection of the Hon'ble Mr. Buckley in the administration of the institution from 1892 as President of the Musiri Taluk Board, and as President of the District Board, Trichinopoly.

The report of the Headmaster which was read contained a satisfactory record of progress in all directions as evidenced from the favourable reports of the inspecting officers.

Then came the real function of the evening. The ceremony was carefully gone through, and amidst deafening cheers it was declared the foundation was well and truly laid.

Mr. Buckley who was greeted with loud applause delivered the following speech: "I congratulate the people of Kulitalai on their good fortune in being about to have a building which will be worthy of the school. I have always taken an interest in the Kulitalai High School, because it has been well-managed. I believe the educational authorities approve of the manner in which education is given and speaking as an old President of the Taluk and District Boards, I may say what a pleasure it is to find a High School which can maintain itself without a large amount of subvention from the District funds. The people of Kulitalai have also showed their public spirit by making a valuable contribution towards the cost of the new buildings. I wish to assure you what great pleasure it gives me to be here on this auspicious occasion and to thank you very cordially for the honor you have shown me in asking me to lay the foundation-stone.

I hope, you boys, who are sitting here appreciate what your fathers are doing for you and will do all you can to show yourselves worthy of it. I have no suspicion that you will fail to apply yourselves to your daily book lessons, but there are the less obvious lessons of discipline and morality which you have to learn here, and I trust you will apply yourselves to them with equal diligence and so fit yourselves to become good citizens, and an honor to your school. Remember that what you are in after life will reflect upon the credit of the school; should fortune

A Book of Victorian Prose and Poetry, by Mrs. Hugh Walker. Cambridge University Press. 3s. net.

The Super-man and the Super-nation by Tunbridge, C. L. S. Madras. 1 anna.

The Call of the King in Tamil. Madras: C. L. S. 4 as.

The Forgiveness of Sins, by the Rev. G. G. Findlay, D. D. Madras: C. L. S. 6 ps.

The Purpose of Life. Madras: C. L. S. 3 ps.

Love the Conqueror of Death. Madras: C. L. S. 6 ps.

Faith, Belief and Credulity. Madras: C. L. S. 3 ps.

Arithmetical Tables. Madras: C. L. S. 4 ps.

Dense Darkness in Tamil. Madras: C. L. S. 1½ as.

Books from the P. T. I. Book Depot, Bangalore.

In Victorian Times, by Edith L. Elias. London: Harrap. 1s. 6d.

Garibaldi and His Red Shirts, by F. G. Snell. London: Harrap. 1s.

Queen Victoria, by E. Gordon Brown, M.A. London: Harrap. 1s.

Peter the Great, by Alice Birkhead, B.A. London: Harrap. 1s.

Julius Cæsar, by Ada Russell, M.A. London: Harrap. 1s.

A History of Economic Doctrines, by Ch. Gide, and Ch. Rist, translated into English by Professor William Smart and R. Richards, B.A. London: Harrap. 15s. net.

Le Petit Vocabulaire, by Albert A. Meras, Ph.D. Boston: Heath. 4d.

Scientific Management in Education, by J. M. Rice, M.A. London: Harrap. 3s. 6d. net.

The Education of Carl Witte or the Training of the Child, edited by H. A. Bruce. London: Harrap. 4s. 6d. net.

A Practical Course in Intermediate English, by Edward Albert, M.A. London: Harrap. 2s.

Tagore Calendar from 1916 with Poem from the Gitanjali. London: Harrap. Re. 1.

favour you, remember what you owe to the school and to what your fathers have done for you and in your time help the school by giving according to your means. There will always be ends towards which contributions can be profitably devoted—scholarships for poor students, improvement of the staff and equipments or the extension of the buildings or play-grounds.

Mr. Vibart has asked me to express his great regret that his duties prevent his attendance to-day and I am sure you will regret his absence.

In conclusion, let us all join in wishing prosperity and honor to the Kulitalai High School.

Mr. Buckley was garlanded and a vote of thanks was proposed by Mr. M. R. Sethurathnam Iyer followed by a short speech. Then the distribution of *pan supari* to the guests took place. A group photo was taken and the chief guests were led in procession to the Railway Station with the same band and music. The school boys had a holiday in honor of the function.

Vamana Baliga Memorial Lodge, Alleppey.—There was a large gathering of students, teachers, Government officials and citizens on the 9th instant in the Basant Hall of the S. Vidyasala to listen to a cut-and-dried choice lecture from a distinguished English scholar of Southern India. A perfect Professor of English, a sound scholar, himself a bit of a poet, Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., the Principal of the Salem College, is too well-known to the literary world to need any introduction. He animadverted successfully "the Poetry of Dr. Rabindra Nath Tagore" in general, and "the Gardener" and the "Crescent Moon" in particular, both of which, he said, are considered to be the "precious life-blood of a master spirit." He went on to say that Tagore is the beginning of Indian Renaissance and that he is not a poet of India, but of the whole world. The wonderful and astounding originality, that profound wisdom, that preternatural delivery, that patronage over the Literatures of England and India, that unaffected and invigorating eloquence, above all, that melody and pathos, all these contribute to a large extent to characterise his unequalled personality and are proof positive of his intellectual and literary equipments. Mr. K. A. Krishna Iyengar, B.A., B.L., a popular citizen of Alleppey and the leading member of the local Bar, who presided over the deliberations of the evening, brought the proceedings to a close with his little quota of congratulating the speaker on his manifold attainments and warmly appreciating them from his heart of hearts. He said that he would gladly and whole-heartedly agree with Mr. Seshadri in his thoughtful opinion that the poems of Dr. Tagore easily surpass the Western literature in their originality, instructive enthusiasm, perfection, and harmony. Mr. K. S. Dharmarajah Iyer, B.A., I.T., the Headmaster of the Vidyasala, garlanded Mr. Seshadri with a short speech, expressing his gratitude and esteem for the noble personage who has deigned to condescend to go to Alleppey and

entertain the town with a highly palatable treat. With the usual, solemn prayer and with a hearty vote of thanks to the speaker and the chair, the meeting dissolved at 7-15 p. m.

St. Francis Xavier's High School, Palamcottah.—The annual distribution of prizes of the St. Francis Xavier's High School, Palamcottah, followed by a drama in 3 Acts "The Triumph of a Noble Cause," a cause which bears some resemblance to that of the Allies, was recently celebrated, Mr. F. R. Hemingway, I.C.S., Collector of Tinnevely, presiding. The elite of the town were present.

Father A. Lebeau, S. J., Manager of the institution, read his report on the working of the institution during the past year. The report showed considerable progress in tone and discipline, strength and attendance, staff, public examination, competitive examination, library, fees, etc. Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, who visited the institution on the 13th of January 1915, sanctioned a grant towards the erection of a new High School. The Manager congratulated the Sports' Committee for having so patriotically set aside out of the contributions, Rs. 50 towards the upkeep of the Hospital Ship "Madras." The Manager also placed on record his appreciation of the spirit and generosity and self-sacrifice displayed by both the teachers and students of the institution both last year and this year, when sums of Rs. 100 and Rs. 125 respectively were raised by them in aid of the Belgian Relief Fund.

Mr. F. R. Hemingway, in thanking Father Lebeau for having given his wife and himself an opportunity of visiting the school and taking a part in the Prize-distribution ceremony said, that he was glad to know that the increase in the scale of fees in the institution was not objected to by the public and he congratulated Father Lebeau and other officers of the institution on the excellent way in which it is conducted and on the progress of the school in all directions and appreciated the patriotic services rendered by the students and staff of the school towards the Belgian Relief Fund which have been acknowledged by the King and Queen of Belgium in their letter of thanks to Father Lebeau, and exhorted the young students to remember all through their life that they had a duty to perform not only to themselves but also to the public at large.

The next item of the programme was a dramatic performance which was well acted. The proceedings were brought to a close with the singing of National Anthem.

The Ernakulam College Literary Union.—Under the presidency of J. W. Bhow, Esq., I.C.S., Dewan of Cochin, the tenth anniversary of the Ernakulam College Literary Union was celebrated in the College Hall on Saturday, the 6th instant. The leading officials of the town as well as many non-official gentlemen were present. In addition there was an unusually large attendance of students.

In accordance with the programme, the President, in the first place, called upon the Secretary to read his report. The report showed that, with the advance of years, the Union was getting more and more popular and that a great deal of solid and useful work was done during the current year. Further the finances of the Union were quite satisfactory.

Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., Principal of the Salem College, was then introduced to the audience in a few well-chosen words by the President and called upon to deliver his address on "Our Young Men." The lecturer began by observing that it had given him no small pleasure to agree to the Secretary's request to deliver an address on that occasion because it had provided him an opportunity in the first place to pay a visit to Cochin, and secondly, to do something for an institution which had been spoken of by its late Pridcipal, Mr. Glyn Barlow, in the highest terms and which certainly deserved to take a leading place among the second-grade colleges of the Presidency. The lecture was greatly appreciated.

The President paid a high compliment to Mr. Seshadri's address and observed that the close attention with which they had listened to it clearly indicated how well they had appreciated it.

Sri Rajah's High School, Tuni.—The fourth anniversary of the S. R. H. School Debating Society and the first anniversary of the Hindn Matha Bala Samaj were celebrated recently with much enthusiasm, in the High School Hall, under the presidency of Mr. R. T. Narasinga Rao Pantulu Garu, the local Sub-Registrar. The hall was tastefully decorated with pictures, festoons and bunting. After the reading of the reports by the Secretaries, which showed uniform progress during the year, Messrs. K. Umamaheswara Rao, B.A., I.T., and B. Sooryanarayana addressed the audience, the former on "Our Duty" and the latter on "Religious Associations and their importance." "The Mock Doctor," a play from Moliere, was then enacted and well appreciated by the audience. The President, who was then garlanded, in a neat little speech, congratulated the members of the Association on the progress they made during the year and thanked them for the honour they had done him in asking him to preside on the occasion. With the usual vote of thanks and with three cheers to Their Majesties and the Raneo Saheba of Tuni the meeting terminated.

Board High School, Amalapuram.—The annual sports of the above institution came off on Saturday, the 20th inst. The preliminary heats were held throughout the week. On Saturday morning the competition in gymnastics and the finals in tennis and badminton for the seniors and the juniors was separately held. The pole jump, the tug of war, the several races and a few more funny items were gone through in the afternoon. A little before dusk

the events were all finished, when Mr. D. Lakshmanamurti Pantulu B.A., B.L., the Additional District Munsiff, distributed the prizes to the winners, after making some preliminary remarks. At that stage the President of the Rajahmundry Taluk Board agreeably surprised the assembly with his presence, and spoke a few words on the value of sports. Among other things, the school has established a name for athletics, the Grigg Memorial Medal for the District having been won by it for the last six years in succession. The usual vote of thanks proposed by the Headmaster and three cheers to Their Imperial Majesties brought the proceedings to a close.

Gift of a new school building at Chidambaram.—A delightful function took place at 6-30 in the morning of the 12th instant at Chidambaram. It was the occasion of the opening of the Town school new buildings built at a cost of Rs. 25,000 by Dewan Bahadur S. R. M. Ramasamy Chettiar. A large number of the elite of the town and district was present in spite of the inclemency of the weather. The donor in a few well-chosen words asked the Collector Khan Bahadur M. Azizuddin Sahib Bahadur, I. S. O., to declare the building open. The Collector, after dilating upon the munificence of Mr. Chettiar in supplying the town with pure drinking water and renovating the famous temple of the place, said that this was another instance of Mr. Chettiar's liberal views of charity. He also stated that this school was a necessity at Chidambaram as the local Pachaiyappa's High School admit caste Hindu boys only, and hoped that the institution will soon be raised to a High School.

The Collector after declaring the building open, inspected the several class-rooms and the spacious play-ground; and all were satisfied with the magnificent and the ample accommodation provided. Light refreshments were then served and the school boys numbering over 600 were also treated. There was distribution of flowers and *pan supari* and three deafening cheers to the King-Emperor and three to the donor brought the proceedings to a close.

Sarah Tucker Girls' College, Palamcottah.—The annual report for 1914-15 has been recently submitted to the "Fellow Subscribers at Home" by Miss G. M. Walford, the Principal. The report shows that the war has indirectly affected the finances of the above institution inasmuch as some subscribers at Home have been obliged to give up sending them pecuniary help, and even the usual boxes of gifts from England for the girls of the college and the children of the branch schools were not received. In the C. M. S. grant, they were drawing only two-thirds of their former amount. Nevertheless the girls are taking a practical interest in the war. Last October they spent a week making garments, &c., for the wounded, and sometime back, a parcel of over 100 garments was despatched for the Belgian refugees in

England as the result of a single day's work on their part. Regarding the progress and results of the college and its branch schools, it may be said that on the whole they were fairly satisfactory. Three girls passed the Intermediate Examination and 17 girls completed their Secondary School Leaving Certificate. Owing to the generous grant of Rs. 1,500 from Government an impetus has been given to games and the health of the girls has been excellent throughout the year. The branch schools have had to work under greater difficulties than usual owing to the rivalry between themselves and the recently-opened Municipal or Board Schools. The report concludes with an appeal from the Principal for funds towards the upkeep of the institution.

Banganaville School.—The Prize-distribution ceremony of the State Secondary School came off on the evening of the 8th instant, under the presidency of Mr. J. C. Molony, I.O.S., President, Corporation of Madras. The school hall was tastefully decorated for the occasion and there was a large attendance of ladies and gentlemen. The proceedings of the evening began with the reading of the annual report of the school by the Headmaster. Of the total strength of 170 pupils, 119 were Mohammedans, 46 Hindus and the rest Christians. The dialogues of the pupils interested the audience very much. The pupil who played the part of Wolsey in the Fall of Wolsey of Shakespeare was much admired by the President and the audience. Prizes were afterwards distributed to the distinguished pupils by Mrs. Molony. The President rose and said that the Durbar was encouraging the growth of education amidst its subjects by the grant of scholarships to the pupils of the State both in this and outside schools. He hoped that the pupils would realise the importance of education and take full advantage of it provided for them free of charge. Mr. and Mrs. Molony were then garlanded.

BOMBAY.

New Second-grade Arts College at Poona.—The Shikahaw Prasarak Mandali, which applied to the Bombay University for permission to open a Second-grade Arts College, has now renewed the same application. The Mandali propose to open the College from the beginning of June 1916, in case necessary permission is granted and is making arrangements accordingly. The building, intended for the College, has its ground and first floor quite completed; and the whole building will be practically completed by the middle of December next. Most of the apparatus, necessary for the working of the First Year's course in Arts, has been purchased; and the building above referred to, will secure adequate accommodation for a Laboratory. Thus the building, along with the Laboratory, will be completely equipped and furnished and be ready for inspection by the Syndicate by the end of December next. This building provides accommodation for two classes of the First Year's course and one class of the Intermediate Arts course, each class-room covering an area of 1,100 square feet and being thus capable of holding about 125 students.

Education in Bombay Presidency.—The report on the progress of education in the Bombay Presidency during 1914-15 shows that there has been an increase of 1,479 pupils in the British districts, and though the number of private institutions of an elementary character was reduced by 252, the number of pupils at primary schools rose by 12,000. Of the total Provincial expenditure, amounting to Rs. 72 lakhs, a sum of Rs. 88½ lakhs, was devoted to the maintenance of primary schools. In collegiate education the raising of the standard of the Matriculation examination resulted in a drop from 58 to 30 in the percentage of successful candidates, avoiding a condition of congestion by the influx of largely immature and unfit students.

Reference is made in the Director's report to the submission to Government of schemes for a women's college in Bombay, a Sanskrit college at Poona, and Arts college for Karnatik. Although the Government recognises the desirability of two of these projects the financial situation makes it impossible to proceed further at present. In female education a substantial increase is recorded of attendance both in secondary and primary schools. An interesting development in connection with girls' education is the holding of a course of instruction in physical training for the benefit of teachers in the Bombay girls' schools. Satisfactory results have been obtained from an experimental training class for teachers in aided schools in Poona.

The organisation of the teaching and the equipment at the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics made good progress during the year.

CALCUTTA.

Aid for Moslem students.—The Calcutta Gazette contains a Resolution, dated the 16th instant, regarding the distribution of the Mohsin Endowment Fund for Mahomedan education, which states:—

With the approval of the Government of India the Government of Bengal drew up and published 1873, a scheme for the utilization of that portion of the Mohsin Endowment which had been appropriated for the development of education. Under this scheme the following objects of expenditure were prescribed:—

- (1) The maintenance of the staff and boarding-houses of the Dacca, Hooghly, Chittagong and Rajshahi Madrasas.
- (2) Scholarships for Mahomedans.
- (3) The payment of a share of the cost of Arabic and Persian teachers in nine Zilla schools.

(4) The payment of two-thirds of the tuition fees of Madrasa boys attending certain schools and law classes.

From the sum available the Governor-in-Council has decided to establish:—

(1) 81 stipends for Mahomedan students reading in the Arts Colleges in the province, each tenable for two years, of which 51 will be awarded on the result of the Matriculation examination and 30 on the results of the I. A. and I. Sc. examinations of the Calcutta University, except two stipends of Rs. 10 each reserved for Shia students, the remaining 79 stipends will be of the value of Rs. 5 per mensem.

(2) Four stipends of Rs. 10 each tenable for two years in the Civil Engineering College, Sibpur, two of which will be awarded annually on the result of the I.Sc. examination and the other two on the result of the intermediate examination in engineering.

(3) Six stipends of Rs. 15 each, tenable in the Medical College, Calcutta, two of which, tenable for one year only, will be awarded on the result of the I.A. and I.Sc. examinations of the Calcutta University, and of the remaining four, two, tenable for two years each, will be awarded annually on the result of the preliminary M.B. examination, and the remaining two, tenable for three years each, will be awarded on the result of the first M.B. examination.

(4) Thirty-three stipends of Rs. 5 each, tenable for two years, for students reading in the Madrasas, of which eighteen will be awarded on the result of the examination at the end of the second year senior course. Detailed information about these stipends is given in an appendix to this Resolution. It will be observed that when full effect is given to the scheme, the number of stipendiaries out of the Mohsin Fund, will be 162 in Arts Colleges, 8 in the Civil Engineering College, 12 in the Medical College and 66 in Madrasas, the total number being 248.

His Excellency in Council hopes that these stipends, combined with the existing special scholarships for Mahomedans, will bring substantial relief to the poorer classes of Mahomedan students in the Presidency.

ALLAHABAD.

Daraganj Anglo-Vernacular School.—The annual prize-distribution ceremony of the Boys' Anglo-Vernacular Aided School, Daraganj, was held recently in the school premises (Moti Mahal). The Hon. Mr. O. F. De la Fosse, Director of Public Instruction, presided and Mrs. De la Fosse gave away the prizes. The school building and its approaches were exquisitely decorated with flags, flowers and festoons and the function was attended by several gentlemen of the locality as well as of Allahabad. Among them were, the Inspector of Schools, the Headmaster of the Training School, Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. Ganatha Jha, and Dr. D. R. Ranjit Singh.

The proceedings commenced with the presentation of a welcome address to the Director by the boys of the school.

Then followed a number of interesting recitations in English, Sanskrit, Hindi and Urdu, and of a piece from the Ramayana, which were splendidly done by the boys and very highly appreciated by the audience.

After this interesting programme had been gone through, Mrs. De la Fosse gave away the prizes which consisted of useful books, watches, hockey sticks, medals and the like. There was one interesting prize which is worth mentioning and that was the prize for keeping good health.

The President of the Committee, Rai Bahadur Keshav Rao Gore, then read the report of the school which gave an interesting account of the history of the institution and its present condition.

The Hon. Mr. De la Fosse in his speech said:—You see to-day from the report how out of little beginnings success can be achieved, if only the spirit and the heart are right. This institution has in the course of something like 20 years risen from the lower Middle standard to the Upper Middle standard, and I must tell you, I must confess to you, that I am rather disappointed at its not having progressed more rapidly. I feel convinced that at this end of Allahabad there is real need of a High School and that if the people of Daraganj would make up their mind to support heartily the management of this school, they would in a very short time achieve that ambition. The President has read to you a very interesting detailed account of the finances, and you will see that in Pandit Bhagwan Dass's time, the subscriptions amounted to Rs. 3 and at the present time they amount to Rs. 30. I hope that you will not stop at Rs. 30 a month and that you will be able to raise the subscriptions still further. I wish I could persuade you, all of you, to do something towards improving the finances of this school. We are ready to help from our side if you are ready to help from your side. Here you have a spacious, I may say a beautiful building; you have the nucleus of a school and it rests with you, with you entirely, to convert this into an institution of which Daraganj can be proud—a High School which is thoroughly efficient. You have in your headmaster a teacher of great enthusiasm. Since his advent to the school he has worked, I may say, a complete transformation. It rests with you to support him.

I will not detain you much longer, ladies and gentlemen, because I dare say some of you like myself are already due at another entertainment. But I cannot sit down without a word of praise for my old friend here (Rao Bahadur Keshav Rao Gore), who through good and evil report has stood by the school and whose business capacity and marked ability, I am sure, will help you to achieve that object which he has so much at heart—the conversion of this school into a high school.

With the singing of the National Anthem the proceedings terminated.

MYSORE.

The Maharaja's College Union.—The inaugural address of the above Union was delivered by Mr. V. N. Narasimha Aiyanger, Retired Palace Comptroller, on Thursday, 4th November 1915, at 5-35 p.m. in the College Hall. Mr. T. Denham, M. A. (Oxon), presided on the occasion.

The lecturer was immensely glad to find the Union having for its object not only the development of literary faculties, but the more important and appreciable task of starting night-schools, rendering help to poor and depressed classes, and appealing to the good sense of mankind for the prevention of cruelty to animals. Such an ambitiously formulated prospectus of the Union, he remarked, deserved rightly the true sympathy of every leading citizen of Mysore for the early fulfilment of its great aims. The lecturer, whose name is associated with social service in Mysore, was happy to render help to the best of his ability and to co-operate with the organisers in drawing up a practical and workable scheme to carry out the objects of the Union with a fair degree of success. His advice to the students to have for their guiding motto "*Festina lente*," his warnings against natural pitfalls, his attacks upon the spirit of more verbal Vedantism, his words of counsel to shun like poison all useless talk, his enthusiastic address on "elevating the depressed classes" were so fit to the occasions and so inspiring to the students that it showed the lecturer was really a man of ripe experience in the social field.

The Chairman pointed out how sincere, effective, intelligible and appealing the address was, and strongly advised the students to pursue the noble ideals set up by the lecturer. The objects of the Union, he pointed out, were unique and decidedly different from those of the Unions of other Colleges. But since they centre round the question of action, he advised the students to conduct themselves in such a way as to prove worthy of their college, and worthy of humanity. The meeting came to a close with a vote of thanks to the Lecturer and the Chairman.

Mr. C. Subba Rao's Sanskrit Endowment Fund.—Govt. Order No. 1272-7 Edn. 41-14-21, dated 13th September 1915.—The Inspector-General of Education reports that Diwan Bahadur C. Srikanthavara Aiyar has offered to augment the above fund by a supplemental donation so as to raise it to Rs. 20,000. Government appreciate this offer, and are pleased to accept it on the terms attached to the original endowment as a special case. The entire amount will carry interest at 5 per cent.

Clause 4 of the rules sanctioned in Government Order No. 12271-22 G. F. 59-93, dated the 27th January 1894, will be modified as hereunder, as proposed by Diwan Bahadur C. Srikanthavara Aiyar and agreed to by the Trustees:—

Amount of Scholarships.—Two of Rs. 25 each and one of Rs. 30 per month, to be awarded to—

(i) a student for the higher Sanskrit Vidwat Examinations of the Bangalore or Mysore Sanskrit College with English up to the School-Final Standard; or

(ii) a student who has passed the Vidwat Examination in some branch, in either Sanskrit College, and joins the English College to study in the College classes undertaking to finish the B.A. course, taking Sanskrit as a subject, or

(iii) a graduate in English and Sanskrit, or to one who has passed in English (Intermediate) and Vidwat Examinations, who undertakes to carry on post-graduate study in some selected branch of Sanskrit learning for not less than two years.

Opening of more new schools.—(Order No. 824-5 Edn. 84-14-10, dated 19th August 1915.) The Inspector-General states that the provision proposed in the State budget is required for the following purposes:—

For opening 1,000 aided primary schools at Rs. 84 each ...	Rs. 84,000
For opening 300 Government Schools at Rs. 200 each ...	Rs. 60,000
For opening 100 additional Adult Schools at Rs. 144 each ...	Rs. 14,400

Total Rs. 1,58,400

These items are sanctioned and the necessary provision has been made in the State budget for 1915-16.

2. As regards the Village School Fund budget the additional provision of Rs. 6,000 proposed over and above the existing provision of Rs. 4,000 is stated to be necessary as under the new scheme sanctioned in Government Order No. 4146-7—Edn. 32-14-8, dated 17th April 1915, wherein a monthly grant of Rs. 3 has been substituted for a system of annual grants, a larger number of these schools is likely to be brought under control. Government are, however, of opinion that a sum of Rs. 8,000 may suffice for the present, and are accordingly pleased to direct that the charge be met from the sum of Rs. 4,000 provided in the Village School Fund budget for 1915-16, and the balance of Rs. 4,000 out of the lump sum of Rs. 8,000 provided in the State budget for improving indigenous schools during 1915-16.

3. In the selection of villages for locating schools the following principles should be observed:—The villages should as far as possible be taken in the order of their population, but when the choice is between a larger village having a school already and a smaller one with no school, the latter should be given the preference. Similarly as between villages claiming aided schools special preference should be given to villages which form the centre of a group of small villages situated within a distance of 5 or 6 furlongs, or have other feature calling for favourable treatment.

Ordinarily no school will be started unless the people come forward with a guarantee that at least 25 children will be enrolled for instruction, that the daily attendance will not fall below 15, that a decent

school house, and a residence for the school-master free or at a reasonably low rent will be provided and that the villages will contribute at least about five rupees a month towards his pay either in kind or cash.

Gifts of school houses and endowments for educational purposes will be specially welcome, but the Department will not bind itself to provide teachers unless the other conditions are also satisfied.

The location of the Government schools will be regulated by considerations of population, the special importance of any particular village and any exceptional circumstances that diminish the capacity of a particular locality from offering the contribution necessary for an aided school. As a rule Government schools should be reserved for the education of girls and of the specially backward classes, and for tracts requiring special treatment like the interior of the Maudud.

A number of the more successful aided schools will also be converted into Government schools annually and provided with Government buildings when necessary. Ordinarily no aided school will be so converted or provided with a Government building unless it had been working satisfactorily for at least seven years previously. In the case of the other schools which have started work, the provisions of the Grant-in-aid Code will be applied.

4. As an inducement for the masters of aided schools to work enthusiastically and to maintain their schools in a high standard of efficiency, the Department will, as a rule, prefer successful masters of aided schools to new applicants while filling up posts in Government schools, and also entertain the existing masters in Government service if adequately qualified whenever an aided school is taken under Government management.

INDIA (GENERAL).

Educational Services.—The Government of India have been considering for some time the conditions of service in the Educational Services. The appointment of the Public Services Commission, however, necessitated the postponement of permanent changes. The Government of India have in the meantime decided to grant certain compensations in cases where hardship seemed to be involved. For this purpose allowances ranging in value from Rs. 50 to Rs. 150 a month or enhancement of pay were suggested for the Provincial Educational Service and on the 10th March 1913 the Local Governments were invited to dispose of the cases falling within the powers recently delegated to them the remaining case being supported to and sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The expenditure on this account is Rs. 86,160 a year. As regards the Indian Educational Service the Secretary of State sanctioned on the 2nd February 1915 allowances up to a maximum total of Rs. 34,800 a year which the Provincial Governments were asked to bestow in accordance

with certain principles laid down by the Government of India. The allowances may vary in value from Rs. 100 to Rs. 240 a month and are liable to be withdrawn on the occurrence of any reorganisation of the service. The amount so far utilized in granting such allowance is Rs. 22,800 a year.

Foreign.

London University and the War.—Ten thousand Cambridge men are engaged in the present war. There are almost certainly a much larger number of London University men by their side. To past and present cadets of the London University Officers Training Corps—the largest body of its kind—nearly 800 commissions had been given within six months of the outbreak of hostilities, and in May the Chancellor said that not less than 6,500 men from the different schools and colleges of the University were engaged in military service: to this number must be added many thousand undergraduates and graduates belonging to the external side of the University.

Depleted pass lists and loss of revenue are two of the chief effects of the war upon the University. On Presentation Day the Principal anticipated that the annual income would suffer to the extent of £27,000.

The proceedings of a single meeting of the Senate—that of October 1914—will show on how many sides the work of the University has been affected. At this meeting leave of absence was granted to Sir W. P. Herrington, the Vice-Chancellor, in order that he might go as Consulting Physician with the Expeditionary Force; resolutions were passed to make certain allowances to members of the staff on war service; arrangements were made to admit Belgian and French refugees as students in the London colleges on easy terms; the requirements as to lecture attendance of internal students were relaxed; it was decided in the case of internal students in faculties other than Medicine who engaged in national service after failing in intermediate examinations that credit should be given at subsequent intermediate examinations for subjects in which they had passed; and provision was made for allowing the clinical work of students in military hospitals to count towards professional qualification.

Since then the Senate has had continually to deal with war contingencies. Courses of Extension Lectures in the Elements of Ambulance and Nursing were authorised; special courses in Military Hygiene for R.A.M.C. officers were instituted; the Second M.B. examination was held three times a year instead of twice; a Special Intermediate examination was conducted for refugee students; and honorary bachelor degrees were offered to students of the London colleges who spent nine months in national service after passing an Intermediate examination.

The Educational Review.

For the first time in the history of the Madras University the wretched acoustic properties of the Senate Hall, which successive Convocation orators have had such just cause to curse, were at least partially overcome by the excellent modulation of the Convocation orator of this year, the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart, and we congratulate the graduates assembled at the Convocation on the 25th of November that a large percentage of them heard the address. The address began with a brief reference to the events of the year—the losses of Fellows the University has had to suffer and the gains in money it had the good fortune to acquire. The speaker, then, dealt with current University questions, briefly but in a spirit of useful and sympathetic discussion. In this connection we welcome the unhesitating enunciation of the level-headed statesman, whom by a happy inspiration H. E. the Chancellor chose to deliver the Convocation address for this year of two fundamental conditions of progress: (1) "that a single University will not for long be sufficient for the needs of a population well over fifty millions" and (2) that "the impulse to education has always spread downwards from the top and there is no more reason for thinking that its course will be different in this country than for believing that the waters of the Cauvery will flow backward to their sources."

The first of these propositions, being in the present more a pious wish than a question within the range of practical politics we shall pass over, only remarking that the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart had substituted the words "is now" for "will not be for long." The second proposition is a remarkable admission on the part of a high officer of Government of what Indian opinion has been clamantly advocating for a long time. The progress of India depends on the widespread of higher education, the diffusion of which ought to be the aim of the University. Thus the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart places himself in direct opposition to those University Fellows who want to reduce the number of students who get higher education in the name of efficiency and acknowledges the correctness of the demand for a wide extension of higher education in preference to a restricted but more intensive culture. We hope that this public expression of opinion on the part of a member of the Government of the standing of the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart will strengthen the hands of the Indian Fellows of the Madras University and will help to induce the efficiency-mongers to put a stop to their mischievous activities which we have recently deplored in strong terms and to help the Indian Fellows to secure a wide popularisation of higher education.

Another notable pronouncement of the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart is the necessity of making the vernaculars the basis of instruction in schools and col-

leges, while retaining the study of English literature as a compulsory factor of the educational course. No one can maintain with any pretence of reasonableness that teaching science subjects in a language foreign to the student is by itself helpful to the student. Why then do people follow the present system where "so much effort must be expended on trying to understand the language of the teacher that there is little energy left for grasping the substance of the lesson." All great puzzles have a startlingly simple solutions and the solution of this puzzle is that the proposal to abandonment of this absurd system will rouse the opposition of vested interests. Hence they keep up this system which "strikes the lay observer as not only mechanical in method and results but wasteful of valuable years—years when youthful mind is most open to impressions and receptive of ideas."

The rest of the Convocation speech consisted of the usual commonplace advice to young men whose usual tedium the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart tried to relieve by an ingenious comparison of the duties of a Police officer in India to those of a clergyman in England, a grimly humorously comparison, seeing that the average Policeman in India today has developed a side of human nature not exactly identical with what a Christian cleric in England has cultivated. The English clergyman is not likely to know anything of the Indian Policeman as he is, or a perusal of this Convocation

address will leave a bitter taste in his mouth. The humour apart, we welcome the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart's suggestion that our University men join the Police Department in large numbers. We have always been of opinion that the officers who select men for service in the Police Department shun our University graduates like poison, that the responsible heads of the Police Department have always regarded a University man as unfit for the detection of crime; hence we welcome heartily this announcement of a change in the policy of the Police Department and we hope that our graduates will benefit by this change of policy. Notwithstanding the croakings of pessimists who regard our present day education as non-godly and irreligious, we have always maintained that our so-called secular education has brought about a tremendous improvement of public morality according to modern ideals and we are glad that the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart has acknowledged that this is true so far as sexual morality is concerned. We maintain that this is equally true with respect to all modern ideals that officials now are much less corrupt, that they respond more readily to modern ideals of duty, nay that witnesses in law-courts are more truthful, i.e., more appreciative of modern ideals of accuracy than before; and all this is due to the extension of higher, so-called secular, non-godly education, and so we say, let us have plenty of it and not forget to work for it in the pursuit of an illusive,

intensive culture that some people clamour for.

(The full text of the Convocation Address will be published in the next number.)

The Anglo-Indian papers jeer at the Calcutta University for its performances during the past few years when it has been supposed to be under the control of an Indian majority. The Madras University has never been under this disability. The Indian Fellows in the Madras Senate have never been able to command a majority and the European Fellows have always had their own way and it is worth while considering how this European majority has exercised its wisdom and its enthusiasm for efficiency with, doubtless, the ordering of its curriculum with reference to the course of study leading up to the Intermediate examination. This has been felt by all people, and by none more than those who alone can feel where the shoe pinches worst—the Principals of second-grade colleges, to be an impossibly stiff course. The books to be studied in its Parts I and II, *i.e.*, for the English and Vernacular parts of the course, and the subjects to be mastered in the Science part of it are admitted by every one to be too long to be negotiated by the average student of the Intermediate classes of our colleges. This all admit and we do not think that there is any Fellow, even among those European Fellows, who would sacrifice every other consideration to their ardent

desire to make the Madras degree more valuable than the degrees of English Universities, who has ever disputed this. The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, Director of Public Instruction, who, more than any other Fellow, knows about the capabilities of our students, has complained more than once in the Senate about the unnecessarily long list of books prescribed year by year for the English part of the examination and the difficulty of the Science part of the course.

Well, the evil being admitted on all hands, Mr. K. Ganapati Iyer, Principal of the Kallikotah College, Berhampore, proposed a remedy last year; of all Fellows Mr. Ganapati Iyer was most qualified to devise a remedy, for he has been, for nearly a quarter of a century, in charge of a second-grade college and been dealing with students who well typify the average mental calibre of our under-graduates. The remedy he proposed was very simple and that was to let the students who could not take, all at one sitting, the whole of the Intermediate examination, take it in two or three separate parts. Now this is a procedure which is allowed in most Universities of the world. Nay in some, not only can you take an examination in parts, but you can take one subject of an examination in parts and you can offer yourself for this partial examination more than once in a year, and this does not prevent these Universities from being the best in the world and from furnishing the Madras University with many of those very European Fellows

who regard that this 'examination by compartments' would be an untold evil in the atmosphere of Madras. In Madras itself certain other examination may be taken in parts, but the Intermediate examination, alone, is too holy to be taken piecemeal either by those who are going to specialize and go on to Honours or those who are going to take the more general course of the Pass degree. This harmless remedy of an Intermediate examination in compartments was opposed by the European majority, but was passed at one meeting of the Madras Senate last year.

Yet, the question was brought up again at its next meeting. The Indian Fellows who are so often charged with working against efficiency felt that the long syllabuses in the Science portion of the Intermediate courses of study, in so far as they represented a fairly high degree of education, should not be curtailed; and as the Boards of Studies in those subjects, who are the expert advisers of the Senate, assured them that the syllabuses represented the irreducible minimum amount of knowledge which a student ought to possess before starting on the B. A. course, they felt—for once the Indian Fellows were on the side of efficiency—that the only possible way of retaining these long syllabuses and at the same time of securing a reasonable number of passes every year was to let the examination be taken in parts. But the European majority had set its face against the compartmental system in the Intermediate

examination; they wanted one examination at least which would help to weed out the average students and to let the cleverest alone be qualified for admission to the B.A. classes. They had decided that what was good for the students of English and Scotch Universities was bad for Madras students. So they opposed the measure tooth and nail. Some among them, notably the Hon'ble Mr. Stone and Mr. Statham, while opposing the compartmental system of examination, admitted in so many words that the courses of study prescribed for the Madras Intermediate examination were much too long and difficult and induced the Senate to pass a resolution condemning the compartmental system but asking for a distinct lightening of the course. When the Senate, chiefly at the instance of the Hon'ble Mr. Stone, passed this resolution, it honestly believed that it had the power to order the lightening of the Intermediate course and its orders could not be circumvented. But at the next meeting of the Senate, a most curious thing took place. The lightening of the Intermediate course so far as Groups I and II were concerned was quietly dropped. Revised syllabuses for Group III (the science subjects) were sent up by the Boards of Studies and the specialist members of these Boards who were also Fellows claimed that the Senate was not competent to do anything else than accept those syllabuses *in toto*. Several Principals of Colleges including Mr. Statham protested against them, because, instead of lightening the

Intermediate course, the Boards have stiffened them considerably. But the efficiency-majority stood up for the proposals of the Boards of Studies and the result is that the resolution of the Senate to make the Intermediate examination *easier than it is*, has not only been *set at nought*, but has been *utilized for making it more difficult than ever!* The compartment system was given up on the promise that the examination would be made lighter but it has been made stiffer and the Senate had to look on feeling its impotence to get its own resolutions carried out by its committees! The efficiency-majority in the Madras Senate has means of nullifying even the desire of the Honourable the Director of Public Instruction and preventing him from redeeming his promise to lighten the Intermediate course! We hope the Indian Fellows of the Senate, though they are in a minority, will take up the question again and again till it is satisfactorily settled.

The Madras Syndicate has got the unique experience of having to make year after year new sets of rules for the guidance of Principals in their deciding on whom to admit and whom not to admit to their colleges. The rules for the next year have not been formally promulgated but Mr. Mark Hunter, on behalf of the Syndicate, announced at the last meeting of the Senate what the rules were likely to be. The system of mathematical moderation adopted last

year is going to be retained, though every one that has publicly written about it, we believe, from Mr. Mark Hunter downwards, has ridiculed this method of moderation. The Presidency average will mark the border line of passes and a Committee of the Syndicate will consider the case of the unfortunates who, though clever, fall short of the line. But the real sting of the rules, the great weak point of the S. S. L. C. scheme is the right of Principals to refuse admission to any pupil, though he may have got above a fixed percentage of passes, the special advantage which the great Madras Colleges have of choosing the cream of the pupils, those who score high marks and rejecting those who, though they have passed, are yet, not of the very best. This is the whole objection to the S. S. L. C. that it has led to the hawking about of certificates from college to college, to the uncertainty whether a particular college will give a seat to a particular student and this disability remains exactly where it was. Only the discretion exercised by the Principals of Colleges other than the favoured few has been cancelled at the instance of the efficiency-mongers. The Principals of the greater Colleges exercised the discretion of refusing admission to all but the very best and those of the smaller ones of refusing admission to all but the very worst. It was *the former* that the public has protested against so vigorously and therefore it is *the latter* that has been cancelled.

We are pleased to note that the Diamond Jubilee of this institution was celebrated on the 9th October 1915, under the presidency of one of the most efficient of our Inspectors of Schools (now retired) M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur A. C. Pranatarthihara Iyer Avergal, B.A., I.S.O. The report read at the meeting by the Secretary of the School Committee gives an interesting *resumé* of the progress of the school during the last sixty-three years and its present condition. Mr. A. Jayarama Rao, the Headmaster of the School, who has long been a successful and enthusiastic teacher and is in the words of the President, "a teacher of high ideals and with a reputation for character and capacity and unflinching zeal and devotion to his work;" and it is to his untiring energy and enthusiasm, that the organisation and success of the celebration is due. But the striking event of the occasion was the address given by its President. Very recently we had occasion to review the official career of this gentleman. His knowledge of educational history in India and elsewhere, his undoubted patriotism, and his connection with the development of the Narasapur High School were special reasons why he was chosen to preside at this Jubilee and his speech was worthy of the occasion. Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer has, all along his official career, been well-known for the courage of his convictions and we are not surprised to find that, he on this

occasion, vigorously condemned the baneful influence of a former Director of Public Instruction on the growth of higher education in Southern India. "The policy of Mr. Grigg.....had for its object the enlisting of more of co-operation from the public in the field of higher education and the consequent relief of Government from direct control. Its underlying principle was that higher education was not a concern of the State, so much as of the people themselves who cared for it and that it should, therefore, be left to them, as far as possible, subject to the general control of Government. But when the Education Commission recommended the transfer of existing Government institutions to local management they took care to safeguard their recommendation by insisting that efficiency should be assured. Mr. Grigg does not, however, appear to have sufficiently considered this aspect of the question, but set about in headlong haste demolishing much of the work done by his predecessors. Second-grade Colleges, High Schools, and Middle Schools maintained by Government were in quick succession swept off the list and thrown over to Local Boards." The schools thus wantonly transferred to the inefficient management of Local Boards have languished partly because "Presidents of these bodies had other and more important duties to look after" and "the Government too for a long time showed but a step-motherly regard to them." To remedy these evils, an excellent scheme of Government Model schools was devised,

Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer, we believe, having largely to do with the framing of the scheme. The scheme was opposed by the public because, as Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer points out, the public was not taken into confidence with regard to its details and was hence given up. Then Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer goes on to discuss, with admirable candour, the Grant-in-Aid Code associated with the name of Sir A. Bourne. "Drawn up by a scientist, the system is beautifully simple and reasonable in theory; but in practice it has done a world of harm. It is rigidly artificial." It had led to the deplorable result that Mission schools "hold their own under this system of aid," but the schools under Indian management, the more efficient they are, the less Government grants they get and "the management has to starve the staff, stint the other expenditure and keep safe within the fee-income." Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer pleads eloquently that "it is high time that this....system of aid be abolished and replaced by a more liberal and sympathetic system. The present Director of Public Instruction is believed by many to be "liberal and sympathetic" and we hope Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer's eloquence will prevail with him. Turning from questions of educational policy to the condition of the Taylor High School, Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer pleaded most eloquently for funds for enlarging the sphere of usefulness of the school whose jubilee they were celebrating; he pleaded for the erection of a new school-

house other than the "sorry remnant of an old Dutch warehouse more fitted to be consigned to the care of the Archaeological Department" where the celebration was held. Let us hope that the old boys will not disappoint their *alma mater*! Surely, people that inhabit the rich Godavery-Kistna valley, Zemindars and ryots, can combine to raise the sum needed for placing the finances of this old school on quite a sound footing..

H. E. Lord Pentland opened on the 17th November, in the presence of a number of European ladies and gentlemen the new buildings of the Madras Women's College. The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, to whose enlightened enthusiasm the rapid growth of the Women's College is due, gave a brief account of the history of the school, its growth so far, its requirements that still remain to be provided for—to have the compounds enclosed, and the grounds raised, to arrange for laboratory accommodation, in fact, to "have not merely the external aspects of education but...as well the intense internal instruction" so "that this college would not fall short of any of the great seats of learning in England." We are sure that before the Hon'ble Mr. Stone retires, it will become a pucca first-grade college equipped with all that a modern College requires. H. E. Lord Pentland, in his speech before performing the ceremony, remarked that "the final opening of the new buildings of the Madras Gov-

ernment College for Women, marks, I think, an important stage in the progress of female education in Southern India." His Excellency then proceeded to lower the significance of this remark by claiming that the college was but "a continuation, under better conditions, of the educational work for women, which Government has been doing in the Presidency College for many years past." We decline to treat the Women's College as but a continuation of the educational work done for stray women-students in the Presidency College but prefer to treat it as the first act of recognition of the rights of the women of Southern India to get their higher education provided for at public expense. Till now all parties have contented themselves with the pious expression of opinion with regard to this question. Now the Government has begun to act, and the Christian Missionaries have followed the example of Government and provided a College, primarily we hope for Christians, we expect that the Hindu community will also follow suit and start a Hindu College for Women. The Hindu ideal of womanhood is so peculiarly national, so much apart from other ideals of womanhood, so fully associated with all that is lovely, all that is tender, all that is soul-inspiring in human nature and achievement that it certainly deserves to be enshrined in a temple of its own where what is best in modern culture will be added on to the incomparable Hindu ideal. But to return to the Government College for Women, His Excellency an-

nounced the formation of a College Advisory Council. From an examination of the list of members of the Council we are led to infer that the Council will not deal with any educational question, for we do not find there the name of any gentleman who can be regarded as an educational authority. It is probable that the Council is more intended to represent sundry religious sects—and that not all the major ones. Indeed Lord Pentland said that the first question to be laid before the Council would be the thorny one of religious instruction. We fear that the attempt to give religious instruction even if conducted by "ladies, acting as tutors, or warders of hostels" will raise difficulties that might lead to risking the success of the College. The religious susceptibilities of Hindu ladies are so much beyond the ken of most of mere men that we fear the Government is ill-advised in trying to introduce casually the problem that the best men have failed to solve satisfactorily—"the provision of instruction in religious subjects."

Before His Excellency closed his speech, he announced that M. R. Ry. Rao Saheb C. Ramanujam Chettiar had founded two scholarships of the value of Rs. 25 each tenable for 4 years, and named them after Lord and Lady Pentland. We join with His Excellency in commending the liberality of Mr. Chettiar and his desire to support the cause of female education in this Presidency. We expect that the inspiration of his example will stimulate generosity in others and will

lead to a much wider development of female education than exists at present.

It is a gratifying sign of the times that enlightened gentlemen of the Komatti and the Nattukottai Chetty castes, who have so far devoted their wealth to religious charities for chatrams, temples, etc., should turn their resources for the modern pressing needs of the country. Of the former class of people Rao Sahib C. Ramanujam Chettiar is the first. Of the latter Dewan Bahadur S. R. M. Ramasami Chettiar has done much for the education of the youth of Chidambaram by the endowment of a Hindu Secondary school with a new building and hostel.

Some of the minor provinces of India possess educational administrations far in advance of the rest of the country. Thus while the idea of free primary education is scouted in the major provinces, in Assam all fees have been abolished from middle vernacular schools, with the result that in 1914-15, according to the well-written report of the Hon'ble Mr. J. R. Cunningham, D. P. I., there has been a further rise of 40 per cent. in the enrollment of those schools; while on account of "the abolition of the upper primary classification of schools for scholarship and examination purposes, the reinstitution of a public examination for leaving certificates and scholarships at the close of the vernacular school course, the abolition of leaving certificate examination at other stages, and the revisal of the syllabus,"

vernacular education has become more efficient and popular than ever.

Mr. Cunningham's report confirms in an unexpected manner the strictures we quoted above from Mr. Pranatarthihara Iyer's Narasapur speech on the incapacity of Local Boards in the matter of efficient management of educational institutions. "Municipalities continued to play the lazy part assigned to them in connection with the education of their inhabitants. As indicated in last year's report, there is considerable scope for improvement." But while Mr. Cunningham finds the Municipalities slack in educational work he commends "the public spirit displayed in educational matters by the land-owners of Goalpara."

The report issued by the Government of India on Indian Education in 1913-14 is a new departure from the practice hitherto followed of issuing only quinquennial summaries. It is a *resumé* of the annual reports of the various Directors of Public Instruction for the year and of official correspondence, and gives the main features in the development of education in British India in all its branches, taking the principles of the educational policy laid down by the Government of India in their Resolution of the 21st February 1913 as the ideal to be reached. These principles are first summarised thus:—"Formation of character was to be the main objective. The number of Universities was to be enlarged, teaching and residential uni-

Indian Education in 1913-14.

versities were to be established, research was to be stimulated, the pay of the teachers in secondary and primary schools was to be improved, and training facilities were to be increased. Larger grants were recommended for secondary aided schools. There was to be expansion of primary schools mainly under Board management. Technical and industrial education was to be developed along the most natural and fruitful lines. Oriental studies were to be encouraged. A more suitable scheme of education was to be provided for girls and imparted more fully through female agency. The superior inspecting staff was to be strengthened."

Judging by these principles the report shows what progress has been made towards the attainment of their objects. Our space does not permit of our touching on all the points. The progress, however, in many of them may be disposed of in one word—'Nil.'

* Moral and Religious Education.

The very first subject touched upon in the report is that of 'formation of character.' This was sought to be accomplished by three means, *viz.*, direct, moral and religious instruction, accommodation in properly supervised hostels, and residential universities. As regards moral and religious instruction, no systematic attempt seems as yet to have been made anywhere except in Burma, where it has been declared almost a failure, while in Madras and Bombay the question has not advanced beyond

the 'committee stage' if we may say so. The reports issued by the committees in these two presidencies, it would seem, suggest no definite measures which the Government can safely adopt, and altogether it seems to us that the work had best be left to the discretion of the managers of individual schools and the parents of the pupils, trusting to the general advance in the standard of public opinion and to spontaneous organisations for any advancement in the character of the student population. It is to be hoped anyhow, that before trying any experiment, Government would profit by the experience gained in Mysore where it is being tried for some time past, and where at the last meeting of the Representative Assembly a resolution to discontinue the experiment was brought forward, but was defeated at the instance of Mr. H. V. Nanjundiah, who himself was originally responsible for the introduction of the scheme in that province.

Large expansion is reported to have taken place both in the number of hostels started and of the boarders therein, but the report says nothing about the systems adopted in their management or their effect, and we would suggest that the internal management with regard to supplies of food materials and expenses should not be entrusted to a subordinate employé of the college, but should be left more and more to the inmates themselves, a system, which seems to have been successfully carried out in the Christian College hostels in

Madras. It is the only system which will give satisfaction to the boarders themselves and train them in the art of self-government and give them some experience of the world.

Hygiene and Physical Training.

The Bombay Government and the Parsis of Bombay alone have made more or less adequate arrangement for school and college hygiene and physical welfare of the pupils, as well as for the medical inspection of pupils, of which Madras knows very little. When physical training was first introduced some thirty-five years ago in the schools of the Madras Presidency an initial mistake was made by introducing the costly European system of gymnastics and making it compulsory in all Government and aided schools. We accordingly see here in every school premises the ugly and costly gymnastic apparatus occupying a large portion of the available open space. The gymnastic exercises practised thereon are too violent for the weak constitutions of the ill-nourished Indian boys, and are therefore availed of only by a small section thereof, while the larger number of the weaker ones simply look on or amuse themselves in other ways. If instead of this, the indigenous systems of physical exercises which require very little apparatus and that almost inexpensive and much more suited to the Indian constitution, combined with the European system of drill had been introduced the pupils would have taken to them more kindly and in larger

numbers. English sports such as tennis, cricket, hockey, &c., also are too costly for the generality of the school-going population of India and it is only the richer classes that can afford to indulge in them. Thus a large proportion of the students are left without any kind of physical exercise.

Manual Training and Industrial Education.

Manual training is another subject in which the Madras Government is halting, and their efforts are spasmodic and half-hearted. The report simply says that two appointments of instructors in manual training have been created in Madras, but says nothing as to whether any persons have been appointed thereto and if so, what work these two men are expected to do in such a vast number of schools as now exist in the Presidency. This being a matter most intimately connected with technical and industrial training, and calculated to remove the disinclination of students who pass out of High Schools and Colleges to all kinds of manual and bodily work we attach great importance to it.

With reference to technical and industrial education proper, the report again records a melancholy failure. It remarks: "There has been no special development in technical and industrial education and the increase of those seeking it might be accelerated with benefit." Seeing the indifference of the various Local Governments in this respect we cannot help remarking that Government is giving room to the suspicion, which,

whether just or unjust, is widely prevalent among the people, that the persons entrusted with the duty of developing Indian industries are working in the fear that any encouragement given to the Indians in this respect may act prejudicially to the interests of the British manufacturers. With a view to removing this suspicion we would suggest the formation, in every village where there is a primary school, of co-operative societies consisting of members pursuing different industries within the locality and of concentrating these industries in a single place and making the pupils of the school observe the working and assist the workers as apprentices for an hour or two every day. The pupils themselves, or their parents for them, may be allowed to choose any one or more of these industries to work in. Similarly, in every town where there is a high school may be centralised all or most of the industries pursued in the town and its neighbourhood, and the pupils of the higher classes given similar opportunities for working with the skilled artisans. But in this case they should receive a little theoretical instruction in addition to the practical, which they will get as apprentices. The expenses to Government in carrying out a scheme of this kind will be nothing when compared with the importance of industrial education to the country, and we invite the attention of the Director of Public Instruction to this suggestion of ours.

Encouragement of Research.

Here again we regret to have to express our disappointment. The research which the Government have hitherto been encouraging is merely in the sphere of bacteriological and medical sciences. What the country stands in urgent need of is research in chemical and mechanical branches in their application to the industries of various kinds. The Tata Research Institute about which the report is severely silent is regarded in the country as a mere farce and serves no other purpose than that of putting huge sums of money into the pockets of a few Europeans.

Improvement in the position of Teachers.

A portion of the large imperial grants was applied by the Local Governments to the improvement of the position of the teachers. In Madras these grants have been availed of, it would seem, for increasing the salaries of trained and approved teachers to a minimum of Rs. 10, for raising the teaching grants to aided elementary institutions, and for giving subsidies to secondary schools to enable them to improve the salaries of their teachers. But unless the Government takes care to see that these subsidies and other grants are actually applied by the managers for the purposes for which they were granted they will be appropriated by them for other purposes.

Expansion of Education.

Coming next to the expansion of education we find that there was an

addition of 794 public elementary schools in the Madras Presidency, 621 in Bombay, while in Bengal there was a decrease of 637. Thus there was a net increase of 778 primary schools in the three largest presidencies put together, while in such a small native state as Mysore the increase in the number of such institutions was 1100 in the last official year, and the State is further pledged to add 1000 more every year. The percentages of increases in the number of pupils at school of all grades were 7.9, 4.2 and 1.7 respectively in the three abovenamed presidencies and only 5 in the whole of India while the increase in the number of pupils reading in the primary schools alone was only 4.8. This does not speak much of the efforts of Government at the "expansion of primary schools" in answer to the popular demand.

The report remarks complainingly as it were, that the number of those who frequent colleges and high schools continues to outrun the increase of accommodation, but does not say that Government has made any attempts to cope with this increased demand for higher education as yet, except devising plans for opening two or three new Universities, all of them of the residential type, and making additions to the existing college buildings. In Madras, however, the additions made to the college buildings does not enable those colleges to admit more students but are only intended for the accommodation of more professors and enlarged laboratories to meet

the requirements of the revised curricula of the University.

As for the proposed new Universities, they being all of the residential type, are by far too inadequate to meet the ever-increasing demand. Each can at most accommodate one or two thousand students, and what is this to the needs of the vast population of India? What India wants now is not merely the high education of a few, but side by side with it a wide spread of popular education; and for this latter, a few residential Universities of the type proposed and which are merely intended for the promotion of a literary and theoretical instruction are of no use. An education of the sort they are designed to give can at best produce clerks, civilians, lawyers, doctors and engineers. And as for the training of character which is the ostensible reason assigned for the system, we have splendid examples of this in the Newington School in Madras. We do not want a number of snobs crammed with classical lore and theoretical knowledge such as come out of Cambridge and Oxford, but a large number of practical men like those trained in the modern Universities of England, Japan, Germany and the United States of America. They must be men with large sympathies for the masses, and for this we want men trained, not in cloisters far from the haunts of common people, strangers in the land of their own birth, but those who live, move and have their being among the crowd, breathing full the atmosphere of the work-a-day world.

Theosophists may go into hysterics in their admiration for the ancient system of *Gurukuls* or students living with their *Gurus* in the forests and jungles, but that system produced dreamers and philosophers, men fitted more for the other world than for this, not practical men capable of buffeting the waves of modern life. We are in full sympathy with those Mahomedan gentlemen who refuse to accept the scheme of the Hindu University as a model for their own, and we hope the Government will not force upon them their own pre-conceived ideas, but give them a free hand in shaping a University according to their own.

Female Education.

Before concluding we wish to say a word about the education of girls. The report complacently says that the number of girls at school has risen by 95,606 in the whole of British India. Yet the percentage under instruction to those of school-going age is only 5.9, of which 5.4 are in the primary stage and only .5 in the higher stages! It seems to us that Government is not justified in leaving the spread of the education of girls to the slow process of expansion by indigenous effort, now that there is such great disparity between the percentage of boys and that of girls in schools. The two must keep pace with each other, but as long as the people do not readily come forward to establish private schools for girls, it is the duty of the Government to encourage female education more directly than they have done hitherto. The

reason why private effort is slack in starting private girls' schools is that the educated classes of people who desire to have their girls educated are generally a poor lot, who cannot afford to spare funds for opening private girls' schools, and the strong incentive which moves them to have their sons educated is wanting to urge them to do the same in the case of their daughters. In these circumstances it is the duty of the Government to follow the same method which was followed in the earlier days of the British rule in the case of boys, *viz.*, to establish Government secondary and high schools in all those centres where there is a large proportion of educated males. This is what helped to spread boys' education in the earlier stages of the history of education in India. Gradually as private agencies come forward, these schools may be made over to them and Government encouragement confined to aiding them. Unless this is done and the higher education of girls is taken up by Government into their own hands their attempts to improve the sanitation and health of the country, and reduce infant mortality and prevent the outbreak of epidemics will be futile.

In the above observations we have not touched upon the financial aspect of the various suggestions we have ventured to make, but have rather taken for granted that the Government and local bodies are prepared to meet any enlarged expenditure in the interests of education.

In view of the special circumstances arising from the protracted duration of the war it is imperative that the strictest economy should be observed in public expenditure. In accordance with this principle all proposals for fresh expenditure in connection with Government educational institutions that is not absolutely unavoidable are being negatived or deferred. It is only just that a similar policy of retrenchment should be pursued in regard to aided institutions, so far as the disbursement of Government grants to them is concerned. It should accordingly be announced to all District Local Boards and Municipalities and to all aided educational institutions that in respect of all proposed educational buildings not actually commenced or of sites or equipment for such buildings not actually purchased, the payment of any grants which may have been promised by Government will be suspended until the financial situation improves.

2. It should also be notified that, for the present and until further notice, no educational institution can be newly placed on the aided list, nor can any building or equipment grant be promised to an institution already on such list.

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HINDU POLITY ABOUT B.C. 300.

AMIDST the fastly accumulating mass of original materials which make the study of Indian History both easy and interesting, the *Kautilya-arthashastra* of Mr. R. Shama Sastri must be unhesitatingly ascribed to the first place. As a detailed and scientific description of the pre-Mauryan state, its constitution and characteristics, its manner of working and its ideals, the *Arthashastra* is of incalculable value; and my object in the present notes is to survey this pre-Mauryan field of polity and see how far it was useful to the people for whose welfare and prosperity it was designed. The task is not an easy one as the numerous technical terms which the author uses have lost their old significance and become obscure; but the able translation of Mr. Shama Sastri has indeed made it a very light work. Students of Indian History cannot be too grateful to him for placing this momentous treatise at their disposal.

In regard to Kautilya's *Arthashastra* one or
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two preliminary facts should be remembered by the student. The most important of these is the fact that the *Arthashastra* was not written after the foundation of the Mauryan Empire. It does not describe an imperial constitution; it does not say how Chandragupta arranged for the administration of the Empire, how he united the various kingdoms and states under one political way, how he reconciled the local feelings and institutions with the imperial idea and so on. It on the contrary only describes, as Mr. Vincent Smith points out, the small kingdoms of the pre-Mauryan era. To the historian of the Empire it is thus more or less a treatise on local government, and not of the central or imperial. A little consideration of the question enables us to guess the nature of the new imperial organization which Chandragupta brought into existence. He, it is certain, did not abolish the local and provincial systems. What he did was evidently to engraft the imperial idea with them, to institute a sort of federation at the

head of which stood the Emperor, endowed with absolute powers, but checked by the counsels of ministers and the traditions of the land. Chandragupta's government should have resembled the modern British. His position should have corresponded to that of the Governor-General (but with no superior), his ministers to the members of the Council, and his vassal kingdoms to the modern provinces and Native States. The point to be remembered is that the *Arthashastra* of Kautilya refers to the internal arrangements of these vassal kingdoms alone. No treatise has as yet appeared to tell us the exact relations between the central and the local governments.

Chanakya enumerates seven* elements of sovereignty, namely, the territory, the king, the minister, the fort, the treasury, the army and the friend. A wise king, "trained in politics, will, though he possesses a small territory, conquer the whole earth with the help of the best-fitted element of his sovereignty, and will never be defeated." The king's functions were to appoint ministers and departmental superintendents, to bestow rewards on the worthy and punishments on the wicked, and to always endeavour for the welfare and prosperity of the people. The minister's functions were to guide the deliberations in the council, to enforce them in practice, and to look after the administration in all its branches—the business of revenue-collection and its expenditure, the maintenance of national independence and security, and the installation of princes. "In the absence of ministers, the above works are ill done; and like a bird deprived of its feathers, the king loses his active capacity. In such calamities the intrigues of the enemy find a ready

* For definitions of all these, see Bk. VI. Ch. I, 319–21.

scope. In ministerial distress, the king's life itself comes into danger, for the minister is the mainstay of the security of the king's life." (p. 392). Much ingenuity and erudition is displayed by Kautilya to gauge the relative importance of these. His general conclusion is that all of them are important and the utmost care should be taken for their safety and strength.

The king and the kingdom are the primary elements of the State. Kautilya attaches enormous importance to the moral purity of the king and holds that he should also preserve the social purity of the people. He "shall never allow people to swerve from their duties; for whoever upholds his own duty, ever adhering to the customs of the Aryas, and following the rules of caste and divisions of religious life, will surely be happy both here and hereafter. For the world, when maintained in accordance with injunctions of the triple Vedas, will surely progress, but never perish." It is very curious that a writer* who is so unscrupulous in his ideals and methods should begin his grand treatise with this consideration of the ethical aspect of monarchical power. It shews that, with all his advanced views, Chanakya was a Brahman of Brahmans; that in his conception of the State, he had not the least notion of dethroning the Brahman from that supreme position he had obtained for himself by his culture, his character and his services to mankind. The common theory that Chanakya was not an orthodox man, that he was a sceptic and materialist, and was in-

* The whole of Book I is devoted by Kautilya to this question. He describes the duties of the four castes and maintains the king's duties regarding them, and points out how it is possible. He also shews how the king should have association with the aged, proper education in politics, restraint of the organs of sense, etc.

nocent of the pride and prejudices of Brahmanism, has no basis whatever, though as a writer on the science of politics he had to preach the supreme value of the *Anvikshiki*. That he had the interests of Brahmanism in his ideals and methods of administration is proved by a number of regulations he insisted on. The Brahman was exempt from corporal punishment, had the right to receive gratis lands for livelihood and forests for penance.

Next to the ethical guardianship of the world, Kautilya mentions the duty of choosing ministers. "Sovereignty is possible only with assistance. A single wheel can never move. Hence he shall employ ministers and hear their opinion." They should be men of tried ability, of absolute integrity, of financial skill and of great proficiency, in the science of politics. These ministers seem to have been pure administrative officers and not councillors. Chanakya calls them *Amātyas* and not *Mantris* but he later on seems to contradict himself and consider them to be identical (cf. chapters 9, 10 & 11). The king was always to act with their advice. He was to entrust the different departments of the State to them. Those "whose character has been tested under religious allurements," says Kautilya, "shall be employed in civil and criminal courts; those whose purity has been tested under monetary allurements shall be employed in the work of a revenue-collector and chamberlain; those who have been tried under love-allurements shall be appointed to superintend the pleasure-grounds, both external and internal; those who have been tested by allurements under fear shall be appointed to immediate service; and those whose character has been tested under all kinds of allurements shall be employed

as prime ministers, while those who are proved impure under one or all of these allurements shall be appointed in mines, timber and elephant forests, and manufactures" (p. 19). They were to be consulted by the king in all acts of administration. The subject-matter of a council shall be entirely secret, and "deliberations in it shall be so carried that even birds cannot see them; for it is said that the secrecy of counsels was divulged by parrots, minas, dogs and other low creatures of mean birth." (p. 30). Hence the Draconian rule: "Whosoever discloses counsels shall be torn to pieces." Kautilya discusses the question as to how many ministers should be consulted and concludes that, as a single minister might proceed wilfully and without restraint and as two ministers might either overpower the king by their combination or imperil him by their dissension, the king should consult three or four ministers at least. "The school of Manu say that the assembly of ministers shall be made to consist of 12 members. The school of Brihaspati say that it shall consist of 16 members. The school of Usanas say that it shall consist of 20 members. But Kautilya holds that it shall consist of as many members as the needs of his dominion require" (p. 33). The will of the majority prevailed.

Kautilya does not only insist on the king's duty to consult his ministerial council, but on the king's personal scrutiny over all departments. He divides the day into 16 parts and allots a duty to each. "Of these divisions, during the first one-eighth part of the day, he shall post watchmen and attend to the accounts of receipts and expenditure; during the second part he shall look to the affairs of both citizens and country people; during the third, he shall not only be and

in the position of the sheriffs of the Anglo-Saxon state, the chamberlain in the position of the treasurer; and just as the treasurer was only to take the money from his subordinates in the presence of the whole exchequer, so Kautilya lays down that the accountant-general should be in touch with all his colleagues.

Kautilya enumerates six sources of income, the durga, the rural parts, mines, gardens, forests and herds. Taking the city or durga for instance, we can say what taxes were likely to be collected. Towns would be, for example, places where trade and traffic was large, where the merchant and the manufacturer, the oilmonger and the butcher, the weaver and the dairy-man, the goldsmith and the retail merchant, the prostitute and the gambler, would find demands for their vocations and their commodities. It was there again that corporations of artisans and handicraftsmen thrived, it was there that the use of a good currency was appreciated. In such places we can, without any references to extraneous authorities, say what are the likely contributions demanded of the people by the State. We should expect the collection of tolls from merchants, a seigniorage for coinage. We should expect license-fees for the sale of liquor and for carrying on houses of prostitution and gambling, contributions from guilds and taxes from the various merchant classes. And these are the demands enumerated by Kautilya. "Tolls, fines, weights and measures," he says, "the town-clerk (Nagaraka), the superintendent of coinage (Lakshanadhyaksha), the superintendent of sales and passports, liquor, slaughter of animals, threads, oils, ghee, sugar (kshara), the State-goldsmith (sanvadnika), the warehouse of merchandise, the prostitute,

gambling, building-sites (vāstuka), the corporation of artisans and handicraftsmen (kārusilpigaṇa), the superintendent of gaols, and taxes collected at the gates and from the people (known as) Bāhikas come under the head of forts."

Passing on to the country, the second limb in the body of income, a similar general *a priori* consideration of the possibilities of exploitation by the State will give us an idea of Kautilya's expectations from the people inhabiting the rural parts. It is in the rural parts that the crown lands, i.e. the lands set apart for the maintenance of the monarch and his household were. It was in the rural parts again that the agricultural industry, the economic backbone of the State, thrived. It was there that road communications and water communications were to be carefully looked after and necessary provisions made for. Chanakya in his enumeration of the different varieties of the State's income from these, remembers all these. "Produce from crown lands," he says, "portion of produce payable to the Government (bhaga), religious taxes (bali), taxes paid in money (kara), merchants, the superintendent of rivers, ferries, boats and ships, towns, pasture-grounds, road-cess (vartini), ropes (rajju) and robes to find thieves (chora-rajju) come under the head of country parts." The last of these is curious; but as Syama Sastri himself says, the meaning of the word *Rajju* is doubtful and it would be folly to base a discussion or speculation on a word the meaning of which is not clearly known.

In regard to the third factor of the body of income, the mines, Chanakya says that gold,* silver,* diamonds,* gems,* pearls, corals conch-shells, metals (loha), salt and other

* p. 69.

minerals extracted from plains and mountain slopes were included. Under gardens he included flower-gardens, fruit-gardens, vegetable-gardens and fields where crops are grown by the planting of roots instead of seeds. The forests, he divides into three headings, the game-forests, the timber-forests and elephant-forests. "Cows, buffaloes, goats, sheep, asses, camels, horses, and mules come under the head of herds. Land and water ways are the roads of traffic."

One fact strikes us in this enumeration and classification. Kautilya points out what revenues are to be received by the State from the various quarters and peoples. He makes a geographical treatment of the question, in other words. He repeats the same sources therefore; for it is but natural that, in some cases, the taxes collected in towns were also collected in country parts, and *vice versa*. Religious taxes, for instance, were common to both, the dues from merchants, the road-cess, and so on. So Kautilya sees the necessity of classifying the forms of income as distinct from the sources of income, of the *Āyamukhas* as distinct from the *Āyasarira*. And in his classification we find certain divisions which naturally strike us as curious. He divides the forms of income under seven headings, namely, *mūla* (capital), *bhāga* (share), *vyāji* (premia), *parigha* (?), *klīpta* (fixed taxes), *rūpika* (premia on coins?) and *atyaya* (fixed fines). The exact significance of these terms is not clear. What is meant by capital, for example, which Kautilya assigns to the first place? Was the State to engage in industries of its own? *Bhāga* is evidently the share which the State could claim in the produce of agriculturists and was thus synonymous with land-revenue. We do not know what is meant by *parigha*. *Rūpika* or pre-

mia on coins "seems to be a sort of exchange compensation," or better, seigniorage. For, the examiner of coins or (*rūpadarsaka*), we are told, should regulate currency both as a medium of exchange (*vyāvaharikim*) and as legal tender admissible into the treasury (*kosapravesyam*). The premia levied on coins paid into the treasury shall be 8 per cent. known as *rūpika*, 5 % known as *vyāji*, $\frac{1}{4}$ pana per cent. as *parikshita* or testing charge. The "fixed fines" were probably the fines collected in courts from litigants and criminals. "The rise in price of merchandise due to the use of different weights and measures" is termed *vyāji*" (p. 68).

The *klīpta* or fixed taxes must have been of course the most important item. Of these the land revenue, together with the water-rates, was perhaps the most lucrative. It was evidently one-sixth of the produce, though the supplementary contributions must have perceptibly increased it. The other sources of revenue were sales and purchases, the excise, professional taxes, religious contributions, mines and forests. The tax on bargains was particularly borne by the townspeople; and the rule existed that the goods were not to be sold at the places where they were manufactured. They were, on the contrary, to be brought to the toll-house near the town-gate, there offered for sale, and taxed if sold. As regards the rates they varied widely. Imports from abroad paid (as Mr. V. A. Smith points out) as many as seven taxes which amounted to about 20 per cent. Perishables like fruits and vegetables were charged at one-sixth of their value, i.e. 16%. On many other classes of wares the duty ranged from 4 to 10 per cent. Highly priced goods such as gems and precious

stones were assessed on special valuations made by experts. With regard to excise a regular system of license was in force. Special duties were laid on foreign liquors including wine from Kapisa and districts west of Peshawar. The professional taxes pervaded every caste and community in society. The butcher and the maker of threads, the oilmonger, the producer of ghee, the sugar manufacturer, the general merchant and the guilds or corporations of artisans, handicraftsmen and merchants, had to pay their respective dues. Religious tax, i.e. the tax paid to the upkeep of the religion by the State was paid by all men, urban and rural. The royal monopoly of mines should have been highly profitable to the State. Gold and silver, gems and diamonds, pearls and corals, conch-shells, metals and salt were either under governments' direct exploitation or had to be placed under government's inspection. Lastly, in the term *forests*, Chanakya includes three classes of them, game forests, timber forests, and elephant forests. Very detailed and interesting accounts of these different taxes are given by Kautilya; but the reader should refer to the book itself for them. It only needs to be mentioned that there were certain accidental receipts which Kautilya mentions, and these were presentations by private men, the property of persons who fell in epidemics and left no heir, and treasure-troves. Lastly came tribute from subordinate powers.

The contributions above enumerated were for ordinary times. Kautilya explains the ways and means by which the treasury could, on special occasions,* when special expendi-

* Bk. V, Ch. II, 306-7. A *kara* is, in the opinion of Mr. Shyamasatri, 10 panas.

ture was necessary, be replenished. The king could demand the payment of one-third or one-fourth of the produce of his rich agricultural subjects. He could increase the fines on the peasant criminals and order special cultivations for the State. Similarly one-sixth of the forest-produce, and "of such commodities as cotton, wax, fabrics, barks of trees, hemp, wool, silk, medicines, sandal, flowers, fruits, vegetables, firewood, bamboos, flesh and dried flesh," one-half of ivory and skins of animals, could be taken. Merchants dealing in gold and silver, in pearls and gems, and elephants and horses had to pay 50 *karas*. "Those that trade in grains, liquids, metals (*loha*), and deal with carts shall pay 30 *karas*." The clothier, the copper, bronze and brass merchant, the liquor-seller had to pay 40 *karas*, and artisans 20 *karas*. "Dramatists and prostitutes shall pay half of their wages. The entire property of goldsmiths shall be taken possession of." Those who reared cows, buffaloes, etc., had to give away one-tenth of their live-stock. Two wholesome restrictions Kautilya gives in regard to these special taxes; and they are (1) that they ought to be taken only once and never twice; and (2) that poor people, those engaged in important government service, those who colonise waste lands, forest-tribes and learned Brahmans, ought not to be made to pay.

Besides these special taxes the king could demand subscriptions on false pretences. He could sell honours and titles, employ sorcerers to delude men and deprive them of their over-abundant wealth, take away the collections of religious institutions, create pseudo-temples for popular endowments, and resort to other ingenious methods. Spies might be made to become partners of commercial exploiters with the view of robbing them,

prostitute spies might be made to enamour rich men and poison them. Measures like these, says Kautilya, "shall be taken only against the seditious and the wicked and never against others." *

Passing on to the department of expenditure, the great writer describes the chief channels of it in a single passage. "The chanting of auspicious hymns during the worship of gods and ancestors and on the occasion of giving gifts, the harem, the kitchen, the establishment of messengers, the store-house, the armoury, the warehouse, the store-house of raw materials, manufactories (*karmānta*), fee labourers (*vishti*), maintenance of infantry, cavalry, chariots and elephants, herds of cows, the museum of beasts, deer, birds and snakes, and storage of firewood and fodder constitute the body of expenditure (*vyayasarira*)." An analysis of this passage shows that the channels of expenditure can be classed under religion, the royal household, the army, the accumulation of provisions for future contingencies, public works, and the capitalistic and industrial undertakings. To these may be added the maintenance of the poor and the gifts to the courtiers, their titles to lands, the remission of taxes, and the salaries and provisions given them. The last item was tribute to a powerful and domineering enemy who had established his supremacy over it. It is difficult to say what proportions of the revenue were allotted to the different departments of expenditure; but it seems that one-fourth of the revenue was set apart for maintaining the servants of the State (p. 307). Kautilya gives a scale of salaries to the different officers. It is curious to note that the king's *purohita*, the minister, the commander-in-chief, the crown-prince, the queen-dowager and the queen, had each

an allowance of 48000 panas per annum. The chamberlain and the superintendent of the harem got 24000 panas; the other superintendents, 12000; the commander of each division of the army, 8000; the charioteer and army physician, 2000; the State astrologer and superintendents of departments, 1000; soldiers and writers, 500; musicians, 250; artisans and carpenters, 120; servants, 60; spies, 1000; and village servants, 500. Among the public works should be mentioned roads, market-towns, water-reservoirs, and groves, and game forests.

The judicial administration * was theoretically the most important function of the king; for he was the fountain of justice. It was in consequence of this theory that he had to appear in public once at least in the day, receive petitions and decide disputes. With his ministers and learned Brahmans he formed the highest court of appeal. Subordinate to this there were of course smaller courts throughout the Empire. Each village had its headman and elders who decided disputes among the villagers, the headman having even the power to deport a criminal out of his village. Superior to the village court was the *Sangrahaṇa* court, located in the town which formed the headquarters of several villages. Superior to the *Sangrahaṇa* court was the *Dronamuḥka* court in the town which was the centre of 400 villages. A higher court was the *Sthāriya*, which sat in a town which was the capital over an area of 800 villages; and a still higher one was the *Janapadasandhi*, in a place on the borderland of two contiguous provinces. We may suppose that the *Janapadasandhi*, i.e., the inter-provincial

* That is Danda or Law of punishment. See Bk. I, Ch. IV, 9-10.

court, was immediately under the jurisdiction of the Royal Court.

The courts were of two classes. the *Dharmasthiya* and the *Kantakasodhana* literally courts for the removal of thorns), each being presided over by three judges. The former of these were for cases which affected the individuals alone, while the latter for social, political and other important criminal cases, the decision of which was a matter of public interest. The former could give the penalty of fine alone, but the latter could sentence one to capital punishment.

With regard to the *method* of administering justice, cases were decided according to (1) sacred or Sastric laws, (2) law of contracts between parties, (3) customary laws, and (4) statutory or king-made laws. In case there was a conflict between the first and the second of these, the former prevailed. Similarly statutory law could not be valid if it was against the Sastras and against *Achra* or custom. The *Sastra* and the *Achra* were thus the most important of the four bases. Kautilya enumerates very wholesome and detailed views regarding the conduct and proceedings of courts. When a particular case came for decision, exact entries had to be made of the date (year, season, month, fortnight and day), the nature of the offence, the place of its occurrence; the country, caste, village, the gotra and occupation of the plaintiff and the defendant; and the statements of the respective parties. The latter should be consistent in their representations, unprejudiced by others' counsels, and perfectly honest, not holding secret conversations with witnesses, etc. The plaintiff had to make his rejoinders the very day the defendant answered. Fines were levied for vexatious

and unnecessary prolonging of suits. One singular and interesting fact to be noticed is that there were attached to the court secret agents for ascertaining the real facts of a law-suit and reporting them to the judges, so that they could compare them with the statements and arguments of the litigants and then pronounce judgment. How far a judge could depend on the secret information he thus obtained seems to have been a matter of discretion. At least two witnesses were necessary in every law-suit, and elaborate rules existed as to the qualifications of witnesses, their oaths before Brahmans and water and fire, their evidences, etc. The defeated party had to bear the fees paid to the witnesses. One remarkable feature was that the judge could be fined for neglect or over-bearing temper, for unnecessary delay and similar defects. He could be fined eight times the value of a suit if he spoiled it in some way or other, and could be chastised with capital punishment if he unjustly awarded it to the parties. The misconduct of judges was evidently inquired into by the king or his associate judges.

The laws of punishment in criminal cases were very severe and draconian. Torture could be resorted to, except in the cases of youngsters, the aged, the afflicted and the lunatics, to extort confession; but torture was legal only in case where there were sufficient evidences to shew that a particular man was guilty. No woman could be subjected to it in case she was carrying or had not passed a month after delivery. "Torture of (ordinary) women shall be half of the prescribed standard." An alternative to torture was espionage, and this was to be resorted to in case of Brahmans and ascetics. Kautilya enumerates the various kinds of

torture that could be resorted to, and divides them into four kinds,—viz., punishments (which in turn were six in number), whipping of which there were seven kinds, suspension from above which had two varieties and water-ordeal. Thieves of individuals or the royal treasury could be subjected many times to these tortures. "Whatever may be the nature of the crime, no Brahman offender shall be tortured. The face of a Brahman convict shall be branded so as to leave a mark indicating his crime:—the sign of a dog in theft, that of a headless body in murder," and so on. After having thus branded to a wound and proclaimed his crime in public, the king shall either banish him or send him to work in mines. Those who seized *valuable* articles from Government mines or manufactories could be beheaded, and those who took articles of small value fined. An elaborate scale of fines to the various sorts of theft is described by Kautilya (See p. 280-1). An alternative to fines in some cases was the parading of the criminal through the streets, his body being smeared over with cowdung, and an earthenware pan with blazing light tied round his loins. Shaving and exile were other alternatives. An officer using unauthorised seals could be even condemned to death. An unjust judge could be punished with the middlemost amercement (*i.e.*, fines of 200 to 500 panas) and dismissed. Adequate punishments for the misconduct of Government servants are further enumerated (p. 282-3). In all cases fines were first levied and if the crime was repeated four times death was the punishment. An adulterer had to pay a fine of 500 panas or had his ears and nose cut off. Abduction was chastised by the cutting of the legs or fine of

600 panas. "When a Sudra calls himself a Brahman, or when any person steals the property of gods, conspires against the king, or destroys both the eyes of another, he shall either have his eyes destroyed by the application of poisonous ointment or pay a fine of 800 panas" (p. 285). "Any person who aims at the kingdom, who forces entrance into the king's harem, who instigates wild-tribes or enemies, or who creates disaffection in forts, country parts or in the army shall be burnt alive from head to foot" (p. 287). If a person broke the dam of a tank he should be drowned in that very tank. A poisoner was subject to the same penalty. An incendiary was to be thrown into fire.

V. RANGACHARIAR.

We have to announce with deep regret the death of Sir Pherozeshaw M. Mehta, M. A., Barrister-at-Law, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay for several years—one of its brightest alumni and one who has done much service particularly to the cause of Higher Education.

EDUCATION AND EXAMINATIONS.

IN all progressive communities that which assures the continued progress of the country or the community is a well-organised system of education. Every nation and every people work in order that the next generation may be better than their own.

The educational system of any country has to be so devised as to suit all possible requirements of future generations; and consequently it is that all great civilised nations have laid great store by their educational systems. In the discussions of national problems, that of education, commonly takes the first rank.

Consistently with our national traditions and in keeping with our national character, amidst the multifarious questions agitating all over the land, educational problems are not given due prominence here. The fact is, we depend for the solution of these problems on the haphazard system devised by administrative agencies. But that this Association and other associations of the kind are started over the land, is a happy sign that the community is awakening to some sense of its duty in the matter, and that a more intelligent interest is being taken therein by the public as well as by the school-master.

Till now the school-master has always been told what he is to do. He has, no need to question why. The matter is prescribed, and the method is prescribed; and he is simply to carry out the rules laid down by others for him, and there is an end of it. But of late the community has come to question

the wisdom of existing things. We find that some of our brightest men at the height of their prosperity, when they are just beginning to be of some use to the community, are being suddenly taken away from us. The premature decay of educated men has roused inquiry in the minds of the people and has led them to suspect that something is wrong somewhere. No doubt this will lead to a more careful investigation of the problem, and in a few years we shall be agitating not only on this point but on several other points as well, *e.g.*, What has been the effect of this education? How far has the community progressed by it? How far has culture ceased to be the monopoly of particular classes? What evidence of this education and culture is there not only in the material aspects of the lives which our educated men lead, but also in their higher public lives?

If you examine these questions from the educational standpoint, you would agree with me in thinking that what has been given us in the name of education does not satisfy all our national requirements and is not conducive to our national progress.

The present system of education was devised for a particular purpose, and it has served that purpose admirably well. That we have progressed so far as to be discontented with the system is due to the system itself. It has enabled us to reach this stage wherefrom we are able to demand higher things. We do not condemn the past. In the same way as a child which advances in age and demands stronger nourishment does not reprove the mother for having given it only a milk-diet in the years of infancy, so we demand an educational system more suited to our present national needs without at the same time disparaging the past. In the

infancy of our political condition it was necessary that we should be subject to the guidance of our administrators. Now the nation is a little grown-up and is now expressing a genuine desire for further advancement, which should by no means be construed as a condemnation of what the Government has hitherto done for us.

Imagine the present system radically altered, and yourself living to review the present system some thirty years hence. Young men now at school when they advance in years would probably find an altered state of things. Future historians of our institutions would probably be very much surprised that thousands of graduates should have spread over the land depending upon Government for their livelihood, that the community should have been incapable of united action, our political lives resembling huge cars stuck in the mud, our people accustomed to expect from education only what they imagine to be the highest material advantages from the individual selfish point of view, and that in the higher purposes of life they should have been absolutely devoid of any land-marks for guidance, our public men devoid of any capacity to guide us, any symptom of or cry for progress being looked upon as an abomination. What applies to other departments of national life applies still more to the educational department. In all the essentials of our national life we have been but too apt subjects of experiment by the administrative machinery.

What has the school-master to do with the system under which he works? Well, it is not enough to ask a carpenter to plane a piece of wood in a particular manner or give it a particular shape. You have to tell him the purpose for which the wood is required.

Similarly the school-master should be told what a particular boy is to become in the future. Only when the school-master knows that he is a part of an organised system intended to develop the highest faculty in each individual child, and intended to give him a training which will enable him to utilise his faculties to the good of himself and the community, then and then only does the school-master's work become really significant. Therefore I welcome this awakening first of the teachers in the land. If the educational system is improved, the products of education will improve; and if the products should improve, the future progress of the country will be assured.

I propose to put before you one or two problems which confront us just now in our educational progress. I have advisedly combined the words Education and Examinations in the title of this discourse, for the two are inseparable in the minds of the average Indian teacher or parent.

Till now the entire purpose of education has been to prepare a boy for some examination or other. Such examinations may be either for purposes of annual promotions or for purposes of maintaining marks-registers or for public examinations like the one for the award of the S. S. L. Certificates and the University examinations. That education is for some purpose higher and nobler than that of satisfying the Department or the Senate and their examinations has never occurred to the teacher. How long is this system to continue? Should not a teacher ask whether examinations should subserve his purposes or his work is to subserve the purposes of an examination.

From the utterances of some people high in the councils of our University, it would

*An address delivered by K. Seshu Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Municipal High School, Mayavaram, at the inauguration of the Tiruvalur High School Teachers' Association.

appear that teachers exist for examinations, that pupils exist for examinations, and those who do not come up to the standards of such examinations ought not to be allowed to advance further. The needs of the examinees have not been taken into consideration. Examinations have been arbitrary things standing like impassable barriers on our path rather than steps for our advancement, and it has been left for us to cut a smooth pathway through them. I would wish you to consider whether or not human institutions exist for human purposes, whether examinations ought to be made to square with human purposes or human purposes ought to be twisted to suit the needs of arbitrarily-fashioned institutions.

I propose to take you somewhat deviously into the psychological basis of examinations. First let us take the examination such as a teacher holds in the course of a class lesson, when he puts a few oral questions and gets a few answers. Here we may have two types of questions for two kinds of objects. The teacher may put questions to test whether he himself has done his work properly, whether he has made a proper impression on the boys, whether and how far they have followed him in the class. This sort of questioning is good and even absolutely necessary. Another kind of questions may be put to test whether boys have completely stocked their minds with all the odd bits of information given the previous day. This is absolutely pernicious. Suppose a doctor prescribes a particular nourishment for a patient, and in the next visit asks him to vomit all that was taken in, with a view to test whether his prescription has been followed. I know analogies may be pushed too far. But every teacher who holds an examination of the second kind is acting exactly

like that. There is still a further difference. The teacher is a mature man; but the mind of the pupil is immature and unformed. The teaching imparted is a rapid word-sketch of figures and images intended to be rapidly formed in the minds of the pupils. Suppose one of us is taken along with an artist to look at a piece of painting. The artist's eye easily takes in at the first glance the merits and defects of execution, perspective and other technical details. The layman observes the general body and appearance of the picture and the total impression made on his mind. But now suppose for a moment that the lay visitor was examined the next day by the artist on his observations of the previous day and asked to describe the artistic peculiarities in detail. Most probably he would prove a miserable failure. All that you would expect of a layman is that he would so observe it as to be able to describe the main features to a person who had not seen the picture and to be able to recognise it if he should see it again. The teacher's business is to present the imagery as much as his pupil's mind could or would grasp. Test, where necessary, if you have been successful in your efforts, not, whether the pupils' brains retain an exact copy of the picture you had drawn.

The essential part of the nourishment we take becomes in a few hours part and parcel of our blood and is dispersed throughout the system, and cannot be drawn with impunity. What remains behind and is ultimately rejected is the unabsorbable portion. Similarly the best part of a teacher's lesson the infantile brain must register and slowly and gradually make a part and parcel of its own brain. The teacher who expects the child to reproduce his lessons forgets that the lesson is not essen-

tially for reproduction and that the child's brain is not a printing machine. A wise teacher must be satisfied with the evidence that the boy has attended the lesson, grasped the main points carefully, no matter the details; and should hope that the time would come in the future of the boy when all or much of his teaching would be of use.

The growth of a pupil in mind as well as body is very much like the growth of a plant or tree. The plant takes up nutrient material of different kinds from different sources and makes the same a part and parcel of its being. These same materials evidence themselves at different stages of the plant growth, as leaf buds, leaves, flower buds, flowers, and fruits. Would you demand that the tree should, the day after it is treated to a sumptuous feast in the form of an artificial manure, show evidence of its absorption by an immediate display of foliage or fruits? To expect a pupil to display in an examination the full benefit of the educational discipline he has received in the course of any particular period—examinations of the kind we are accustomed to—is as mad a folly as it would be of the planter who, not seeing efflorescence on his recently manured plant, proceeds to destroy it. We teachers have much to learn from the lessons plants and planters would teach us. It is a well-known principle of gardening that the tendency to excessive foliage has to be checked by periodical pruning to ensure good fruit in season, and in the case of several young trees, the early efflorescence and efforts at early production of fruits have to be checked for first two or three years in order to ensure a long standing fruitful life. Much in the same way a true educator may have to hold in check the tendency on the part of precocious children to become book-

worms in order to secure a duly balanced, steady and permanent development. Unfortunately for us we are not in a position to enforce the highest ideals we may form or the best methods we may devise, in the system under which we are called upon to work.

The system now in vogue has been in existence for over fifty years. An examination of the circumstances of its origin will be of considerable interest to, nay, is essential for, everyone who is concerned in educational progress in order to enable him to see things in their proper historical perspective.

Fifty years ago, the Government was not able to organise any system of education in colleges or schools on any ideal basis. The Government thought that Universities like the London University which was merely an examining body would quite satisfy the then conditions and the people welcomed those institutions. The London University, a highly respectable one, came into existence to meet the demand for education of those poorer and middle classes of England who could not afford to send their children to the costly and aristocratic Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. At the time when our Universities were created other types of Universities were out of the question. Hence the University certificates were based upon examinations and examinations alone. The system filtered down from the University to the High School for every class promotion—in the shape of annual examinations, then into half-yearly, quarterly and more into weekly and even daily examinations. If the majority of us are weak in our nerves, weak in our blood, and weak in our muscles, I unhesitatingly lay it down to the sapping of our blood by this system of examinations to which we had been subjected in our student lives. The life of a student

has been one of exhausting drudgery, getting up too early from bed to do his daily school exercises, getting ready for the day's or week's examinations and working up at high steam for months in anticipation of the annual horror of the promotion examination.

If education is to be something better than what it has been, we must lay the axe at the very root of the evil. The system of examinations must go from top to bottom. We find that in the English Universities failures are very rare. They have only one public examination at the end of the whole course and all or almost all necessarily pass through it. The degree is withheld only in special cases and for special reasons. A student who has regularly attended expects his degree as a matter of course. Similarly, we have been informed by those acquainted with English public schools that promotion is the rule and detention the exception. There is no reason why a boy who has sat in front of you for a whole year and tried to grasp what you have taught him should not be allowed to pass on to the next higher stage. If a boy is not able to reproduce the particular point that you want, and in the manner that you want, are you justified in thinking that he has not profited by your instruction? Can we honestly affirm that our examinations are the best tests of the pupils' merits? Take lesson once again from the tree. You take a plant like the mango tree at this season. It looks as if it could bear nothing but leaves. Shall we therefore cut it off? All the nourishment that it now takes, the water, the manure, the salts and carbon are all stored up in the various cells. Only in the fulness of time, with the commencement of the movement of the sun towards the north, it expresses itself

in the form of bud, flower and fruit. Similarly, the result of education is not to be expected in the period when the education is being continued. The period of assimilation is not the period of expression. Allow full time and opportunity for assimilation and do not disturb that work while it is going on, with feeble premature attempts at forcing expression. Let the work of expression take care of itself. Leave it to time and trust that if you have done your work properly, that work will express itself more substantially than in mere verbiage.

The system under which we have been labouring for all these years has produced results visible in the present. In whatever respects these may have been satisfactory, these results cannot be regarded as sufficient to reconcile us to a continuation of the system.

That the present generation of graduates are short lived, and such of them as live long enough are incapable of supplying the nation with the necessary moral and spiritual forces essential for progress, is its own condemnation. These evils, the premature decay and spiritual inertia of the present generation of educated men, must be unhesitatingly attributed to the system of examinations which has been taken to be the sole test of education. Immediate reproduction has been the only test of education which the teacher and the examiner have consistently adopted throughout the educational career of these men. Here is the evil. What you impart to-day should not be expected to be rendered visible to-morrow by being exactly reproduced but only in after years and in quite a different way. The true examination is the later life of the pupil.

I shall just give you one more illustration.

from plant life and experiment, which I have myself watched, which may serve to illustrate the statement that these examinations are absolutely unfit as tests of the students' merits.

A friend of mine suggested some months ago that in a rose bush, if you cut off some of its supernumerary branches and leaves, it would produce plenty of flowers sometime after. One of my children took hold of one of these cut-off branches and planted it in the earth. It was apparently a hardened one. Ten days later, up shot a beautiful flower. Who would have thought that a single separate rose-twig would shoot forth flower? But evidently the twig had laid by all the material necessary for the production of a future flower. Since it was cut off before it was allowed to find its full expression as a part of the larger plant, it spent its spare energy in the production of that solitary flower. There has been another set of phenomena which for long remained inexplicable, till the key was found by me not after some service in the profession. My experience in this matter dates back to my college days. I had a number of companions who were always first in all examinations. My teacher put it down to my laziness that I did not secure any of the prizes. But towards the close of the Upper Secondary course several had given way. Out of the ten or fifteen who were prominent at the end of the High School course, many had floundered during the College course. One or two of those who were considered very bright in the F.A. classes were not heard of in the B.A. class. Some of them managed with difficulty to 'scrape through' the B.A. examination.

Proceeding a step further, out of the twenty or thirty of the brightest students

at the end of the University course, very few have been decently successful in life; and out of the successful men most were content to keep the middle seats and some, the last seats in the College classes. What is the explanation of this phenomenon? At this day any one of you may go into my school and look into the lists of scholarship boys for the last five or six years. A boy who had been the first in the I Form comes down to the 10th place in the II Form and perhaps takes the 20th place in the III Form, and then he cannot be recommended for scholarship and eventually loses it. This is a fact which you can verify by reference to the scholarship registers of several educational institutions.

The psychological explanation is this; the boy has been encouraged by the teacher to concentrate his energies in one particular department, namely, cultivating the art of linguistic reproduction. The mind begins to act like a photographic plate or machine. Accustomed to rapid and brilliant displays it loses all traces of what it had received as the years roll on and capacity in the real sense either lies dormant or has been killed out. Our examinations have been guilty of having diverted the energy of all students from real development, and all the effects of teachers from shaping their teaching to render the same fit for application in actual life. The words of wisdom being accustomed to be repeated parrot-like have lost all moral significance. As soon as a boy comes out of the University Hall he feels himself relieved of all obligations to undertake any further study on his own behalf.

We have so long laboured under this system that if we were asked to abolish it all at once, we should wonder what other system we should adopt in its place. What is needed is

appear that teachers exist for examinations, that pupils exist for examinations, and those who do not come up to the standards of such examinations ought not to be allowed to advance further. The needs of the examinees have not been taken into consideration. Examinations have been arbitrary things standing like impassable barriers on our path rather than steps for our advancement, and it has been left for us to cut a smooth pathway through them. I would wish you to consider whether or not human institutions exist for human purposes, whether examinations ought to be made to square with human purposes or human purposes ought to be twisted to suit the needs of arbitrarily-fashioned institutions.

I propose to take you somewhat deviously into the psychological basis of examinations. First let us take the examination such as a teacher holds in the course of a class lesson, when he puts a few oral questions and gets a few answers. Here we may have two types of questions for two kinds of objects. The teacher may put questions to test whether he himself has done his work properly, whether he has made a proper impression on the boys, whether and how far they have followed him in the class. This sort of questioning is good and even absolutely necessary. Another kind of questions may be put to test whether boys have completely stocked their minds with all the odd bits of information given the previous day. This is absolutely pernicious. Suppose a doctor prescribes a particular nourishment for a patient, and in the next visit asks him to vomit all that was taken in, with a view to test whether his prescription has been followed. I know analogies may be pushed too far. But every teacher who holds an examination of the second kind is acting exactly

like that. There is still a further difference. The teacher is a mature man; but the mind of the pupil is immature and unformed. The teaching imparted is a rapid word-sketch of figures and images intended to be rapidly formed in the minds of the pupils. Suppose one of us is taken along with an artist to look at a piece of painting. The artist's eye easily takes in at the first glance the merits and defects of execution, perspective and other technical details. The layman observes the general body and appearance of the picture and the total impression made on his mind. But now suppose for a moment that the lay visitor was examined the next day by the artist on his observations of the previous day and asked to describe the artistic peculiarities in detail. Most probably he would prove a miserable failure. All that you would expect of a layman is that he would so observe it as to be able to describe the main features to a person who had not seen the picture and to be able to recognise it if he should see it again. The teacher's business is to present the imagery as much as his pupil's mind could or would grasp. Test, where necessary, if you have been successful in your efforts, not, whether the pupils' brains retain an exact copy of the picture you had drawn.

The essential part of the nourishment we take becomes in a few hours part and parcel of our blood and is dispersed throughout the system, and cannot be drawn with impunity. What remains behind and is ultimately rejected is the unabsorbable portion. Similarly the best part of a teacher's lesson the infantile brain must register and slowly and gradually make a part and parcel of its own brain. The teacher who expects the child to reproduce his lessons forgets that the lesson is not essen-

tially for reproduction and that the child's brain is not a printing machine. A wise teacher must be satisfied with the evidence that the boy has attended the lesson, grasped the main points carefully, no matter the details; and should hope that the time would come in the future of the boy when all or much of his teaching would be of use.

The growth of a pupil in mind as well as body is very much like the growth of a plant or tree. The plant takes up nutrient material of different kinds from different sources and makes the same a part and parcel of its being. These same materials evidence themselves at different stages of the plant growth, as leaf buds, leaves, flower buds, flowers, and fruits. Would you demand that the tree should, the day after it is treated to a sumptuous feast in the form of an artificial manure, show evidence of its absorption by an immediate display of foliage or fruits? To expect a pupil to display in an examination the full benefit of the educational discipline he has received in the course of any particular period—examinations of the kind we are accustomed to—is as mad a folly as it would be of the planter who, not seeing efflorescence on his recently manured plant, proceeds to destroy it. We teachers have much to learn from the lessons plants and planters would teach us. It is a well-known principle of gardening that the tendency to excessive foliage has to be checked by periodical pruning to ensure good fruit in season, and in the case of several young trees, the early efflorescence and efforts at early production of fruits have to be checked for first two or three years in order to ensure a long standing fruitful life. Much in the same way a true educator may have to hold in check the tendency on the part of precocious children to become book-

worms in order to secure a duly balanced, steady and permanent development. Unfortunately for us we are not in a position to enforce the highest ideals we may form or the best methods we may devise, in the system under which we are called upon to work.

The system now in vogue has been in existence for over fifty years. An examination of the circumstances of its origin will be of considerable interest to, nay, is essential for, everyone who is concerned in educational progress in order to enable him to see things in their proper historical perspective.

Fifty years ago, the Government was not able to organise any system of education in colleges or schools on any ideal basis. The Government thought that Universities like the London University which was merely an examining body would quite satisfy the then conditions and the people welcomed those institutions. The London University, a highly respectable one, came into existence to meet the demand for education of those poorer and middle classes of England who could not afford to send their children to the costly and aristocratic Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. At the time when our Universities were created other types of Universities were out of the question. Hence the University certificates were based upon examinations and examinations alone. The system filtered down from the University to the High School for every class promotion—in the shape of annual examinations, then into half-yearly, quarterly and more into weekly and even daily examinations. If the majority of us are weak in our nerves, weak in our blood, and weak in our muscles, I unhesitatingly lay it down to the sapping of our blood by this system of examinations to which we had been subjected in our student lives. The life of a student

a correct understanding of the purpose of examinations: and once this is achieved, the evil will remedy itself. Examinations should be devised with a view to guide boys how to study and what to study, rather than to pronounce them unfit and press them down. Our present examinations appear to have been devised to find out what the boys do not know rather than to test what they do know. They are more like the cross-examinations of witnesses in a Court of Law by the pleader for the opposite side than like the examination-in-chief conducted by the citing pleader. An examination should deal with the most salient points, those which are most prominent, those which we may be reasonably expected to carry in our memory through later life. And then the boys should not for a moment be made to feel that their future depends so entirely on these examinations. If we want our boys to be mentally and physically healthy, and later on, to be successful or useful men in life, this feverish anxious dependence on examinations should be altogether removed.

During these 25 years, since the late iniquitous Matriculation was devised in its final form, I believe very honestly and sincerely that more harm has been done by the rejection of the really fit from colleges than any good achieved by the rejection of the unfit. I have known hundreds of successful men who have been rejected by the University. I know thousands of young men who have been stamped with the mark of rejection. They end by becoming disappointed hungry wolves preying upon society, in occupations that men of culture would be unwilling to be found in.

Education and progress must be freely open to everybody who seeks their portals. It should not be in the power of any close body to say "You are not fit to get in here."

There is no fear of the hall of culture being invaded by the mob. Every boy would reach only that height which he is physically and mentally capable of reaching. The majority of our graduates enter some service or other on a small income of Rs. 25 or so per month, where a very large proportion of their work has been already determined for them, so that they have absolutely no scope for originality and are not entrusted with any power of initiative. Why then kill a whole generation of boys by this system of examinations? The fault, as in all such cases, is not wholly on one side. It lies also on the community which willingly submits to such rejection. As a general rule, I make bold to give this advice: if a boy is rejected by the University, let him also reject the University. Learn some industry, utilise your intellect therein and utilise your leisure hours in intellectual pursuits if you have any bent in that way. How many graduates retain their intellectual tastes for study or other pursuits in after life? With regret I confess I do not find many who are willing to study anything beyond what they have learned in colleges. On the other hand, look at the biographies of eminent men, at least of men who have played the role of great men in the western world. You would find if you take a hundred great men, not more than ten would have seen a University and out of that ten not more than one would have succeeded in getting an Honours degree. If the British Empire could have been substantially built up by such men, where is the necessity for us Indians to submit to the system now in vogue? I therefore want you to draw up your protest against that system and to demand greater freedom and elasticity in your work, and also that the lives of your

boys be free from all those anxious hours caused by the spectre of examinations. Let boys devote six or seven hours every day, including school or college hours to their lessons; let all the rest of their time be given to comradeship and physical exercise, in good light and good air, so that they may come out as solid specimens of humanity and not as miserable relics who have spent out their ancestral bequests in life. This system is ruinous not only from the physical point of view but also from the mental and moral. The real wonder is not that the products of such a system die so soon, but that they do live so long.

You may reply "Our position demands these and other similar things to be carried out. What we should do has already been settled for us by others. It is not ours to question why?" I say this reply would be quite satisfactory, if you alone were concerned in the matter. Nobody has any right to question your making a victim of yourself. But it is others you victimise and others' children. I therefore implore you to exert your legitimate influence, therefore, and try to pull up this evil by the roots.

Examinations must be as few in number as possible and as guides for us and the boys in our work. A doctor does not probe with the surgeon's knife merely to understand what is wrong with his patient. He studies what is wrong by means of external symptoms and uses the knife only for effecting a cure. In promoting a boy from the 3rd to the 4th Form, for instance, to examine him by allowing him to write three or four sentences of his own should suffice. Why ask him to write a composition for three hours?

Let neither boys nor teachers regard what has been taught as something given as a loan to be delivered back when demanded, after

which all mutual obligations cease. If you want to progress and if you want to have examinations also, let the entire examination occupy a day or two at the utmost. Let Geography, History and English be tested in one paper. A boy's knowledge of English need not be tested by imposing a physical burden of three hours in the hot summer months. Even your annual examinations may be confined to a few hours every day and spread over a fewer number of days.

I therefore want you all to look upon your boys with a different eye—not regarding them as so many photographic plates, but as the good honest citizens of to-morrow, as young men who are likely to become the administrators and judges of to-morrow, as flowers which are to become fruit in due season, not to be twisted, compressed, plucked, and examined before they are allowed to become fruit. Watch the growth of the boy's intellect, rather than probe into it every now and then and render it incapable of higher development.

Reform in the direction pointed out is not an easy task. We have the parents to satisfy in the first instance. The first attitude of parents would be one of distrust and suspicion of the school-master who would introduce changes. Themselves accustomed to a system of sleepless study and midnight oil, they cannot bring themselves to bear with a boy who snores away his early morning hours after the foot-ball match of the previous evening. You are sure to receive criticisms against the "new fangled system of ease." You are bound to enlighten the lay public and to convince parents that it is better for our children to become athletes rather than book-worms. Our country is in need of vigorous minds capable

of exercising themselves on the problems of the day.

Great things are in store for us. It is being recognised that we are more and more citizens of an Empire than people of a subject race. Hence it is that this time is a very happy moment for us to study educational questions from a new standpoint and with a desire, as citizens of a component part of that Empire, to rise to a position wherein equality would be granted to us, not as a matter of favour but as a matter of right. If it is to be so, our national life has to rise to a high level of efficiency. I therefore ask you teachers to remember that we are training boys to be citizens capable of boldly confronting the not fully-revealed conditions of to-morrow, rather than to make them fit to pass through a groove of examinations which happen to be the bed-rock of the educational system of to-day.

On us lies the heavy responsibility. It depends on us whether our citizens of the future acquit themselves as would become the members of that Empire of peace, industry, progress and civilization which looms to us through the dark clouds of war raised by a barbarian host in the garb of culture and civilization, or whether they fail of this destiny and fall back to one of eternal dependence on the rest of the civilised world; whether by your foresight and energy, you would overhaul the educational system and rid yourself of all the shackles forged therein, or are merely content to walk in the beaten tracks of the earlier generation of teachers who but pioneered the way through a tangled mass of ignorance and prejudice, but never pretended to lay down the route for all time.

May God grant us wisdom and spirit and guide us aright in the path towards higher destinies for our country and for the Indian nation that is to come!

THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR.

WITH this paper on Grammar, intended to be complementary to my papers on Composition and Literature already published in the *Educational Review*, I should like to complete and round off some of the general practical suggestions I wanted to offer on some of the important aspects of the teaching of English in our Secondary schools. The teaching of no other school-subject has undergone such violent fluctuations in its aim, scope or method, caused by conflicting or divergent currents of opinion in the educational world, as grammar. Never have staunch advocates as well as bitter opponents of the function of grammar in education been wanting. Until recently, grammar monopolized a large part of the time and attention devoted to English. The interests of literature and composition were unfortunately subordinated to those of grammar. Examinations in English were more or less tests of the students' proficiency in it. This unfortunate state of affairs existed not only in our country, but in America and England also, though vast strides of progress have been taken in those countries during the last two decades. Those who are well acquainted with our schools will bear testimony to the deposition of grammar from its high pedestal, and the introduction of altered and improved methods in the teaching of English. Those who have been reading the reports issued by the examiners of the School Final Examinations in the several provinces of India, would remember that, while admitting the improvement in the general standard of English used by our students at the examinations, they are of opinion that much more remains to be done before they attain a

tolerable level of grammatical correctness. I am often seriously tempted to ask whether we have not, as a result of the sudden reaction caused by the distaste and the sense of the futility of the antiquated methods of teaching grammar current for half a century in our schools, swung to the opposite extreme of eschewing grammar altogether from the scheme of studies, which is likely to prove detrimental to their linguistic progress. I shall try to point out how much, and in what manner, grammar work can be attempted in our schools.

WHAT IS GRAMMAR?

Grammar is the science of speech. As intelligent, human, and civilized beings, we have to express our thoughts; and language is the medium of expressing our thoughts by spoken or written words. The power of using a language or the ability to speak and write correctly does not depend upon a knowledge of the rules of grammar. Because language is learned unconsciously by imitation in childhood, and the power of wielding this weapon intelligibly and often correctly grows with practice. But no one will deny that an acquaintance with grammar is of invaluable help in acquiring correctness of speech. Moreover, as speech is an art, proficiency in that art can be acquired only by mastering the rules and principles of the science, viz. grammar, on which it is based. As grammar is only a record of the rules formulated by observing the practices and examples unconsciously followed by those speaking the language, it derives its authority from usage. To any one who desires not only to speak correctly but in a good style, a sound knowledge of grammatical rules is quite essential.

THE PLACE OF GRAMMAR.

A knowledge of the history of education reminds us that from the earliest times, in India, Greece and Rome, grammar had been occupying a distinguished place among the subjects prescribed for a liberal education. Not only was the study of grammar, as an abstract science in all its subtle ramifications, considered absolutely necessary for the rhetorician, the logician and the philosopher to enable them to unravel intricacies of thought, to discriminate fine shades of meaning and to distinguish minor differences of expression, but even the ordinary layman was obliged to go through a regular course of drill in that subject. This prominence attached to grammar was continued undiminished in the monastic schools of the Middle Ages until the whole spirit of education received a rude shock by the impact of that revolutionary movement, the Renaissance in the 16th century. Later on, history and the physical sciences came to demand an equal attention from the learners. Almost up to the end of the last century, if not to a large extent even now, grammar, especially Latin and Greek grammar in England, was studied as a separate subject in schools and colleges. It is only since the beginning of this century that the practical value and importance of grammar have been duly appraised as an appendage to the work done in English.

THE VALUE OF GRAMMAR.

• About the value of grammar in education opinions of extreme variety have been expressed in different countries at different times. It has its theoretical and practical value. Its study affords a sound training in the power of observation and clear thinking.

Grammar is the science of speech. As language is an outward expression of our thoughts, the rules of grammar agree mainly with the laws of thought. So, any one who studies carefully and rationally the rules of grammar and their application in speech, cannot but acquire an added strength and clearness in the processes of reasonable thinking. To any one who desires to analyse and master his thoughts, and marshal them for purposes of argument, a knowledge of the scientific principles of the art of speech is quite indispensable. Thus to understand language clearly and accurately and to equip our minds with the power of clear expression, a study of grammar is of the utmost importance. Every language contains phrases and constructions or idioms current in ordinary usage which appear to be irregular and even illogical, and a knowledge of their forms and significance can be gained only by the guidance of grammar. Children learn to talk their mother-tongue by imitation; and this mastery over a language gained without any special study may satisfy the ordinary requirements of every day life. But the study of a foreign language, as English is to us, is impossible unless the learner has a correct knowledge of at least the elementary principles and rules of grammar. Thus the power, or the part of our students, to speak and write English correctly is greatly helped by a knowledge of grammatical rules.

NEED GRAMMAR BE TAUGHT?

It is very difficult to give a simple and direct answer to this question. If it means grammar as an abstract science, and in a formal way, No; if it implies a knowledge of grammatical principles gained

indirectly during the course of the English lesson, Yes. Controversies have raged, sometimes very bitterly, with regard to this topic between great educators at different times. As a result of these discussions in the past and from knowledge gained in the past from our own experiences, opinions are now crystallising themselves into certain definite forms. In our country, up to the end of the last century a thorough knowledge, often by memorising, of some textbook on grammar was insisted upon and was deemed quite essential for success at the examinations. The question papers in English, both in our schools and at the Matriculation, were more or less a test of the students' capacity to remember grammatical riddles and conundrums. During the last ten years and more there has been a radical change of opinion in this respect, and we are veering round to a sensible and practical point of view. Our objective now seems to lie in giving our students so much of the elementary principles of grammar, and that indirectly, as will enable them to speak and write correct English. In this respect our present method is not much different from the prevailing modern opinion in the United States, which indicates that "high school pupils need, in some way or other, to be trained systematically in a knowledge of the important facts relating to inflection, syntax, sentence-structure, word-order, and word-composition, in their language." Happily for us, modern English grammar is very simple, the language having been shorn of its many inflections during the last four centuries. It is not a tithe as difficult now as Sanskrit, Latin or Greek grammar. Yet, strange to say, some of our students regard English grammar as a bugbear.

GRAMMAR THROUGH LITERATURE AND COMPOSITION.

I have already expressed that grammar, as a separate and special subject, need not be taught in our high schools in spite of its disciplinary value. But, on the other hand, the imparting of grammatical knowledge should never be completely divorced from our English or Composition lesson. It should form part and parcel, not obtrusively but indirectly, especially because English is a foreign tongue to our students, of the ordinary English work. There are teachers who object to the introduction of grammar in the English lesson on the ground that it is likely to spoil the appreciation of the beautiful prose or verse and to "blunt the æsthetic enjoyment of it as literature." To them the answer of Dr. Samuel Thurber that "it will not hurt a pupil's appreciation to parse a little of *Paradise Lost*" ought to be thought-provoking. A retort made by Hazlitt in another connection is suggestive. To some of his friends who complained that the allegorical element in such beautiful poems as Spenser's *Færie Queen* detracted from their intrinsic poetical beauty and worth, he answered: "The allegory will not bite you." Similarly, those teachers, who want to eschew grammar altogether from the English lesson, might be reminded that grammar will not bite them. Further, composition, both oral and written, provides us ample materials and opportunities to know wherein the knowledge of the student is defective in correct expression. They should be made, as far as possible, to correct the mistakes committed by themselves either in speech or written composition; and such occasions might be utilised not only in revising and refreshing their previous knowledge of grammar but in imparting new rules and

principles wherever necessary. So, without allowing ourselves to be carried away by sentimental or æsthetic considerations, we should try to co-ordinate the different parts of the English work by making use of the customary literature and composition lessons to communicate to our students a sound knowledge of the elements of grammar.

WHEN TO TEACH GRAMMAR.

As stated before, the desirability of imparting grammatical knowledge should never be totally absent from the mind of the English teacher from the earliest stages. Because the power to speak and write correctly a foreign language like English implies a practical acquaintance with the fundamental rules underlying that language. Thus it is very difficult to state dogmatically when it should begin and when end. The only correct and comprehensive answer would be that grammar is necessary from the moment they begin the study of the language until they gain a complete mastery over correct expression. Yet, from practical experience of English teaching in our schools I might say that special emphasis should be laid on the grammatical side of the language from the first to the fourth forms. If sufficient attention and care are bestowed during these four years to impart grammatical knowledge, not formally but as an integral part of the English lesson, according to a well-laid out scheme, I am sure our efforts will not be fruitless. There are certain portions of grammar that should be taught formally, and that can be successfully done in the fifth and sixth forms; because the mental powers of the students are then sufficiently mature to enable them to grasp those facts and because they have already had a firm grounding in the essential princi-

ples of grammar in the lower classes. Our aim should be to enable the student, when he leaves the high school, to speak and write tolerably correct English.

THE DIRECT METHOD IN ENGLISH.

One great advantage in picking up the use of a language by children in modern days is the 'Direct Method' of teaching it. It has been accepted as a recognised and natural method in most of our schools. If this method is understood in the right spirit and worked on sound lines, the teaching of grammar would not only be facilitated but become something concrete and interesting.

The underlying principle of the Direct Method is that a foreign language should be studied just as a child does his mother-tongue. By observation and imitation of the language used by his parents or other elders he comes in contact with, the child learns instinctively, without any idea of grammar, how to express his thoughts correctly in words and sentences. The same method should be adopted by the teacher of English in introducing the children to the use of a foreign tongue. He is their guide and example. They imitate him and his words. "Conversation maketh a ready man," says Bacon; and conversation is the only method to be followed in the early stages. In conversation they should be made to utter complete sentences, i.e., complete concepts. These sentences they utter give them a command over the language, and make it something concrete. This oral language should certainly precede any written language; because this alone would enable them to acquire correct pronunciation of words, which is quite essential. Again, by this direct method, they acquire the power, involuntarily of course, of

making correct sentences, though they may not then know the grammatical rules underlying their speech. Once they have understood the spirit of the language and acquired the habit of correct expression and usage, the study of grammar becomes a very easy matter. The command over the materials of the language paves the way for the rational understanding of the structure of the language. Such is the rational value of the direct method.

THE INDUCTIVE METHOD IN GRAMMAR.

The sound method of teaching any science or language, based on true educational principles, is the Inductive Method. In the early stages it is the only sure, though slow, method; and it yields the more complete training. It is based on the maxim: From the known to the unknown, or from the concrete to the abstract. If the educational value of grammar is to be fully realised, the inductive method, as tending to "draw out" what is in them, should be largely resorted to. As the grammatical rules of any language were formulated only long after the language became established, and as they followed the study of the language, so the teaching of grammar in our schools should always follow, never precede, the knowledge of the usage of that language by our boys. The study of English by the Direct Method furnishes the young students with the power of expressing their ordinary ideas in short, simple sentences. "A boy should know no grammar save the grammar of the sentences he himself uses and reads." By placing before them a number of sentences of a similar structure and form and by splitting them up into their component parts, the boys themselves can be made to infer and state what is

common to them all, and hence may be enabled, rather roughly, to formulate a rule we have in view. Rules should never be given beforehand. They should always be made to follow as a result of the comparison of a number of examples already considered and discussed in the class. He should not begin with definitions but evolve them. If this inductive method is consistently followed in teaching principles of grammar, the knowledge gained is sure to be both interesting and abiding. After a certain mastery has been gained over the subject, we may have recourse to the deductive method to enlarge their experience and to cover a wide ground.

THE GENERAL PROCEDURE.

To impart successfully a practical knowledge of grammar, there should be prepared beforehand a sound and reasonable scheme or syllabus formulating the steps by which the students should advance along the lines of study marked out for them from the simple to the complex. This knowledge is something to be gradually accumulated in many years by slow degrees. The rules should be evolved as a result of the study of many examples as they arise in the usual course of the English lesson. The general procedure that can be safely recommended is that a number of examples should be examined, these should lead to this discovery of rules or principles, and that these rules should be applied to fresh cases. It is a golden rule always to proceed from the general to the particular, from broad outlines to minor details. We should not linger long on one feature or aspect at the beginning. Thus for example, after a brief survey of the main parts of speech, we should begin immediately the work of analysing the sentence into its com-

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ponent units, and returning later to a more careful consideration of the parts of speech in their details. Then again we should attempt to deal only with those phenomena of speech familiar to the pupils, so that strange and unfamiliar words or constructions or idioms should not be dragged in. Emphasis should always be laid on the analysis and the structure of the sentence as a whole; because the sentence alone has an independent existence by itself, the words taking their respective places in it according to their powers and functions. One of the practical and effective methods employed in England during recent years for the successful teaching of grammar is the use of graded books called "Language Lessons." They form a new type of instruction in grammar whose object is to make the student familiar with all the leading principles of grammar little by little and in a practical way by the help of numerous examples. These books can be employed only as supplementary to the use of the usual text books in English, not in any way replacing them for the study of grammatical rules.

SOME GENERAL PITFALLS.

English teachers who have carefully observed, noted and analysed the errors commonly committed by our students in speech or in writing would have been struck with the fact that they are reducible to a few well-defined classes. These mistakes are found to prevail more or less in all forms, from the lowest to the highest. The first and foremost of them, which exists in the most virulent form and often to the despair of the English teacher, is the violation of the first rule of syntax. It seems very difficult, sometimes almost impossible, to make them understand and assimilate

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late the rule that "the predicate should agree with the subject in number and person." Not that they are not able to know the meaning of the rule; but in practice, when they talk or write they forget it. One psychological reason, to which it is attributable is, as it seems to me, that this rule is foreign to the spirit and the usage of our vernaculars. In our vernacular they see that the same form of the verb can be used after a singular or plural subject; and they bodily transfer this principle, in their thought and expression, to English also. The chief means of avoiding this mistake is to impress the correct form and usage deeply on their minds by insisting on the young students giving their oral answers as complete sentences. At the same time the teacher should be on the alert to watch for mistakes and correct them then and there. Again, by writing the correct sentences on the black-board very often, they can be made to see them and this sight leaves a firm correct impression on their minds. Thus, practice and a knowledge of correct usage are the only golden means that can be employed to habituate them to the first rule of syntax. Another common mistake is the 'error of proximity,' by which they are often tempted to make the predicate agree with the noun nearest to it, though it may not be in the nominative case. Here also a little thinking and observation will help them. A third difficulty is in making our students understand the necessity for observing the Sequence of Tenses. This is a little difficult in the early stages, but the study of a number of suitable examples ought to convince them that "the verb in the subordinate clause should agree with the verb of the principal sentence." Again we often see mistakes arising from the wrong use of

the relative pronouns or the use of *Shall* and *Will*, the use of appropriate prepositions after certain verbs, though the latter is to be acquired more by their own reading and wider knowledge of the language. In all these cases frequent and incessant repetition is found to be necessary to make the correct usage familiar to them and accustom them to a proper application of the same in new cases.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The simplest rudimentary knowledge of grammar that should be imparted in the early stages is the difference in nature and function between the several classes of words in a sentence, *i.e.*, the Parts of Speech. Here, as elsewhere, special emphasis should be laid on their function. Broad distinctions alone should be attempted and not minor differences. Their memories should not be burdened and confused with high-sounding names in the early stages. After seeing a number of short sentences on the board they will be able to say by comparison that each sentence contains a 'name-word,' referring to a person or thing, and also an 'action-word,' referring to some kind of action or other. After understanding the function of these two classes of words, they may be named 'Noun' and 'Verb,' which are quite essential for every sentence expressing a complete idea. Similarly, 'describing-words' generally placed before nouns in such combinations as 'sugar' and 'sweet,' 'cloth' and 'white,' etc., can be classified as Adjectives; and 'how—when—and—where' words as Adverbs. Then by making a number of separate statements having the same noun, they can be made to feel how the awkward repetition can be avoided by using such words as 'he', 'you', etc., *i.e.* Pronouns.

These elementary notions can be given in the first form along with the English lesson in a concrete way without unduly taxing their patience and memory. This will easily lead to the distinction between Common and Proper nouns. The idea of the Conjunction can be made clear by stating a number of nouns and showing the necessity of connecting them by some word like 'and'. Then the unity of the sentence, containing a collection of 'sense-making words,' of which the name-word and the action-word are indispensable, can be impressed on their minds. In treating of the parts of speech, minor distinctions or abstract divisions should not be attempted early, but should be left to be gathered up later on with wider knowledge and greater experience in speaking and writing the language.

PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

After a brief survey of the Parts of Speech, we might immediately begin the work on parsing and analysis. Parsing should always be made very simple, more so in the early stages; and as little as possible should it be made a mechanical exercise. If the parts of speech of the several words in a sentence are known along with their function in the sentence, the students will, almost unconsciously, know how to parse and analyse the sentence into its component parts. From the earliest stages, until they are well advanced, emphasis should be laid on the analysis and the structure of the sentences. The similarity between parsing and analysis should always be kept before their minds. Parsing is practically analysis on a smaller scale; because parsing shows by the form or position of a word its relation to other words in the sentence, and analysis is the dissection

of long and intricate sentences into their component parts, and showing their relation to one another as before. In the case of verbs, the division into strong and weak verbs, and the tenses, can be attended to early; but the voice, the mood, etc., should be postponed to a later stage. If the analysis of a simple sentence, containing phrases of various kinds, is well mastered by them, the analysis of complex and compound sentences becomes easy, our attention being devoted only to the division into clauses and their kind and construction. Going into the minutest analysis of each clause is unnecessary, except as an occasional brushing up.

ETYMOLOGY.

Some attention might be incidentally devoted to the etymology of some words as they occur in the English lesson. It should not be made a systematic study in secondary schools. What we might attempt is to trace the roots of some of the common words and to give them the meaning and function of a few prefixes and suffixes widely used in English, such as: 'ness', 'hood', 'ion', 'kin', 'fy', 'ous', 'ful', etc.; or 'contra', 'ex', 'super', 'in', 're', 'anti', 'arch', etc. In the case of a few important or interesting words, or words that have passed through varied fortunes, we might trace their historical development or point out notable changes in meaning. The selection of the words will depend upon the practice and forethought of the teacher.

SYNTAX.

I have already referred to some of the rules connected with syntax of which the students should have a thorough knowledge based on reasoning. By the study of a number of

simple examples, intended to illustrate those rules, the rules should be deduced by the students, after which they should be clearly formulated and sometimes committed to memory. Exercises should also be given upon them now and then to give them a thorough grounding in those principles. Some of the rules that are of quite primary importance are: (1) Agreement of the verb with its nominative in number and person; (2) Active verbs and prepositions govern the objective case; (3) Agreement of the relative with its antecedent; (4) The verb 'to be' takes two nominatives, one before and the other after it. Another rule of syntax, to which any amount of attention devoted will never be too much, is a thorough grasp of the sequence of tenses. The rules that "the tense of the verb in an accessory or dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause," should be deeply impressed on them. Then a great step in correct speech and writing would have been taken. After a rational understanding of this, its bearing upon the change of sentences from the direct to the indirect form of narration and *vice versa* can be illustrated. This seems to be a great stumbling block in their path.

I have tried to indicate above the main lines along which our work in Grammar can be attempted in secondary schools with, I hope, some amount of success.

APPENDIX.

[N.B.—A scheme of studies, intended to be broadly suggestive of the main lines along which a progressive knowledge of grammatical rules might be implanted in the minds of our students in secondary schools.]

I FORM:

1. The use of the Capital at the beginning of a sentence, in the child's own name, or

names of other persons and places; similarly, the use of the Period or full-stop at the end.

2. Nouns: Proper and Common.

3. Number: Singular and Plural in referring to one or more things; plurals formed by adding 's' or 'es'.

4. A general analysis of the simple sentence into Subject and Predicate.

5. The Verb: Number and tense as applied to verbs by means of many examples.

6. Adjective modifies: words or groups of words used to enlarge the nature of the subject.

II FORM:

1. The use of the comma, to separate a series of nouns, etc.; use of the apostrophe to indicate the Possessive noun.

2. Division of simple words into syllables.

3. The adverbial modifies, as modifying the Verb, and also the Adjective.

4. The Object of the verb to be distinguished in a sentence; the Objective case, as object of the verb or governed by prepositions: 'to Rama', 'to him'.

5. Pronouns: their function in the sentence.

6. The use of the Articles 'A' or 'An' and 'The'.

7. Comparison of ordinary Adjectives and Adverbs studied in the text.

8. Gender: distinguished in some Common Nouns and Pronouns.

9. The Voice of the Verb; the use of Auxiliaries and the formation of the Future tense.

10. Conjugation of easy verbs: formation of the past tense by adding 'd', 'ed' or 't'.

11. Conjunctions: function of 'but', 'because' etc.

III FORM:

1. The Compound sentence, introduced by 'but', 'yet' etc.

2. Sentences of three kinds: Simple,

Compound and Complex: The idea of co-ordination or independence in the Compound, and subordination or dependence in the Complex, sentence.

3. The Preposition: its function of governing nouns or pronouns in the Objective case.

4. Differences of form in the case of pronouns especially.

5. The Verb: Transitive and Intransitive; difference between object and complement.

6. The function of Inflections: as used in making changes in number, changes in gender, in tense, comparison of adjectives and adverbs, etc.

7. The Double Object: the Direct referring to the thing, and the Indirect to the person.

8. Relative Pronouns: their functions.

9. The use of Yes and No.

10. Idea of Mood: The Indicative, the Infinitive and Imperative moods by reference to examples in the lesson.

11. Transformation of easy sentences; expanding and condensing.

12. The difference between phrases and clauses.

13. Parsing: giving gender, number, and case of nouns and pronouns.

IV FORM:

1. Revision and enlargement of facts studied in former years.

2. New distinctions in sentences: the Exclamatory, the Interrogative, the Imperative, etc.

3. Proper use of the Auxiliaries: 'have', 'do', 'can', 'may', etc.

4. Analysis of complex sentences: various kinds of adverbial clauses introduced by words like 'when', 'if', 'because', 'though', etc.

5. Pronouns: The Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, etc.

6. Full conjugation of strong and weak Verbs.

7. The derivation of a few simple and interesting words.

8. Prefixes and Suffixes: their forms, significance and origin; Roots and stems.

9. The Participle, Verbal Noun, and Infinitive.

10. Conjunctions: The Correlative, subordinating and co-ordinating conjunctions.

11. Changes from the Direct to the Indirect forms of speech; the underlying principles of this change.

12. Accent: its meaning and importance in English.

13. Importance of punctuation marks.

V & VI FORMS:

In addition to facts studied above, special attention might be devoted to the supplementary study of the following:—

1. The Infinitive: its nature and functions.

2. The sequence of tenses.

3. The shades of meaning indicated by the Subjunctive.

4. The laws of Shall and Will.

5. Uses of prepositions like 'but', 'except', 'beside', 'without', 'like', 'near', etc.

6. The meaning and importance of Punctuation.

7. Uses and grammatical irregularities of important idioms.

8. Some important figures of speech.

P. K. ANANTNARAYAN IYER,

THE NEED FOR SPELLING REFORM AND ITS SPECIAL VALUE TO INDIA. *

AS I rise before you to speak on the subject of spelling reform this evening, I feel I owe you an explanation for bringing up before you what may seem a strange and uncalled-for theme at a moment when our Empire is concerned in the most deadly war ever waged in the history of the world. My explanation is however easily given. We must view the effect of the present war upon us in a practical manner. We are all of us, indeed deeply anxious for the success of our armies. But does it practically amount to the cessation of our usual activities? No, as a writer put it in the *Times* long ago: "We have all of us got to do anything we can to help in the national effort; which means for the large majority not fussily offering interference in matters in which we have no concern and can be of no use, but doing our business as clergymen or carpenters, railwaymen or solicitors, with more than our usual care and sense of duty." It behoves us then, members of the Madura Teachers' Association to awaken to what I hope will be seen to be a problem of great importance not only to the educational world, though especially so, but also to the English-speaking and English-writing people at large.

The subject of this evening is concerned with the present condition of the English language in its written form. The study of a language has a twofold aspect. We learn the

spoken sounds of the language, and we also learn to write it. The spoken sound is obviously the more important aspect of language. Spoken sounds existed even before the symbols of writing were invented and many people in the world use language only as a medium of speech and not as a medium of writing. Language arises in the first place because it is necessary for human intercourse which necessitates a constant communication of thoughts and feelings. The script of a language is always a later product because the necessity for it evolves only out of a comparatively advanced and complex condition of human existence. When communication of human thoughts and feelings has to be undertaken between long distances, and among great numbers of men, the written script becomes a necessity. To us this evening a brief history of the English script is of great relevancy. In the golden age of English script, it enjoyed an entire purity. English spelling was then, what spelling is always intended to be, a faithful, constant, and unerring instrument or rather symbol of the spoken sounds of the language. In King Alfred's time every letter stood only for one sound and every sound was always expressed by one letter. The back sound *a*, and the front sound *æ* were carefully distinguished by two different symbols. The letter *e* always stood for the sound *e* as in *bed*; the letter *i* meant always an *i* sound as in *pin*; the letter *o* was the rounded (*ɔ*) sound and long *o* was always the close *ō* sound. The fiction of silent initial or medial consonants was unheard of, double consonants were pronounced, and in short there had as yet been no complication in or pretentious traditions gathered about, the nature of English spelling. The traditions of modern

spelling originate in the period following the Norman conquest of England. The conquest was linguistic as well as political and the English script was considerably modified by Norman influence. The fashions of Norman spelling came into vogue in English. The *ū* of old English came frequently to be represented by what should be a diphthongal symbol *ou*; the letter *o* was in certain places used to represent an *u* sound; the letter *c* which stood hitherto for a guttural sound only came to stand for an entirely different sound, the dental fricative *s*. But a worse time for English spelling came at the end of the period of French influence on English. This was the time of the so-called etymological spellings. The forms of words, naturally evolved in various ways, were altered to conform to a pedantic craving to record in English the peculiarities of the cognate forms in Latin. The word *debt* was reasonably enough spelt *dette* in Chaucer. It was as a matter of fact derived from a French word which did not have the mute *b* which adorns our modern spelling of the word. But the old grammarian so prided on his knowledge of Latin as to take occasion to display his knowledge of the Latin form in the English spelling. Accordingly, the English word was altered, out of deference to the Latin form, in this instance, *debitum*. Similarly what was *parfit* in Chaucer has been endowed with the *c* of Latin *perfectus*.

Though the irregularities of English spelling originate in the Norman period and are later mischievously increased by the pedantic grammarians, in one way the worst period for English spelling may be said to come only much later. All through the Middle English period and even in the Elizabethan age spelling was not rigid.

There was considerable variation in the different parts of England and in different individuals. Still this condition of things had a distinct advantage. This freedom and license, however inconsistent in many ways, always allowed the possibility of mistaking into the phonetically correct spelling. Now English spelling is fixed and every learner of the language must master all the eccentricities of English spelling. A fixed and uniform spelling has indeed conferred on us an invaluable advantage but from the standard of a phonetically correct spelling we are at present placed even in a worse position than the Elizabethans. It does not of course follow that we must return to the chaos of earlier periods, but the need for reform is all the greater at present when we are prepared to accept implicitly a rigid and uniform standard of spelling.

Spelling reform is again bound to be felt to be necessary at long intervals in the history of a language because of what is known as the law of the continuity of phonetic change. English pronunciation to-day is different from what it was in Shakespeare's day, more from what it was in Chaucer's day, and still more from what it was in King Alfred's time. All the old *ā* sounds have become the diphthongal *e*: *i* sounds; all the old *ū* sounds have become *ou* (pronounced *au*) sounds, and all the *i* sounds have become *ai* sounds. This change in the spoken sounds has not been attended with a corresponding change in the spelling, as it ought to be. The *au* in *house* represented at one time rightly enough according to French orthography the sound *u* but it now stands for quite the different sound the diphthong *au*. We have also the numerous class of words in which the superfluous letters found to-day stood at

* A public lecture delivered recently by Mr. P. R. Kriahnaswami, B.A. (Hons.), Asst. Professor of English, American College, Madura, under the auspices of the Madura Teachers' Association, in the Madura College, with Mr. R. G. Grieve, M.A., Inspector of Schools, in the chair.

one time for sounds that were actually pronounced. The *gh* in *night* was actually pronounced formerly, the sound corresponding to the sound occurring in Scotch *loch*.

Before proceeding to answer some of the customary arguments brought forward against spelling reform, and before mentioning the many advantages to be derived from a reformed mode of spelling, I may be allowed to indicate to you in some measure, the irregular and imperfect nature of modern English spelling. In the first place, English spelling is inconsistent. The same letter indicates different sounds in different places. The *a* in *father* is different from the *a* in *matter* and the *a* in *nature*. The *e* in *bed* is different from the *e* in *here* and the *i* in *pin* from the *i* in *find*. The *o* in *shop* is different from the *o* in *slope* and the *o* in *house* and the *o* in *troop*. The *u* in *put* is different from the *u* in *but*. Again among the consonants, *c* stands for *s* and for *k* and for *sh* as in *special*; *s* stands sometimes for a voiceless dental spirant, and sometimes for a voiced one, and also for *sh* as in *passion*. This class of equivocal symbols is too numerous to be exhausted here. In the second place English spelling suffers from a large number of superfluous letters which serve only to baffle the young learner and stand for no purpose at all, as spelling, the symbol of spoken sounds. The *w* in *write*, and the *k* in *knight*, *know* are frequent examples. We have a capricious doubling of consonants in the language, though the double consonantal sound has long ago disappeared from the language.

As to the arguments brought forward against reform we may remember that there is really no body of opinion deliberately opposed to the movement. Men have had only to *learn*, to comprehend the need for a simpli-

fied system of spelling. The opposition to reform may be reduced to a threefold character, the "etymological," the "sentimental" and the sense of the "practicable." Foremost should be considered the plea that the present spelling is instructive of the etymology of the words and that this precious quality would be removed if we simplified our spelling. In the first place it is not accurate to say that the spelling of any word can be instructive of its etymology. To every man that looks at the spelling of the word *honour*, it cannot become evident that it comes from a French word *honōur*, though to the professed student of philology the *ou* suggests the Norman representation of the *ū* sound and the French word *honōur* is suggested as the most probable base. But the suggestiveness of a word like *honour* is not the common feature of English spelling. There are many words in English which can yield no suggestion regarding their origin. There are again several other words which would be unaltered in their form even after the adoption of a simplified spelling. But more than all else, there are many words whose spelling is positively misleading as to their origin. A few examples may be cited here:

aisle: the letter *s* has crept by confusion with *isle* < Lat. *insula*. *aisle* is really from Latin *ala*.

delight: The Middle English form was only *delit*. The "*gh*" came through an unwarranted analogy of *light*.

sovereign: In Chaucer we have *souerain*, and *sovrain* in Milton. The "*g*" was by a mistake with *reign* which comes from Lat. *regnare*, whereas *sovereign* is derived from *superanus*.

victuals: which is from Old French *vitaille*.

has been formed on the Latin model *victualia*.

rhyme: coming from Old French *rime* and long spelt so in English, has been confounded with Latin *rhythmus* and so has acquired the modern spelling.

A word like *rhyme* often rouses the pedanticism of a teacher. The spelling *rime* is even now prevalent in America, and there is no reason why it should not be tolerated among others.

We have again numbers of words whose spelling at the present day serves only to create etymological confusion. While the word *receipt* from *recipio* retains the "*p*," the word *deceit* from *desipio* does not retain it. While the "*l*" in the word *would* shows the earlier form *wolde*, the word *could* built on analogy defaces its connection with the word *can*.

Against the "philological" argument, we have to remember that philology ought really to have no importance with spelling. Spelling can indeed be suggestive of etymology to some extent, only to those who already know of it. But the thousands of men, women and children who do not know, and who do not need to know about philology, and yet use language, have a claim to be considered with regard to their difficulties in the learning and mastering of the eccentricities of spelling. Spelling is but the symbol of spoken sounds and its perfection should consist just in its being a faithful and unerring expression of the sounds of the language.

The sentimental attitude of some who see an inherent charm in the present spelling and who refuse to see it altered on that ground, need not be met seriously. The force of habit is productive of prejudices which

deserve to be as lightly thrown away as they are acquired.

As to the practicability of the reform, America has long ago taken the lead by its adoption of simplified spelling in words like *program*, *center*, *traveling*. The number of such words is said to be about two or three hundred. President Roosevelt had intended to reform the entire spelling and though he did not succeed to that extent, he showed the way to further reform. The reformed spelling suggested by the English Simplified Spelling Society commends itself to us by the ease with which we can master it. The line of suggested reform is not of an extreme character, as the basis instead of being entirely scientific is in great part determined by common sense. We are enabled to arrive easily at a simplified form of spelling which is also phonetic, because the present spelling, though irregular and irrational in many ways is still to a great extent phonetic. Both among the vowels and the consonants we recognise certain long-standing values in speech-sounds which are constant. The work of simplification will consist in reducing our spelling as far as possible to these easily-understood bases of phonetic spelling. Where these are inadequate, new symbols or merely new conventions have to be invented with discretion. What the reformers desire and look to is only a very gradual adoption of the reform. They hope to achieve it by a continuous dissemination of literature on the subject amongst the English-speaking peoples in the world. They await the day when the entire English-speaking world will raise its united cry for reform and so achieve it easily.

II

Spelling reform is primarily an educational problem. It is intended to lighten the bur-

den of the school-boy and the teacher. The difficulties of little children in spelling are a matter of experience with every teacher. Even at a late stage spelling is a bug-bear to the average student. As a teacher of English composition to college classes, I must own to a feeling of annoyance that, before I can direct the attention of the students to the niceties of English vocabulary and usage in literary expression, I have a preliminary task of correcting mis-spelt words costing me more time than I would willingly allot to such work, in view of the higher knowledge that is expected to be learnt in the college classes.

It has been calculated that spelling costs a third of the average child's school-time. In 1900 the money spent on teachers in America amounted to 136,500,000 dollars. Half the difficulty in learning to spell consists in the learning of the superficial letters that exist in the language. Thus it has been deduced that 22,750,000 dollars represent an absolute waste due to the oddity of modern English spelling.

Apart from the waste of energy, the present irrational character of spelling has to be censured from the standpoint of training the young mind in scientific methods of thinking. The first seeds of superstition are sown in the child's mind when the capricious and inconsistent character of the present spelling is laboured to be impressed upon it.

The economy in education which can be hoped for by adopting a simplified system of spelling has again a national value. At no period in the world's history have we been so painfully awakened to the value of national efficiency as in the present war which consists to a good extent in the proper economising of national energy and expenditure

in its various departments of life. The value of printed products in America was estimated to be 353,619,000 dollars in 1900. The average superfluous letters in the language is said to be about five per cent. We thus arrive at a figure of 17,680,000 dollars as denoting the waste in building machinery, ink, and paper. The national economy has military aspect in the saving achieved in a soldier's education.

III

It will probably be supposed that the reform of English spelling is a problem which primarily concerns the English people. But I may be allowed to point out that in some ways the subject affects Indians even more than the Englishmen themselves. The simplification of English spelling so as to make it rest on a phonetic basis will be a benefit more to the foreign learner than to the Englishman himself. The native Englishman moulds his pronunciation not according to the written script but as he has heard it spoken in his home and around him in life. We are aware of the great dialectal modifications of the sounds of literary English in the different parts of England. But we in India derive our knowledge of English more from the written script and our pronunciation of English suffers the laxity of neither slang nor dialect. And thus is the greater importance to us of a rationalised system of spelling.

A great part of the difficulty experienced in the teaching of English in this country may be traced ultimately to the defects of English spelling. Indians are habituated to a perfectly phonetic spelling in their own vernaculars and their difficulty in English pronunciation is a difficulty of English spelling. It is generally said that Indians have the advantage or

disadvantage of always using only literary English in what they write and speak, and with the reform of English spelling, Indians might hope to have the distinction of always speaking in the standard pronunciation of English.

A certain disagreeable feeling consequent on the irregularities of spelling deserves to be noticed in this country. If we place the acquisition of correct pronunciation in English on a level with possessing polished manners in society, we may reflect on how often even men of the greatest intellectual powers render themselves vulgar in this province of English pronunciation. The story is told of an eminent Indian who on a repeatedly shocked his audience by referring to the "volunteer corps" (korps), when he ought to have swallowed into silence the last two consonantal sounds, if he were a worthy custodian of the King's English. Most of us consciously or unconsciously turn prigs in this matter and one is often excited to a feeling of contempt when men talk of *marriage*, making it a trisyllabic word or of *swords* without consigning the *w* to oblivion.

The reform of spelling will put an end to the superstition in children caused by the present system, to the pedantism of pedagogues, and to priggishness in men in general.

The current of spelling reform may be utilised again to reconstruct the languages of some of our vernaculars. They have failed to excite a living interest chiefly because the written language differs largely from the spoken tongue. It is the problem of recognising in spelling the omission of sounds which once existed obviously in the spoken language but which now are slurred and have disappeared. The written language should always be modelled on the spoken language of the highest classes in society.

THE KINEMATOGRAPH AS AN AID TO EDUCATION.

THE last quarter of the 19th century and the early years of the 20th have seen a veritable revolution in educational methods. We have escaped, in the words of that eminent Headmaster of Oundle School, from the domination of spoken and written word. Fifty years ago the ideals were to sift out the material, to eliminate the unworthy, and to detect and develop the noble souls who alone could understand the traditions of the elders. Neither Mathematics nor Modern language nor History found place in the school curriculum. Yet these days saw great educators amongst whom stand out the names of Dr. Arnold and Thring. Arnold changed the relationship between master and boy, and turned the attention to modern history and thought; whilst Thring after 30 years of experience in educational work, was the apostle of the eternal relatives and the prophet of the right of the middle and lower forms and of the average boy to a share in the best a school can afford. But the men of that age were as a rule men of one method, one instrument almost one panacea for all boys. We live, we believe, in happier times; we have come to recognise that the overmastering necessity in education is that no pupil should pass through school without discovering that he has possibilities of effectiveness in some direction. It matters little what the direction may be. The way to successful achievement is as rough and arduous as ever, but the road is no longer white with the skeletons of those who have perished through learning falsely that there is no salvation except by one narrow path which it was not in them to tread. The educational work of this part of our century is to open up more routes to the one goal and

for this purpose to bring into the service of education in schools as much as possible of the results of the gigantic development which has taken place within the last 50 years and so to bring modern inventions and discovery into the service of the schools.

One of such modern and most recent of the instruments now happily at our disposal in the service of schools is the Kinematograph which we have proposed to study. Specialists are of opinion that it is not only a means of distributing information but a potent agent of increasing the power of visualising. Every one finds limitations to his powers of conception. There is, it seems, a limiting point to which each one can go. This is very noticeable in the study of a subject like mathematics. Men go on each to his sticking point. There is a limiting point at which mental assimilation ceases. It is probably due in a large degree to the lack of power of visualisation. The man of genius can prove the difficulties of the unknown by his great power of visualisation and it is fair to claim that any method which aids in visualising is of the essence of education. If this is true for Secondary school children it is doubly so for children in Elementary schools where the powers of visualisation and imagination are probably not so fully developed. The Kinematograph may be claimed as a powerful aid to mental vision both as regards scope and accuracy. It is only with this object that coloured photographs, pictures and diagrams are added, to and insisted on, in text-books which are amply illustrated.

VALUE OF PHOTOGRAPHS.

There is much to be learnt from ordinary photographs and slides of great paintings, and the photograph has a curious power, for the

eye of the camera is penetrating and steady. The still photographs present one aspect of the object under the study; we can return to them again and again to take each detail in turn. It is for such reasons that Ruskin has said that a good reproduction is better than the picture or statue itself. With objects of nature it is common knowledge that the photographic plate often reveals more than the eye, even aided with the telescope can see. But the ordinary photograph has its own limitation; what it does not do is this—it does not give the effect of continuously changing the point of view as in a journey up a river; it does not show life nor does it give the effect of change and growth. For this we may compare still pictures of scenery with the Kinematograph view taken from a steamer in, say, an estuary, dock, or passing up a river.

BIOLOGY.

Again, let us consider the growth of a plant. In the mind of a child it may be doubted whether for some time the idea of plant growth has any meaning at all, or if so, the conception belongs to the same mental region as a fairyland, talking bears and pumpkin coaches—things to be believed and rejoiced in, but with no association with real life. Generally growth goes on so slowly as to escape notice. The Kinematograph will condense the growth of weeks into a few minutes and the plant as a living growing organism becomes a real conception. We may consider this further. There can be no way of studying biology, more thorough or more productive of enthusiasm than that of following out life histories critically and in detail. Let each boy of a class describe in writing with the aid of his accurate diagrams, each step in the life-

history of a plant. The seed gives the seedling, the seedling slowly but surely evolves into the mature plant, gradually producing root and shoot. The flowers appear and in course of time, the seeds from them. A few well-known typical plants will provide all the necessary materials. If the Kinematograph also be brought into use at each stage, photographs can be taken daily of the same plant and the class will possess an unfailing and complete review of all the phases in the plant's life and further the series of static pictures which will thus be obtained, will, when passed as a film through the lantern, reveal the process of actual growth. The one important thing in the life-history of the plant is missing from the static pictures, *i.e.*, the growth from one state to another. The separate stages have been noted but the change from one to another can only be shown by the Kinematograph; for this reason the instrument will especially be valued in the study of Biology and Natural History. Next let us consider its special relation to the school subjects.

GEOGRAPHY.

To a teacher about to take a class of boys in the geography of, say, the whole of Europe, in one year, the possibility of giving an adequate picturesque introduction to it, presents big difficulties. Much may be done by means of relief models and maps. Those make an excellent background and foundation for geographical knowledge; but there is need for something more interesting than cardboard or clay contrast of heights, than painted colours of school maps, than pictures in primers, however good, and than the description of the teacher however eloquent. "The help which the Kinematograph can give

particularly in the teaching of geography can hardly be overrated," says Mr. Graves, quoting the eminent German Psychologist, Dr. Schuster. "It is the Kinematograph which, if rightly used, will give the missing element in geography teaching and as the subject matter, unlike that dealt with in other school subjects, is remote from actual experience, it seems to offer a way out of the difficulty this introduces."

The Kinematograph can be best used in three ways, foremost of which is the preparation and exhibition of geographical films which supply the basal geographical material and the Kinematograph should be in the geography class room and should be used like any other piece of apparatus in the ordinary teaching. There should be no more suggestion of show or entertainment in its use than there is in the use of a balance, or a Bunsen burner. The Kinematograph has films showing physical features, geographical formation, flora and fauna, the dwelling industries, the amusements, public ceremonies and even the religion of the inhabitants of more distant countries. The moving picture will give correct visualisation and a perception of things as they are.

HISTORY.

We are only at the beginning of the use of Kinematograph in history. Two main applications are possible. The instrument might be used (1) for instruction in an ordinary course of general history or (2) to give an understanding of the state as it exists and works to day, *i.e.*, to aid that teaching of civics which is commonly looked upon as a part of the history teacher's work. In relation to the former purpose there are films of two kinds those picturing (1) actual conditions, and (2) situations artificially produced,

Systematic selections can be made from the films dealing with present conditions and with what has subsisted from the past on the localities of historic interest. It would serve to enforce and to give life and value to the history which lies in the background. In the sphere of ancient history there are, for instance, many films dealing with Egypt, Athens, Rome and Constantinople. The ruins of Pompei are another good example. If we pass to latter times and think of mediæval and modern history there are series showing the relics of Muhammadan rule. The interesting films dealing with the modern Russo-Japanese war and Japan may also form a concluding illustration. India gives views from Calcutta, Bombay, Surat, Delhi, the latter including distinct evidence of incidents from the Mutiny. The Imperial Durbar with its great assemblage of Ruling Chiefs and Governors and illustrious sons of this land could be turned to important account. But these films, are, it may be objected, geographical and not historical. The answer is that the concrete materials for historical instruction are undoubtedly to a certain extent the same as those for geography teaching.

NATURAL SCIENCE.

The method of kinematography is of value to science in two directions. It assists in the advancement of scientific knowledge by enabling movements of natural and other objects to be analysed and its use may do much to inspire interest in scientific work both in schools and among the general public. All the realms of science can be invaded by this instrument. For some years the only knowledge of science obtained by most of the pupils in our secondary and other schools has been that of fundamental physical mea-

surements with a little work in heat and chemistry. Attention has now been concentrated upon the quantitative side of science with the view of affording training in scientific method. The Kinematograph can never take the place in education which personal observation and accurate measurement must occupy in the development of the mind but it can and should be used to humanise a study which under the present system does little to create interest in broad results and consequence of science work. No one proposes to substitute the passive contemplation of moving pictures for the individual and practical work required of every student of science. Whether it is physical or chemical or nature study or geography, the pupil must learn by his own work the value of careful observation, accurate experiment and cautious calculations but he ought not to have his out-look limited by the knowledge he has so acquired. Moving pictures may usefully summarise for him the growth of a plant as already described in the early part of this paper. There are films already in the field showing the preparation of hydrogen, oxygen and carbonic acid gas. Experiments with liquid air can also be shown together with the simpler phenomena of magnetism and electricity. Where, however, the Kinematograph will come in as a powerful aid in science study is that by adjusting the time factor between the camera and the lantern the experiments can be passed before the eye at a slower or quicker rate. Instructive films are being prepared from the researches of scientific investigators; they can enable him to realise the great value to humanity of work done on the connection between mosquitoes and malaria and yellow fever or the setsefly and sleeping sickness; they can show him the great industrial works

which depend upon scientific knowledge for their existence and give him realistic views of places and peoples of which he can only obtain a vague idea from books or ordinary pictures. The spinning of a top, for instance, the rolling, skidding, toppling or rotating of the top, baffle the imagination, so that it would be a real kindness if the whole motion could be slowed down; and this the Kinematograph can do. In natural history and biology wide use has been made of Kinematograph already. The films are themselves a zoological garden, and more are coming into use daily. The Kinematograph is a veritable time-machine so far as the past is concerned. It can show the life of an insect or the life of a man in a period which is but a fraction of the true duration and the period of projection may be the same in each case. If the insect be imagined to be endowed with a mind, its life though but a day, will seem to it as long as the three score years and ten of man, for, the ultimate conception of life is in terms of duration of life. A 1000 years may be but a day to the time machine. Though the developments of Kinematograph have been marvellous and extensive in recent years much more may be anticipated for the future. For educational purposes the instrument is destined to be an aid of first importance and before long, it will be regarded as an indispensable part of equipment of every up-to-date teaching institution.

The Germans were the first to utilise its help, the Japanese next, and the English the last but not the least.

PEDAGOGICAL PRECAUTIONS

(a) Dr. Lyttleton, Prof. Lyde, Dr. Hayward, Mr. Mackinder and other important educationists have inveighed against the primrose

path of the Kinematograph. "The first object of education was to teach the child to learn for itself." The reply to this is that the moving picture should never be used until the child's mind has been previously prepared by the teacher for the particular series. The Kinematograph as a medium for teaching is on the same order as the chalk and the blackboard. It is an instrument to aid the teacher and the child. It is an instrument for the better functions of the educative process.

(b) The best method of satisfying these conditions is to treat Kinematograph as a blackboard. Each school hall or library should be fitted with such an instrument. Only thus can we be sure that this extraordinarily interesting and powerful aid to teaching can be used at the right moment, that is, at any particular stage in the development of any syllabus or any subject where the moving pictures are the only satisfactory form of explanation.

1. One of the criticisms levelled against this instrument is indeed a serious one and would, if true, be a sufficient reason for its non-use. The criticism is that the Kinematograph *stunts the imagination*. If it means that so much will be shown that there would be nothing left unseen to be imagined, there is some misapprehension either as to the amount of geographical material available or of the length of time that may be given.

2. Another criticism is that Kinematograph is bad for eyes; this again is most serious and it must be admitted that there is some foundation for the charge. This remark, no doubt applies to all forms of Kinematograph display, educational and recreative, but it may be pointed out that humanity has had to put up with a good many things that were bad before the perfecting of a new invention because of

the advantage which the invention gave us. Even within the last 6 months as the result of scientific investigation a small improvement has been made to aid in reducing the "flicker."

3. Another serious difficulty is the question of cost—the initial cost of the apparatus and its accessories and the running cost of films. Small machines are now being made. The more the demand for such machines within compass the more the supply. Poutcher and Sons of Farringdon Avenue produce two forms of small machines costing with accessories less than £15, and there are only about 80 films of 300 feet each and 14 or 15 of these are even partly geographical. The difficulty of time can be easily got over; one film of 50 feet taking a minute to run through is not only cheaper but is of more value for teaching than hours of confusing travel films and saves time in all sorts of unexpected ways. There are a number of films prepared at a cost of 4d. a foot or 4½ per foot on a non-inflammable base. Messrs Pathe and Fores have an enormous stock of valuable films many on a non-inflammable base, both for sale or for hire.

Before, therefore, the Kinematograph can be incorporated amongst our teaching apparatus certain safeguards will have to be adopted; exciting scenes will have to be avoided; the films will have to be prepared by educational experts; they must not be passed too quickly before the children's eyes and therefore only a limited number of them should be employed for a single lesson. Lessons illustrated by the Kinematograph should not be given to any class more than once a week and in lessons of Nature Study and Science the children's own powers of observation should not be interfered with by presentations of growth and change in vegetable and animal life which have not, so far as possible, been

followed by them. On the other hand, such presentation of growth and change may well be used for the purpose of summarising a series of observation where observation is impossible. (To popularise the instrument Messrs. Pathe and Fores have arranged for a series of weekly educational matinees to take place at the principal picture theatres of London. By arrangements with Messrs. Venkiah & Brothers a similar series can be had for us). Every school should have its own Kinematograph machine and the equipment is not complete unless a camera is added for the manufacture of home-made films. Reproductions of the more vivid scientific experiments of gymnastics, school foot-ball, and rowing of the operations of cadet corps, of the school aviary and aquarium, of the movement of small living organisms, all have educational value. They stimulate thought, and are an aid to discussion, to explanation and therefore to perception.

V. R. SANTANAM.

P.S.—Since writing this article, I learn that the Coronation Bioscope Company of Vizianagaram are the agents of Messrs. Pathe and Freres, for this Presidency.

We have to record with deep regret the demise of the Rev. James Cooling, B.A., of the Wesleyan Mission, an eminent and longstanding educationist of the Presidency and Fellow of the University of Madras.

THE SLOYD SYSTEM OF MANUAL TRAINING.

UNMERITED criticisms on the system of Sloyd and its methods have of late begun to appear in the columns of a leading journal of Madras. I have a few of them below for treatment in this article. They are:—

1. That Sloyd and Manual Training should not be separated but treated as one subject;
2. That Sloyd is not a system but a set of stereotyped models;
3. That Sloyd does not allow boys freedom to select and to design some of the models themselves;
4. That Manual Training schemes allow far more self-reliance and originality than the Sloyd scheme; and so on.

1. Sloyd and Manual Training though one in origin are different in spirit. It is true the subject is one, but the various methods employed and the schemes adopted by promoters of different systems of Manual Training—some aiming at the development of skill only,* some at the development of faculties mainly, others steering a middle course leaning more to one side or the other, each vying in his own way to establish the superiority of his system over others—make it necessary to coin new names, or add qualifying words to the general name, each suggestive of the peculiarities of the system for which it stands. Such names as Educational Manual Training, Psycho-mental Training, Manu-mental Training, Hand and Eye Training, Manual Arts, Mechanic Arts, etc., are attempts in the direction. The word Sloyd stands for one of these complex and cumbersome names and is fully expressive of the

* This is Manual Training proper.

system which it represents. A fuller explanation of this is found on page 470, *Educational Review*, 1915, July number.

No work which has not academical associations and appliances will ever interest school children. The name Sloyd is made to suggest such associations and the work is made interesting to children. Manual Training builds up its work mostly on workshop principles and the place of instruction itself is called a workshop as is the case with the one to be soon equipped in connection with the Teachers' Training College, Saidapet. A workshop generally carries with it ideas of trade, labour-saving devices, automata, and things of the kind, conditions due to the necessity of economy of time, space and labour, —factors which do not go for education. It is true that a manual training workshop has all the attributes of a school-room, but these in their new and altered form do not easily appeal to most people; the processes of some industry are prominently set before them and the name workshop confirms the notion. The only remedy is to give it a name suitable to its aims and purposes. "Sloyd" does it best.

2. Then as regards the system. Sloyd does not mean a course of Swedish models. I quite remember the very first impressions produced in me by my teacher, Herr Gustaf Larsson*, regarding the name Sloyd. He said that Sloyd did not mean any course of models, nor a series of tool exercises, but it stood for a bundle of principles. By "Sloyd" I always mean these principles. I do not know if the name ever denoted any particular

* A pupil and assistant of Herr Otto Solomon. He introduced Sloyd into the United States of America and is now the Principal of the Sloyd Training Institute, Boston. In 1907 the Mysore Government invited him for six months to train twenty select teachers of that State.

set of models unless it be when different sets were placed side by side for the sake of comparison. Even at Naas, it is said, that the series often changed, the older models being replaced by new ones.* The Sloyd models of America are known to be different from those of Sweden. While under training, I saw both these sets with others exhibited in the Sheshadri Iyer Memorial Hall, Bangalore, where also a separate course of models was hung on the wall for the teachers then under training. When the reason for the change was asked, he (the teacher) emphatically said that models must change not only with each country but also with each district, and with each community if possible. I follow these principles to the letter and in the course at work in my school, there is not a single Sloyd wood model which is not useful in the very home of the boy who makes it. Here are their names: Half-Kole stick (a local measure), Coat Rack, Key Rack, a Vegetable Board (elliptical), Set Squares, Ruler, Pen-holder, Try Square, Photo Frame, Inkstand with Pen Rack, Wall Bracket or Clock Stand, Nail and Screw Box, Book Rest, Diploma Frame, &c.

3. It is true that freedom of selection and designing have special advantages of their own if allowed with discretion. It is harmful to children to resort to these in the early part of the training as it will then result only in random and thoughtless work and will end after all in disappointment. The model selected by an inexperienced boy may not be of the required standard, may be either too easy or too difficult, either of which is educationally bad. So a carefully graded course

is a necessity. It saves the boy so much of worry and annoyance, and time to boot. Every model affords opportunities for self-reliance, originality and a train of other virtues; provided the teacher knows his part and does it well. The teacher is the greatest factor in a training of the kind. The best time for the free selection of models is *after the completion of the prescribed course* and then too with the approval of the teacher who may reject some and modify others, omitting such of the exercises as are not adequate to the worker's strength and capability and adding others that are suitable to him. Even in a graded course each model affords ample opportunities for the exercise of originality and self-reliance in the selection of materials and exercises, in the change of shape, size and measurements of parts, and in adopting means to ends. The same model may be made easy or difficult by a change in method or material. For instance, a simple model like the pen-holder designed to be made in white cedar to $\frac{1}{4}$ " thickness, tapering to $\frac{1}{8}$ ", does not require so much of patience and skill of manipulation as the one to be made in rosewood, changing the principal exercise from planing to whittling. Such models as the Ink-stand, Book-rest, Wall Bracket, etc., involve problems whose solutions demand the maximum effort and intelligence of the individual worker. In the last session of this school some of these models were made in such and so many varieties of form and intricacies of design that evoked surprise even of teachers. The Book-rest and the Wall Bracket were the most interesting of models; the first, for its varieties of outline cuts and designs in in-laid work; and the second, for its edge curves and for its fret-

work of exquisite original designs, holding in the middle the initial letter or letters of the worker. The class models were of simple pattern, only showing their general form and structure. At first the boys seemed satisfied with a true copy of them. This was seen in their working drawings. Then suggestions were given as to how they could be made more attractive and useful. The originality of each boy began to show itself to the full. Some of the designs were as artistic as they were intricate, and made us all wonder how such forms could have come out of their little brains. I shall be glad to supply sketches of some of these if there be facilities to print them. Thus it is clear that it is not the model but the intelligent guidance in the working of it that tends to develop in children powers of originality, self-reliance and constructive ability.

4. The superiority of the Manual Training schemes over the Sloyd scheme perhaps consists in this: Manual Training is greatly partial to Art and Industry and allows them too much of license. Sloyd is not inimical to them; they are given their due share in the training of children, but are kept within limits.

Sloyd is not drilling in a course of wood-work only. The Cochin Sloyd Curriculum, as published in the Educational Code of the State, is nearly as broad as that prescribed for the London County Schools and comprises most of the schemes which Mr. George Ricks has drawn up for them. It consists of the Drawing of Borders and Designs, Pencil Shading, Paper-folding, Parquetry, Crayon Work, Cardboard Modelling, and Clay Modelling. These are schemes preliminary to woodwork and make up more than half the entire course of Cochin Sloyd.

A. TIRUMALACHAR.

THE TANJORE DISTRICT TEACHERS' GUILD.

RESOLUTIONS

PASSED AT TIRUVALUR ON NOVEMBER 28, 1915.

At a meeting of the Tanjore District Teachers' Guild held at the Board High School, Tiruvalur, on Saturday, the 28th November, the accompanying report of the Sub-Committee (appointed to devise means of lightening the S. S. L. C. Course of Studies) having been read and discussed, the following resolutions were passed:—

I. That the *History of India* (instead of being entirely dropped as suggested by the Sub-Committee) be brought under 'C' group, as one of the optional subjects.

II. That *Elementary Science and Geography* be dropped in the VI Form, and be taught up to and in the V Form. That these subjects be taught in the vernacular.

III. That the quantity in *English* being the same, the quality of the text-books in prose and poetry be so modified as to suit Indian conditions and be comprehended by Indian pupils.

IV. That some good vernacular text-books in modern spoken language be prescribed for "non-detailed" study to promote the study of *Vernacular Translation and Composition*.

V & VI. That the syllabus in *Elementary Mathematics* being too vague and indefinite, should be well defined. That the syllabus in *Algebra and Geometry* is too high and should be simplified.

VII. That *Chemistry* should be coupled with *Physics*, and that the syllabus in *Physics* be considerably reduced in consequence to suit the standard of the boys.

VIII. That no special portion be prescribed in the *History of England*, and that the outlines of the whole History of England beginning from the Tudor period be prescribed, and the syllabus of the same be accordingly simplified, a few elementary text-books being recommended

* A course of models may remain unaltered for years on account of its careful gradation.

to serve as a guide for examiners as well as teachers.

IX. That it is quite undesirable to re-introduce the Matriculation Examination.

X. That a Board of Moderators be appointed consisting of persons possessed of direct and immediate experience of teaching in the High Schools.

XI. That for purposes of determining the eligibility of candidates for a University course, the following be taken as the standard or the minimum:—

Forty per cent. for the Presidency average (which-ever is lower) in English, and thirty-five per cent. or the Presidency average (whichever is lower) in such of the 'C' group subjects as are selected for College study, provided that a candidate who fails in a subject or two, but who secures fifty per cent. of marks in English and forty per cent. of the total number of marks shall be declared eligible to enter on a University course.

XII. That oral examinations being found unsuitable for marking purposes, all marks be based on written examinations alone, that such examinations be not made oftener than twice in the Long term, and once in the Short term.

XIII. That it is highly undesirable and antagonistic to the very spirit of the S. S. L. C. Scheme to compel the attendance of the 'Supplementary students' in all hours and classes, when and where those subjects are taught, in which it is superfluous for them to appear for the public examination.

Report of the Sub-Committee appointed to consider how the S. S. L. C. Course may be lightened.

INTRODUCTION.

Our object in endeavouring to lighten the S. S. L. C. course has been to afford enough of time and leisure to the growing pupils. The over-crowding of the subjects of school study combined with the over-wide and over-high syllabuses allows hardly any breathing time to students—much

less any time for assimilation of knowledge, calm reflection and thought. Filled as our scholars may be with knowledge and information, they are generally found to be woefully deficient in spontaneity, resource, and self-reliance, mainly owing to the great multiplicity of subjects requiring to be rapidly and hurriedly rushed through. What is much more alarming, the course and conduct of our school studies have seriously impaired the health and physical capacity of our boys, who bear a want of cheerfulness in their pallid faces prematurely weighted with cares and worries of school lessons and examinations.

CURRICULUM AND SYLLABUSES.

It is proposed to drop all the subjects comprising the 'B' group in the last year of the School-Final Course—which indeed must very appreciably relieve the over-pressure of the students.

It is not without a sigh and some qualms that the Committee have resolved to delete the History of India in the VI Form. It is commonly begun in the IV class, if not lower still, and is, by successive periodic stages, and concentrically, brought up to the highest form. The entire course is thus twice traversed, once in the Vernacular, and next in English. No doubt in the higher forms there is some additional matter presented; but we believe it is not so very considerable as to necessitate a whole year's course in the VI Form. Besides, political, social, and economical aspects which do matter really, are commonly eschewed as much too high to be understood by the boys; and there is not therefore very much more than a chronological history to be gone through. Sentiment apart, it may not materially detract from the usefulness of the school course to drop the History of India in the VI Form. It may only entail a slight recasting of the school syllabus.

Geography is another subject which is likewise studied from at least the IV class. It seems an inexhaustible field; the more you teach,

the more you have to teach still. It has lately developed into enormous proportions, and has drawn freely from all imaginable sciences. It is not merely an information subject exercising mere memory; it strains one's thought and attention harder than even Science or Mathematics. It again involves a lot of mechanical labour in the way of drawing maps, diagrams, plans, etc.

Elementary Science too, highly useful and disciplinary as it undoubtedly is, has to be set aside in view of the already heavy pressure of work which A and C groups of study entail.

It is here suggested that these B group subjects may be taught up to and in the V Form, and that Geography which more and more advances its kinship to Science be coupled with Science itself; History embracing what portion of Geography may serve to guide and illustrate the study of it.

The Committee here take occasion to suggest that the B group subjects be taught in the vernacular instead of in English as is scrupulously done now.

In thus waiving these B group subjects in the VI Form, the Committee desire it to be distinctly understood that they by no means under-rate the value of them. Let not the love we bear to knowledge outrun our legitimate concern and solicitude for the young years of our students. It is believed that greater evil than good has been done by specialists and faddists, who, in their well-meaning zeal and enthusiasm, have asserted the pre-eminence of their subjects, each his own. If our present system of education is charged with being top-sided and lacking in the proper co-ordination of all subjects of study, all thanks to these enthusiasts, whose passion has made them believe that all knowledge is almost co-extensive and conterminous with the bounds of their own pet study, and has made them oblivious of several other subjects of study of equal educative value.

A GROUP: ENGLISH.

As to the A group subjects, English has to be let alone in the present ordering of things. Not that we have not a secret misgiving that we have more of it than can properly be done. But it must be remembered that even the poorest High School boy is a would-be College student, and any slackening of attention to English might prove a handicap to the student in his College course. It was accordingly thought advisable not to tamper with the quantity of English prescribed for the course. But certainly it is clear that all is not well with the quality of the selections. Even admitting that the best selection cannot be unimpeachable, our selections for the last several years have been deplorably unsatisfactory. A few are too easy, comprising of pieces commonly done in the III and IV Forms: others, too difficult and foreign, so that even teachers could best be content just with a vague and mute appreciation of their excellences, feeling more than they could say. They are certainly not selections adapted to Indian schools. 'Tom Brown's School Days' is a good case in point. Highly delightful reading as it may be to the general reader, it is a most unhappy text-book for intensive study in the hands of the Indian teacher. Of poetry there is always too little, and even here we miss what we are wont to regard as classic pieces.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS.

Elementary Mathematics, it is generally believed, is all right so far as the syllabus goes; only it is so yielding and plastic as to give warrant to many a posing question in the examination. The language of the questions too is not unfrequently staggering, at all events not direct, straightforward and suggestive. The fault here lies mostly in the interpretation of the syllabus; the syllabus itself, it is believed, is innocent.

• VERNACULAR: A GROUP.

Regarding Vernacular Translation and Composition, there is not much to suggest except

that good text-books in modern Tamil be prescribed for general or extensive study.

C GROUP: PHYSICS.

The syllabus in Physics is really too ambitious, covering too wide a ground and shooting over-high. The Committee very strongly suggest that Chemistry be coupled with Physics. The syllabus in either must undergo considerable reduction before it can come down to the required standard. The Intermediate Course presumes a certain level of knowledge in both Physics and Chemistry in the S. S. L. C. holders, who, as the course is at present arranged, know one of them, and know next to nothing in the other. The association of Physics and Chemistry is a very urgent measure; and must be immediately effected. This would of course necessitate a lightening of the syllabuses to a considerable degree.

ALGEBRA AND GEOMETRY.

Algebra and Geometry like Physics aims too high and taxes the faculties of the boys more than it may be good to them. It should likewise be lightened.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

The History of England, as it is taught and examined, is stupendous. Most of the political, social, and economical questions which the boys are made to study are far above their heads. The text-books commonly prescribed by the school are generally those prescribed for college study, and these again are largely supplemented by notes, which constitute themselves a pretty big pile. Print and manuscript are both assiduously got by heart and discharged in the Examination Hall. Of a truth, candidates know hardly anything of what they say and write, which are to them mere sounds signifying nothing.

The Committee strongly disapprove the principle of prescribing any special portion in the History of England, for in fact the examiner makes no difference in his questions between

the general and special portions. They recommend instead the study of the whole history in broad outlines, beginning from the Tudor Period. The syllabus should accordingly be altered as to comprise only the broad outlines and the leading events; and, as a precaution against the general vagueness of the syllabus which may be construed to the detriment of pupils, the Committee propose that some two or three elementary text-books be recommended, beyond which the questions may not be asked.

EXAMINATIONS.

The Committee emphatically protest against the proposal of resuscitating the Matriculation examination, and making the history of old horrors repeat itself. They are of opinion that the present system with certain alterations would perfectly satisfy the needs. It is at present a deplorable circumstance that the examiners appointed to draw up the S. S. L. C. question papers happen to be mostly persons who are not in direct touch with the minds of Indian youths in the High Schools. The Committee therefore propose that a Board of Moderators be appointed composed mostly of men who are possessed of direct and immediate experience of teaching in the High Schools.

No paper should on any account exceed two hours, and it should be so drawn up that a boy of average ability may do it within the stated time.

In determining the qualifications of boys eligible for College study, the Committee unhesitatingly condemn the principle of fixed minimum. They propose that the Presidency average be taken as the standard and minimum of qualification in English, and such of the C group subjects as the candidate elects to pursue for College study. The Committee further desire that it should be provided that a candidate, who fails in a subject or two but who secures a certain high percentage of marks shall be declared eligible to enter on a College course.

SCHOOL-MARKS.

As to the school marks, the Committee believe that oral examinations are unsuitable for purposes of marking, as unduly interfering with the progress of teaching, and as after all not yielding reliable results. Very frequent examinations are an evil, and considerably unsettle the smooth and easy course of school life. The Committee therefore recommend that all marks be based on written tests and that no more than two such tests be held in the Long term, and no more than one in the Short term. To do more is but vexation to the teacher and the taught, and tells upon the efficiency of teaching.

SUPPLEMENTARY CANDIDATES.

The Committee strongly disapprove of the system of compelling the Supplementary Students to attend all classes in all subjects, including even those subjects in which they have been pronounced qualified for College admission. This is directly antagonistic to the very spirit of the School-Final Scheme, which aims at affording facilities to students who wish to make a special and intensive study of the subjects which they elect or in which they may be behind.

SOCIETIES AND GAMES.

As stated at the outset, the main object of lightening the School-Final Course is to afford time and leisure to students. It would, therefore, be defeating the very object of the proposals, if the hours liberated from the B group subjects be allotted to the A and C group subjects of study. The Committee are of opinion that the school studies should not wholly consume the students' energies, but there should always remain some reserves of strength and energy to be devoted, as the students may please, to games or to some hobbies of their own. In this connection the Committee would suggest that School Societies properly conducted under the guidance and supervision of teachers may well be com-

mended to the care of the students. Societies properly run are no mere playthings, but, they combine pleasure with instruction. They are places of education in a far truer sense than school rooms, for there, thrown almost to themselves, they cultivate powers of observation and expression, and co-operation, which decades of school education officially done in the classroom cannot stimulate. The Committee therefore suggest that a good part of the pupils' time at school be devoted to School Societies, organised and conducted on right lines.

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THE IMAGINATION IN CHILDHOOD

BY DR. MARIA MONTESSORI.

The belief is very common that the little child is characterized by a most vivid imagination, and that because of this, a particular education should be brought to bear upon him in order to cultivate such a special gift of nature. His mentality differs from ours; he goes beyond our vigorous and restricted limits, and delights in wandering through the fascinating world of the unreal, as is the case among savages.

This infantile characteristic also gave rise to the generalization of a materialistic idea now no longer held. "Ontogenesis resumes phylogenesis"—that is, the life of the individual reproduces the life of the species, and thus the life of civilization is reproduced in man, and therefore there are found in the little child psychic characteristics peculiar to savages. For this reason the child, like the savage, is fascinated by the fantastic, the supernatural, the unreal.

Rather than give utterance to similar flights of a scientific fantasy, it is simpler to note that an organism still immature like that of a child may distantly resemble mentalities less matured than our own, like that of savages. But, allowing those who interpret infantile mentality as the "savage state" to keep their beliefs, the objection can still be raised that in any case, this savage state being a passing state and one which has to be overcome, education must help the child to pass through this. It should not develop the savage state or hold the child back in it.

All the forms of imperfect development which we find in the child bear some resemblance to like characteristics in the savage. For example, in language: the poverty of the vocabulary, the existence of concrete expressions only, and the generalization of words, so that one word serves for many uses and also to indicate different objects. The lack of modes in the verbs, because of which children use the infinitive only. But no one will say that "for this reason" we should artificially hold the child back within the confines of such a primitive language, in order that he may easily

pass through this pre-historic period. Though some people remain permanently in a state of imagination in which the unreal prevails, our children belong to a people whose mentality finds its delight in great works of art, in the civilizing results of constructive science. Such products of a superior imagination represent the environment in which our children's intellect is destined to mould itself. It is natural that the child in the nebulous period of his mind should be attracted by fantastic ideas; but we must not, because of this, forget that he is our successor, the one who must outstrip us, and the least we can give him for such a purpose is the maximum of all there is at our disposal. A "form of imagination which is held as peculiar" to infancy and almost universally recognized as creative imagination is that spontaneous work of the infant mind by which children attribute desired characteristics to object which do not possess them.

Who has not seen a child ride horseback on his father's care, switching as though he were mounted on a real horse? Behold a proof of imagination in the child? What pleasure children take in making a wonderful coach by putting chairs together, and while some stretched out in side joyously look at an imaginary landscape or greet an applauding crowd, others perched on the back of the chair, whip the air as though driving fiery steeds! Again, proofs of imagination.

But let us observe rich children, who possess docile ponies and habitually ride in a carriage or automobile. They would look with a sense of disdain at the child running about, furiously whipping a cane; they would be astonished to see children so happy under the delusion that they were being carried along by stationary chairs. They would say of such children, "They are poor and do this because they have no horses or carriages." An adult becomes resigned, a child deludes himself. But that is not a proof of imagination; it is the proof of an unsatisfied desire. It is not an activity allied with gifts of nature; it is a manifestation of conscious noticeable poverty. No one certainly would maintain that it is necessary, in order to educate the rich child, to take away his horse, and give him a cane, and neither is it necessary to

prevent the poor child from contenting himself with his cane. If a poor man, a beggar, had only dry bread to eat and were to seat himself beside the iron grating of a fine basement kitchen, because in smelling the food he imagines that he is eating delicious dishes with his bread, who would prevent him? But no one will maintain that, in order to develop the activities of the imagination of those more fortunate, for whom the real meals are destined, it is necessary to deprive them of their meat and give bread and savoury smells.

A poor mother who loved her child very much gave him a piece of bread in this manner; she divided it into two parts and gave them saying, "This is bread," and "This is meat." The child was satisfied, but no mother would wish to under-nourish her child in order to develop his imagination in this way. And yet I was asked in all seriousness if it would not have been harmful to give the use of the piano to a child who was constantly pretending to play the piano on a table. "Why should it be harmful?" said I. "Because in that case he would, it is true, learn music, but he would no longer be exercising his imagination, and I do not know which of the two is the most useful," was the reply.

Some of the Fröbelian games are based on like beliefs. The child is given a block and is told "This is a horse." Then other blocks are arranged in a certain way, and he is told "This is a stable. Now let's put the horses in the stable." Then the blocks are arranged in still other ways. This is a tower; this other, the village church, &c. In such exercises the objects (blocks) lend themselves even less to the illusion than in the case of a cane used as a horse, where the child at least does mount and move about and whip his horse. To make towers and churches out of the blocks which were first horses brings about the extreme of mental confusion. Furthermore, in this case, it is not the child who "imagines spontaneously" and works with his own brain. He must picture for himself what the teacher tells him at that particular moment. Though he is not quiet, though he really thinks that the stable has become a church, or, though his attention may be wandering, certainly he would like to move about, and he cannot because he must watch that sort of cinematograph which

the teacher names in rapid succession, but which, alas! is composed of pieces of wood, each like the other. What is nurtured in this way in such immature minds? What do we find of a similar nature in the life of adults that will show us the definite results of educating the mind after this fashion? There are men who really mistake a tree for a throne and give therefrom kingly commands, and some believe they are God because of false perceptions. In more serious forms "illusions" are the beginnings of false reasoning, the concomitants of delirium. The insane create nothing, neither do those children who are condemned to the restrictions of an education which would unconsciously tend to develop their childish manifestations into illusion—that is to say, manifestations of immaturity in normal development.

We are apt to think that we develop the child's imagination very much by giving him to believe that certain fantasies are true, as, for example, in Latin countries Christmas is personified by an ugly woman, "the Befana," who can see through walls, comes down the chimney, and brings toys to those children who have been good and leaves charcoal to those who were naughty. In the Anglo-Saxon countries, on the other hand, Christmas is an old man covered with snow, who carries an enormous bag filled with toys for the children and comes into their homes at night. But how is it possible for the child's imagination to be developed by that which is in truth the fruit of our imagination? It is we alone who imagine, and not they, they merely believe; they do not imagine. Credulity is indeed a characteristic of the immature mind which is lacking in experience and in a consciousness of realities where there is a want of an intellect which can distinguish the real from the unreal, the beautiful from the ugly, the possible from the impossible. Do we perchance wish to develop credulity in our children only because, in a stage where they are naturally ignorant and immature, they show themselves credulous. Certainly credulity may exist even in an adult, but then it is opposition to the intellect, and it is neither its basis nor its product. Credulity germinates in the state of intellectual darkness, and we are glad to have superseded

that stage. We cite credulity as evidence of the lack of civilization. For instance, here is an anecdote of the seventeenth century:—The "Pont Neuf" in Paris was the thoroughfare and the meeting place for idlers. Mingling among the crowds were often to be found Fakirs and quacks. Once a Fakir was making his fortune by selling a Chinese salve which would enlarge the eyes, make the mouth smaller, lengthen a short nose or shorten a long one. Mr. De Sartun, Chief of Police, arrested this Fakir, and said to him, "Mariolo, how do you manage to attract such crowds and to make so much money?" "Sire" he replied, "how many people do you think pass over the bridge in a day?" "From ten to twelve thousand," replied Mr. De Sartun. "Well, Sire, how many out of that number would you consider to be intelligent people?" "About one hundred," answered the chief. "Too many, perhaps," replied the Fakir, "but I'll leave it at that, and I have the remaining nine thousand nine hundred from whom I get my money."

The difference in the situation from their times to ours is the fact that we have a greater number of intelligent people and fewer who are credulous. Hence education should not follow the path toward credulity, but rather that of intelligence. The experience and maturity of the mind cause credulity to disappear little by little, and instruction is a help in this. Whether in people or in individuals, the evolution of civilization and of the mind tends to lessen the state of credulity. Wisdom, as is often said, dissipates the error of ignorance. In this void, which is ignorance, fantasy easily wanders about, just because it lacks that support which permits of attaining greater heights. Thus the Pillars of Hercules disappeared when the Straits of Gibraltar became the passage-way of the oceans. So, too, the Redman, whom the great American spirit of democracy gathers into its civilizing environment. Columbus could no longer say that the sky obeyed him when it darkened the sun at his command, for the eclipse is a phenomenon known to the Indian as well as to the white man.

Is it perchance this illusive imagination founded on credulity that we wish to develop

in the children? Surely not; it is not our wish that such a condition should continue. In fact, when the child "no longer believes in the stories," we are delighted and then we say "He is no longer a child." Such must be the course of events and we expect it. The day will come when he will no longer believe these stories. But when this state of maturity is reached we should ask ourselves, "What have we done to help? What support did we give to this feeble mind in order that it might strengthen itself?" The child overcame all his obstacles in spite of our impulse which kept him back in a state of illusion and ignorance. The child overcame himself and us too, and reached the goal whither his inner forces of development and maturity led. He, however, might say to us: How you made me suffer! Our hardships in the effort to develop were already so great and yet you oppressed us." Would this not be the same as if one were to treat the gums in such a way as to retard the growth of the teeth just because one of the characteristics of the newborn babe is its lack of teeth? Would it not be like keeping the little body from growing because the characteristics of the preceding state was that of not being able to stand upright? In fact, we did act in this manner when we cried and so kept him to have the child keep his baby talk, so kept his language in a state of inferiority and lack of precision instead of helping him by letting him hear the sounds of words clearly articulated and having him see the movements of the lips. We copied his rudimentary language and repeated the primitive sounds he emitted, saying "Bow" and "Totr," or else spoke with a lisp or other defects characteristic of the beginnings of an articulate language. So we detained him at length in the formative period—a period full of difficulties—of great effort on the part of the child, holding him back in the arduous state of infancy.

This is what we are doing to-day by our so-called education of the imagination. We amuse ourselves with the illusions, the ignorance, the errors of an immature mind, just as only a short time ago we delighted in the laughter of the baby who was being tossed up and down—a thing which is now

considered dangerous and is condemned by child hygiene. In short, it is we who are amused by the Christmas tales and the child's credulity. In admitting this we should recognize what we resemble somewhat that lady who was interested in a dispensary for poor children, but who kept saying "If there were no more sick children I should be most unhappy." And it is so with us; if the credulity of children were no more, we should miss it greatly.

To retard one stage of development artificially and amuse oneself thereby—as in the ancient courts, where they were wont to arrest by artificial means the growths of some poor victims in order to make dwarf jesters for the king—this is one of the unnoticed faults of our times. This assertion may seem harsh, but it states a real fact. We are unconscious of it, it is true, and yet we speak of it constantly, when we say, with such disdain for the immature age, "We are not children." If we did not arrest the child's immaturity in order to contemplate this inferior stage, but instead would give freedom for his growth admiring the marvels of his perfection of himself always in the way of greater conquests, then we would say of him as did Christ, when He said that he who would be perfect should become as a little child.

That faith which is true is the basis of religion. I have often been told that the education of the imagination founded on this basis of fantasy "prepares the soul of the child for religious education," and that an education based on reality, such as this method would desire, is too arid and dries up the spiritual springs. Such reasoning, however, cannot be shared by religious persons; for they well know that myth and faith are at opposite poles, and that, though the myth must cease to be real as soon as the child's mind matures, faith must accompany man to the end of life.

Religion is not the product of a fantastic imagination; it is the greatest reality, the only truth for the religious man. It is the fount, the support, of his life. The man who is not religious is certainly not one lacking in imagination, but rather lacking inner poise. In comparison with the religious man, he is

less serene, less strong in misfortune, and not only that, but he is more vacillating in his own ideas. He is weaker, more unhappy, and in vain does he cling to his imagination in order to construct a world outside the bounds of reality. Something within him calls out with David "O Lord, my God, my soul thirsteth after Thee." But if he hopes by means of imagination alone to attain the goal of his true life, he may in a moment of supreme struggle feel his feet sinking in the quicksands.

When an apostle seeks to call a soul to a religion where he may rest his faltering foot on a rock he has recourse to the feelings, not to the imagination; for he knows that he need create nothing, but has only to call in a loud voice to that which slumbers in the depths of the heart. He knows that he must arouse a life which has fallen into a stupor, which resembles a living body buried beneath the snow, and not construct a snow-man which will meet in the sun's rays.

It is true that fantastic imagination has penetrated into religion, but as an error. For instance, in the Middle Ages plagues were very simply attributed to a direct action of Divine punishment. To-day they are attributed to the direct action of microbes. Papin's steam engine caused people to think there was some diabolical agency; and these are precisely the prejudices which, like all fantasies, spring forth in the void of ignorance. Not all religion is thus constructed, like to a fantastic castle erected on foundations of ignorance, for then we should find that savage people were religious and the civilized were irreligious; whereas, on the contrary savages have a religion which is fantastic, fragile, based in a great measure on the terror caused by the mysterious facts of nature, while civilized people have a strong, positive religion which grows ever purer as the science of truth, in penetrating the veil of nature only exalts and makes clear the mystery.

Truth is the basis of every great artistic production of the imagination. Manifestations of art are also based on truth even though they are the most glorious proofs of the heights which the imagination may reach. Fine arts and literary works attain greater

heights in a measure as they draw their content from truth—not copying the truth, but constructing the original work of the imagination on truth. Nothing is more fantastic than Dante's poem, where the imagination of the poet roams through Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise, and yet the imaginative beauty of the thought is gained through similes which reveal the poet as a potent observer of reality.

When Raphael wished to paint a type of Madonna he wandered through parts of the Trastevere, where the most beautiful women in Rome were to be found. It was there that he saw and knew the Fornarina and his models, but he painted the Madonna by reproducing "the image which was recorded in his soul." It is said that Michael Angelo was wont to walk up and down every evening looking far off into space, and when asked what he was looking at he answered: "I am looking at a dome which is being constructed within me;" and this was the dome which he reproduced in Saint Peter's. But it would never have been created and realized if a thorough study of architecture had not furnished the material for its construction. Thus Greek art has survived all other arts as though it were immortal and superior to them all. It is characterized by a close observation of the real and by a fusion of all the details of beauty possible in the human body which are assembled in the new creation of forms that make a striking appeal through their complete and perfect beauty. Truth positively sought for is the basis of the scientific production of the imagination.

Our times mark a great progress in civilization as compared to past centuries. This progress is due to the fact that man has used the positive research of truth as the basis of the imagination. It is because of this that the imagination of man has been able to invent all the wonderful appliances in existence to-day in the fields of electricity, mechanics, chemistry and biology. In their wildest imagination our forefathers could never have pictured a world where men could send messages from one country to another across oceans and speak in low tones between Paris and Rome; where men could fly, and where, as guardians of mankind, they could

drive from them the scourge of infectious diseases.

Education must prepare the modern child for the renewed civilisation of our day; this civilization which is based upon positive research of truth—that is, the child whose hand, whose eye, and ear are eager to grasp the truth with precision and who becomes capable of mental concentration. Just as the body seeks the elements which satisfy its hunger and then transforms them in the inanimate workings of assimilation, so the child nourishes himself with truth organizing within himself the constructions of the imagination which create the beautiful and the good. Thus we will help his intellect which tends to organize himself, to go on; to experiment to acquire knowledge until he can more easily and more perfectly accomplish the effort of intellectual growth. Therefore he is destined not to represent our inferior humanity, but to surpass us some day, which will in turn be the triumph of light over darkness.—*The Times Educational Supplement.*

EDUCATION IN THE MAGAZINES.

The Rev. Father F. Bertram, S. J., on the Intermediate Examination.

In the course of his report on the working of the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, for 1914-15, the Rev. Father F. Bertram, S. J., Principal and Rector, said:—

The Intermediate results are, compared to those of last year, disappointing. In compensation the B. A. results are better than last year though it must be stated that, even this year, the Science results are not anything like what the College was entitled to expect. The Honors results were distinctly gratifying, particularly in Branch I, Mathematics, in which the two first-class of the College candidates are first and second in the Presidency.

In answer to the charge that the laxity of Principals in admitting S. S. L. C. holders into the Junior Intermediate class is the cause of the poor results of this year's Intermediate Examinations, the Report says:—"The critics of the Principals of Colleges base the charge of laxity, even of scandalous laxity—on the large increase in the strength of certain colleges, since the introduction of 166 (a) into the University Calendar, and in support of their contention they point to the failures in the last Intermediate examination."

Well, Saint Joseph's College had large numbers standing to its credit, or discredit, as some would have it. I stood accused of laxity, perhaps even of scandalous laxity, and unfortunately the Intermediate results seemed to lend colour to the charge. I examined the admission registers of the years 1911, 1912 and 1913 which contain the names and all the marks of the S. S. L. C. holders admitted in these years. I was able to trace 105 of our unsuccessful candidates through these 3 years, of these 100 failed in English, most of them in English only. As the cause of this year's disaster is English, it will suffice for my purpose to give my findings with regard to English, of these 100 candidates 3 had passed the Matriculation Examination. In the public examination under the S. S. L. C. system 6 had obtained 60 per cent. and above in English; 32 obtained 50 per cent. and above, 46 obtained the Presidency percentage and above, 12 obtained marks below the Presidency average, but in the case of 8 out of these 12 the deficiency was only one or two marks; so that we are left with only 4 bad cases so far as English is concerned, spread over 3 years. You will certainly admit that this

is not to be guilty of laxity in admitting students to the College classes.

Again the conditions under which the Intermediate Examination was held last year are not materially different from the conditions obtaining this year. How is it, then, that the percentage of passes for the whole Presidency last year was nearly 40, whereas this year it is only 27.5, while the corresponding figures for this College are 50 and 28 respectively? No one will believe that the difference in the quality of the material from one year to another is such as to account for a difference of 12 per cent. in the Presidency average affecting more than 3000 candidates, of 22 per cent. in the average for this College.

In this College with a view to guard against over-crowding, we have divided the large Intermediate classes into 2 sections each for English, and whenever else necessary, as, for instance, for practical work in the Science groups. The staff has been proportionately increased to meet the increase of work resulting from the division into sections. Our English staff included last year five lecturers and three tutors. Our staff is quite sufficient for lecturing, and the number of our tutors is a guarantee that the tutorial work of exercises is not neglected. We have, moreover, the rooms required to accommodate all the sections. It is obvious that a class of 300 divided into two sections is really two classes of half that number each, and the evils of over-crowding are not to be feared. How, then, does it happen that candidates with a good School record fail in the Intermediate Examination? Some fail by accident, others as victims of what is known as "arrested development". They reach the end of intellectual tether some time during the Intermediate course; they can get no further, try as they may, and therefore fall short of the standard. Others again, though good in most subjects, fail in a particular subject. They got through their school course either because, in spite of their weakness they succeeded in passing in that subject or because they had no need of that subject to secure a pass and therefore did not take it at school. Thus, a candidate is eligible for admission into Group I if he brings up Algebra and Geometry and Chemistry but, not having taken Physics, he may be weak in that subject the whole of the Intermediate course and ultimately fail in University examination. Lastly, there are the "slackers" who work by fits and starts.

If it is now remembered that the percentage of passes under the new programme is in no wise

inferior to the percentage of passes under the old F. A. one may well wonder how it is possible to lay the blame for the failures of this year at the door of Principals and to attribute it to scandalous laxity on their part in the matter of admission.

My conclusion is, therefore, that even making allowance for any particle of truth there may be in the contention of the critics of Principals, that modicum of truth was really not worth the flood of ink that has been spilt over it, and I, for one, rest contented admission to colleges should be conducted as hitherto."

The Educational Policy of Government, by Sir Narayan Chandavarkar.

Sir Narayan Chandavarkar writes in the *Leader* :—

The editor of the *Leader* doing me the honor of drawing my attention to his article on 'The Educational Conference: A Splendid Opportunity,' which appeared in a recent issue of that paper, has invited my suggestions on the questions raised by him. Those questions, which have been raised with special reference to an Educational Conference to be held at Lucknow in January next, generally speaking centre on one point, viz., the educational policy of the Government. That is an old question in point of time but in point of importance, as affecting the vital interest of the country, it is new and must always continue new and of unceasing interest now and always, seeing that a people are what the education they receive make them. So long as the Empire has this world-war on hand, it is no doubt necessary for Government to economise its expenditure and both State and subjects have to learn and practise lessons in thrift. But a caution on the subject of thrift is needed on this head of education. Mr. Gladstone used to say that when an Englishman began to find his income straitened, the first thing he retrenched in was in his charities, the second was his books. This defect of the national character is already causing some anxiety among thoughtful people in England and I notice that it is being pointed out in some newspapers there that while economy in public expenditure has become necessary, retrenchment in education on the ground of war is suicidal and the most dangerous of policies. The same warning has become necessary in India on account of the resolution which the Government of Bombay has thought fit to issue, informing the public that expenditure on education and other branches of the administration

will be curtailed on account of the war. Why education is specially named and other branches are put in general terms is difficult to understand. A hair-splitting lawyer would perhaps invoke the aid of the legal maxim *ejusdem generis* to construe the words of the resolution and interpret them to mean that education and only those branches of the administration which are of like character will be subjected to the policy of rigid retrenchment. Laymen will probably discern in the resolution the old policy of starving education first when economy cries aloud. In any case, it is significant that the Government of Bombay has singled out education as if it is the first thing that must starve and wait. And yet it is the last thing that ought to be retrenched in. If an individual had to economise his private expenditure, he would be considered short-sighted if he stopped sending his son to school and cut down the boy's expenses as to education. If he is wise, he would practise thrift in other directions. And the State is but the individual writ large. Here is a subject of prime importance for the Lucknow Conference to take up, for what is declared by one Provincial Government to-day may be followed by others to-morrow.

Those more familiar than myself with the political and administrative aspects of the question of education and the policy of Government may be left to address themselves to the points for discussion at the Conference bearing thereon. But an Educational Conference will not be worth the purpose if it closes without taking to certain problems that seem minor but, in my humble opinion, are of prime importance as relating to the character and methods of the education imparted in our schools. For instance, dividing education into primary, secondary, and higher and leaving the higher out of debate because the character of it is determined by our Universities, it is almost an axiom of educational wisdom, supported by the authority of experts, that while an educational system may be allowed to be rigid in the case of primary schools, it should be less rigid and must leave scope for more freedom as it ascends. In the case of primary schools, efficiency of teaching cannot be affected for the worse by the State fixing a uniformity of standard, of subjects and books for teaching; but as to secondary schools, the same uniformity and rigidity should not apply and the teacher ought to have a freer field. How far is this axiom observed under our present system? In England the efficiency of what are called public schools, such as Rugby,

Eton, Harrow, Winchester, is partly due to this kind of freedom. They allow inspection by official inspectors but each has an atmosphere of its own. Do our public schools such as they are aim at that? In Bombay the Government years ago declared that they would make the Elphinstone High School an exemplary public school and they confined its principalship to Englishmen. But an Englishman came, worked as Principal for a short time, was promoted to some other office and the work has been done for the most part by Indian Principals! That is how things go—all theory, little practice. A second question is the choice of text-books in English. Are the books chosen the right ones for our students? On this head false ideas prevail in some quarters. Sir John Hewitt once visited a school, saw in the Library there a copy of *Tom Brown's School Days* and felt appalled at the sight! The idea of getting an Indian student to read a book which only an English boy, he thought, could understand, struck him as absurd! That is how, I presume, it would strike many if not most Englishmen. But in my time, when I was at school this very book, *Tom Brown's School Days*, fell into my hands and the hands of several boys in my class and we read it and devoured its contents with pleasure and I believe also profit. It had some inspiring influence on us. The peculiarities of English scenery and school life depicted in the book we could not understand and did not care for but the human interest of the story caught up our minds and hearts though we were Indian, not English boys. The idea that what is a good book for an English school-boy to read may be bad and useless in the case of his Indian compeer may have some force but I do not believe in it. School-boys are nearly the same all over the civilized world and Indian school-boys, well guided and given room to grow free—understanding by freedom so much of discipline as is necessary for helping them to think and act for themselves with the courage and patience of calm—can enter into the soul of any good classic, in English or other foreign language.

Then there is the question of imparting education through the vernacular instead of English. There can be no doubt that when a boy has to get up a subject not in his own but a foreign language, his power of precise thought is apt to be hampered. The late Mr. Justice Telang once, to my knowledge, got hold of a number of graduates who had been trained from the school up to the period of their degree examinations in an institution where all was done in English and

he found that while they could speak and write elegant and idiomatic and correct English, they were deficient in clearness of ideas and thought. At the same time we have to learn English for several reasons. Our environment imposes that as a necessity on us and I for one regard it as a beneficial necessity. How then are we to remedy the defects of the system which is a necessary condition of the times? In my opinion, when an English text-book is taught, the teacher should scrupulously see to it in our schools that words, sentences, and the contents of the book are explained not only in English but also in vernacular.

Mathematical Research in India, by Dr. Ganesh Prasad.

The following address was delivered by Dr. Ganesh Prasad, Rash Behari Ghosh Professor of Mathematics, as the President of the Physico-Mathematical Section of the Annual General Meeting of the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science:—

When the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science was founded by our distinguished countryman, the late Dr. Mahendra Lal Sircar, there was no Indian capable of doing research work in Mathematics. Since then, the progress of high mathematical studies in India has been considerable, specially at Calcutta which is now the seat of a Mathematical Society and a teaching University which are superior to many institutions of the kind in Western Europe. Allow me, gentlemen, to express our gratitude to an illustrious countryman of ours, who was the first Indian in modern times to do really original work in Mathematics, whose original papers published nearly a generation ago, fired the imagination and shaped the ambition of many a budding mathematician, and to whom the Calcutta Mathematical Society and the Calcutta University owe more than I can give expression to. I need not say that I allude to the Hon'ble Justice Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee.

During the last twelve years, the increase of facilities for high mathematical studies has gone hand in hand with the increase in the contributions made by Indian mathematicians, to the stock of human knowledge so that it may be said without any fear of contradiction, that both in quality and quantity, the mathematical researches of Indians in recent years compare favourably with those made by many a European race.

I propose now to address you briefly on some of these researches and I trust that I will succeed, at least to some extent, in impressing on the young and promising mathematicians, whom I see before me, the importance of their labours for the future of Mathematics, so that they may take heart and realise that they are no mean collaborators of the eminent mathematicians of England, France, Germany and Italy, men like Professors Klein, Hobson, Hadamard and Segre.

In the early years of the present century English and German mathematicians were desirous of having a settlement of the following question:—Does the modern theory of functions throw any light on the constitution of matter? This question was settled by me in a memoir which was published with the imprimatur of Professor Klein.

Before I speak about the Mathematical researches of Prof. O. V. Raman, I should like to express my appreciation of the numerous papers which Dr. D. N. Mullik and Dr. Shyamadas Mukherjee have brought out. Dr. Mukherjee's interesting researches on dimensional space deserve greater attention from mathematicians than they have received up to now.

Professor Raman is well known to all of you as an experimentalist of world-wide reputation. But some of you will feel surprised to learn that by his recent mathematical researches he has firmly established his claim to be considered a sound mathematician. The two papers which he read before the Calcutta Mathematical Society during the current year are very valuable and I trust he will continue his mathematical activities.

Mr. Sudhansu Kumar Banerjee, Sir Rash Behary Gosh Research Scholar, has made a special study of problems involving the solution of the equation of wave-propagation for a region bounded by two spheres which are not concentric. Before Mr. Sudhansu Kumar Banerjee, Dr. Carl Neumann, the famous Professor of the Lipsic University, was the only person to attempt the solution of such a problem, although only with partial success. Mr. Sudhansu Kumar Banerjee has distinguished himself completely solving two such problems, one relating to sound-waves and the other to electro-magnetic waves, by a method entirely different from Prof. Neumann's.

Two other Sir Rash Behary Gosh scholars, Mr. Hari Prasanna Banerjee and Mr. Bibhuti Bhasan Dutt, have published important original papers on Dynamics of a particle and Hydrodynamics respectively.

I am afraid I have no time to say anything about the interesting researches of Messrs. J. M. Bose, Lakshmi Narayan and B. Narasing Row. But before I conclude, I should like to say a few words about the original papers which Mr. S. Ramanujam and Mr. Narendra Kumar Mazumdar have recently published.

Mr. Ramanujam, who is at Cambridge, has brought out numerous papers on pure Mathematics, the most important of these being an elaborate memoir on the number of divisors of a number. Mr. Ramanujam has given simpler proofs of many known theorems and has extended the results of Dirichlet and Professor Lendau, the greatest living authority on the subject.

The sphere of Mr. Mazumdar's activity is the history of ancient Indian Mathematics. He has recently published an important and original paper in which he proves that Aryabatta's method of solving indeterminate equations of the first degree is so essentially different from the method given in the VII and X Books of Euclid as to exclude the possibility of Aryabatta's indebtedness to Greeks.

Dewan Bahadur M. O. Parthasarathy Aiyangar, on Education.

In the course of his concluding remarks as President at the prize-distribution of the P. S. High School, Mylapore, Dewan Bahadur M. R. Ry. M. O. Parthasarathy Aiyangar, said:—

It has given me great pleasure in having presided on this auspicious occasion, in that it has brought back to me sweet recollections of my own school days nearly half a century ago, school days the remembrance of which wear in its aspect a halo of romance.

To turn to the report.—The report that has just been read by one of the Secretaries redounds, on the whole, to the credit of his management. No doubt there is a deficit in the finance, but the management, I am sure, will find the means to meet it. There has been an increase in the strength on the roll of the two classes, Primary and Secondary, increase in the staff, addition to the Laboratory and Library, addition to the apparatus and appliances. The school, as Subramania Iyer's School is still in its infancy, and the measure of success that has been achieved must be deemed creditable. However, I do not find any reference to the public examination, nor is there any mention made of the religious and moral lessons imparted to the students though I have noticed that a prize has been awarded for good

conduct, religious and moral. I hope however that the school did fairly well at the public examinations. I also wish that you will continue to give religious and moral lessons to the students under your care.

The defect in the present system of education consists in the fact that prominence is not given to the ethical side of culture. The aim of education is chiefly the building of character. Mere education of the intellect is useless—nay positively dangerous. I do not wish you to understand that there is no moral discipline at all in the school, but that the ethical culture that is given is not sufficient to kill the animal in the man, the ape in the man, much less the more savage beasts in the man—the ancestors, man should be proud of according to the evolutionists. What is needed is the training and civilising of the feeling and of the will. Are we not reading almost everyday of men, Christian men, flying high up in the air and throwing bombs on innocent women and children? Do we not see the heart of the barbarian in them, in spite of the intellectual hegemony they could boast of! On the other hand, have we not read that out of the twenty-six barons that signed the Magna Charta, three, only three, wrote their names, and the remaining twenty-three appended their marks? The contrast speaks volumes for the necessity of direct ethical culture in schools and colleges.

I regret that adequate prominence is not given in the school curriculum for physical development. Plato, the first school-master, and by the way the endower of the first endowed school says "the aim of education is to develop in the soul and in the body all the beauty, all the perfection of which they are capable." In Ancient Greece, everybody from twelve to eighteen was compelled to attend the Palaestra, the private gymnasium. Later on, at the age of fifteen, the boy left the private gymnasium to undergo compulsory training in a regiment on the frontier for two years, preparatory to his admission as a youth eligible to take the oath of citizenship. Even after that period, the Greeks were attending the public gymnasium, for, we read that therein will be found men even of the age of sixty. The intense enthusiasm excited by the Olympic games was the principal cause of the immense development of Ancient Greece. I wish greater attention would be given to the games. I was pleased to note that in the last report of the Bishop Cotton School it was found that the construction of a swimming bath for the boys proved a great boon to them. In fact it has been my desire to see that every boy of the Hindu High School,

Triplicane, is taught swimming. But the Municipality will not let in the water needed to make the tank suitable for that purpose. Swimming is an excellent exercise. This is no fad of mine. I may tell you that sometime ago, swimming was made an obligatory course at the Princeton University. Recently a regulation was passed making it necessary for all candidates for a degree to pass an examination in "life-saving" also saving the lives of drowning men. I wish that the management will consider this question.

You members of the staff.—The complaint that schoolmasters are ill-paid has been in existence since the days even of Quintillian. It is hard that you should still remain schoolmasters, perhaps "passing rich with forty pounds a year" while the students whom you yourself had trained are making a mint of money. It is an irony of fate. Remember that only in dream life is beauty. In reality, life is duty. I wish you will continue to do your duty with a heart.

You students, I congratulate such of you as have received a prize, but remember that "the race is not always to the swiftest nor the battle to the strongest." To such of you as have not been able to come up to the mark, I would say, 'hope on, hope ever.' When Alexander gave away the greater portion of his inheritance to his friends Perdiccas asked him what he had retained for himself, to which Alexander replied "the greatest possession of all. Hope do not abandon 'hope.' Receive the lessons imparted to you with true devotion to your teachers. That is the surest road to knowledge.

The Kindergarten System, by Miss Burnett-Hurst.

A Kindergarten conference was held at Allahabad, the Hon. Mr. Dela Fosse presiding, when Miss Burnett-Hurst spoke on the Kindergarten system. She said it is not in this country alone but in some cases in England that the term is hopelessly misunderstood. The idea seems to be that 'Kindergarten' consists simply in playing with bricks, clay, sticks and the like, and the term is frequently spoken of as denoting a subject taken with the youngest children in the school. Kindergarten is not a subject; it is a system, and it is a system which is not confined to the education of our youngest children only, but which should be applied throughout the school.

Pestalozzi and Froebel founded the Kindergarten system. Both these educationists collected a family of children, loved them and made the school an institution rooted and

grounded in love. Froebel gave the educational world a new philosophy which has been an inspiration to teachers ever since. Though many of the materials of Froebel's time have been added to or deleted as educationists saw the need, his principles remain unaltered. Froebel would educate children according to the laws of nature. In the 'Education of Man' he enunciates his philosophy which has been a guide to teachers ever since. Therein he says, 'We grant space and time to young plants and animals because we know that, in accordance with the laws that live in them, they will develop properly and grow well; young plants are given rest, and arbitrary interference with their growth is avoided, because it is known that the opposite practice would disturb their pure unfolding and sound development; but the young human being is looked upon as a piece of wax, a lump of clay which man can mould into what he pleases.'

Froebel realized the close connection between the child, his Creator and Nature and through nature he would educate the child to become what his Creator intended him to be. So it is that we Kindergarteners would educate our children according to the laws of nature. In order to do this the Kindergarten must know each individual child under her care and here may I be pardoned for giving a word of advice. If there is any girl present who thinks of becoming a Kindergarten teacher or for the matter of that a teacher in any sphere, I beg of you think well over the matter. Unless you are prepared to put your life and all your powers into the work, unless it is going to be your greatest pleasure and interest, unless you can become for the time as the children under your care, unless you can do all this, then, for your sake and for the sake of the children you may have to educate, I plead, think of some other vocation. No Kindergarten teacher can expect to be successful unless for the time she can both command the respect of her class and yet become as the little children in spirit, so that she may know the nature of every child she has to educate. We want the very best for our little children; those who are to deal with the young lives entrusted to their care must be in touch with all that is highest and best; the little ones should live in an atmosphere of love, and here environment plays a great part. Rows of desks, walls crowded with uninteresting pictures, and the like, are by no means an ideal environment; the little ones should feel that it is a home for a

certain portion of the day. Liberty is in the atmosphere but please do not mistake me when I use the term 'liberty'; I do not mean license which is quite another matter.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

The Question of Passes.

A Meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held at the Senate House, College Square. The Hon. Dr. Devaprosad Sarbadhikari, Vice-Chancellor, presided and there was a large attendance of Fellows.

The Senate resumed the postponed debate on the following motion of Dr. E. R. Watson:—"That the Senate views with alarm the rapid increase in the percentage of passes in the University Examinations, especially the Matriculation and the B.A. Examinations, which have taken place in recent years and desires an immediate enquiry to be held as to its cause and significance."

Dr. Kedarnath Das moved the following amendment:—"That the words 'an enquiry be held as to the cause and significance of' be substituted for the words 'the Senate views with alarm' and that all the words after the words 'years' be omitted."

Dr. Hiralall Halder said that there was no doubt that the standard of the Matriculation Examination should be raised and the sooner it was done the better. At a previous meeting of the Senate Sir Asutosh Mookerjee wanted to move a resolution pressing the formation of a committee of enquiry with a much wider scope. The proposal seemed to be acceptable to the majority of the members and by common consent the meeting was adjourned. A joint meeting of the Faculties was then held and a committee of enquiry was appointed. Under such circumstances how was it possible for the Senate to appoint another Committee? To do so would be to demonstrate to the world that the Senate did not know its own mind.

The Vice-Chancellor overruled the objection and the motion as amended was carried by 32 to 21. Dr. Das proposed that a Committee consisting of five members be appointed. This motion was put to the vote and carried.

The Committee then appointed was as follows:—Dr. Brajendra Lal Seal, Dr. P. Bruhl, Mr. C. J. Hamilton, Dr. E. R. Watson, and the Hon. Dr. Nilratan Sircar.

After a lengthy discussion it was resolved that the quorum should consist of three and that Dr. Seal should be the chairman.

University Extension Lectures.

The first of the series of the lectures was delivered by Principal James at the Senate House, on Tuesday, the 14th of December, at 6 p.m. Further lectures to be delivered are in the following order:

Dr. J. C. Bose.—First Lecture "On Automatism" with experiments on 27th January, 1916. Lord Carmichael to preside. Second Lecture "On the Revival of Memory Image" with experiments on 3rd February, 1916.

Dr. P. C. Roy.—Introductory Lecture on "Pursuit of Chemistry in Bengal" any day in the first week of January, 1916 for the General Public. Subsequent 3 Lectures on "The Chemistry of the Nitrites" meant for B. Sc. and M. Sc. students and others interested in the subject. The subsequent lectures will follow on subsequent weeks.

Prof. Arthur Brown.—"On Emergency Legislation" First Series on January 3rd, 5th and 7th at 6 p.m. Second Series on February 21st, 23rd and 25th at 6 p.m. The Director of Public Instruction, Assam, has been written to for permission.

M. M. Dr. Vidyabhushan.—Course of lectures, early in March next on "The System of Education in Ancient and Medieval India."

The Hon. Mr. Bisson 1.—The Organisation of Education. 2. Constructive Ideals in Education. 3. The School and the Home.

Dr. Brajendranath Sil.—On "The Tribe and the family origins."

Principal Saradaranjan Ray.—Will deliver a course of lectures on some subject relating to Sanskrit Literature after March 1916.

Principal Herambachandra Maitra.—Hopes of Immortality.

ALLAHABAD UNIVERSITY.

Annual Convocation. The Annual Convocation of the Allahabad University was held on the 4th instant. Dr. Sundar Lal, C.I.E. LL.D., delivered the usual address.

Reviews and Notices.

"TEST PAPERS IN ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA" BY C. V. DURELL. (MACMILLAN AND CO., 1914.) Price 3s. 6d.

"This collection of papers, designed primarily for out-of-school work, is intended to supplement those given in existing text-books" (Preface). Being a collection of elementary problems, there is nothing quite new or original. All are of types which are represented in most of the existing text-books. But there is quite a large number of them—enough to give good practice to a number of students at a time. The book can very well be placed in the hands of pupils in our High Schools who specialise in Mathematics.

"THE WORLD AT WAR," BY J. NELSON FRASER. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). BOMBAY. Price 14 as.

This is a small book of 113 pages, dealing with the great war of to-day and meant for the use of junior students in India. The style of the book, the plan of treatment followed and the matter dealt with, are all quite adapted to the needs of Indian school-boys and, having regard to the educative value as well as the practical utility of frequent lessons on the war in the class-room, a book such as this cannot but be welcome to teachers and boys alike. The author is well-known to us as an Indian educationist of great experience who has already made his mark as a writer of useful text-books for Indian schools.

At the very outset, however, it may be mentioned that, published as it was many months ago, the book considerably lags behind as regards the events narrated. So much so that, unless a new and improved edition were issued, bringing the events up-to-date, the book cannot be expected to prove sufficiently attractive and popular.

The book consists of two parts. The first part deals with the past and gives a brief but clear account of the history of the belligerent countries and of some neutrals. Seeing that the war has its roots deep down in the past, the author has certainly been well-advised in giving such an account. We cannot however help observing in this connection that a certain lack of judgment has been betrayed by the author in dwelling a little too much, on events relating to the ancient and medieval history of some of these countries—events which, however important in themselves, are, so far as the present war is concerned, ab-

solutely irrelevant. It would, on the other hand, have been much better, if these events had been omitted altogether or given but a passing notice in the book and a more detailed treatment given of the modern and recent history of the countries dealt with, so as to throw the historical background of the war into bolder relief.

Part II of the book deals with the present. A lucid and interesting account has been given in this part of the events leading up to the war, the miscalculations made by Germany in dealing with the crisis, the armies, navies and commanders on both sides and the progress of the war in all theatres (by land and sea). In addition, instructive chapters will also be found, dealing with such general matters as modern arms and warfare, the strategy and tactics followed in the present war, the issues involved in it, as well as the results and prospects of the struggle. 'India and the war' has come in for a special chapter which is as good as any other.

A few maps and illustrations have been given in the book and they are good. It may however be observed that there is scope as well as need for giving more maps and illustrations still and, if this were done, the value and usefulness of the book are sure to be considerably enhanced. It would be the easiest of things in these days, to get scores, nay hundreds, of suitable pictures and illustrations with reference to the war and nothing can appeal so forcibly as these, to juvenile minds.

Revised and improved on these and other lines, the book may, with advantage, be used as a History Reader in our High Schools.

A BOOK OF VICTORIAN PROSE AND POETRY, BY MRS. HUGH-WALKER. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS). 3s. net.

This book which consists of a series of prose and verse extracts from Victorian authors has been compiled, as the author tells us, in order, in the first place to illustrate the criticisms offered upon this period in the "Outlines of Victorian Literature"—a hand-book written by her husband—and in the second place to entice readers who are not familiar with modern English Literature to make themselves better acquainted with its treasures. The extracts are grouped into five sections—(1) systematic thinkers, (2) poetry, (3) novelists, (4) history, and (5) biography and criticism. They are thoroughly representative; but we wish they had been longer, especially the prose extracts. As it is, we have on the whole about 120 authors represented in little more than twice as many pages.

But as a companion to the author's "outlines" we have no doubt that the book will be of help to the student in fixing in his mind the general criticism that he reads.

RAMBLES AND RECOLLECTIONS OF AN INDIAN OFFICIAL, BY MAJOR-GEN. SIR W. H. SLEEMAN; REVISED AND EDITED BY V. A. SMITH. (OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS). 6d. net.

The Oxford University Press has once again placed the Indian historic world under obligation by its publication of this classic work of a great Indian official. Sleeman's name hardly needs introduction to the student of history. Born on Aug. 8, 1788, at Stratton in Cornwall, nominated to an Infantry Cadetship in the Bengal Army in 1809, he arrived in India at the close of the latter year, and saw service first at the Cantonment of Dinajpore near Patna. Endowed by nature with a gifted head and a noble heart, he shewed his superiority to the vast majority of his countrymen by applying himself, with characteristic diligence, to the study of the Arabic and Persian languages and of the religions and customs of the people amidst whom his lot was cast. Promoted to the rank of Ensign by December 1814, the rising soldier distinguished himself in the Nepalese War of 1814-16, in spite of a malignant fever from which he had a narrow escape, and won the regard of the authorities in such a manner that he was specially selected, at the end of the war, to report on certain claims to prize money. In 1820 he was selected for civil employ and after two years' service as Junior Assistant to the Agent of the Governor-General in the Sagar and Nerbadda territories, which had been annexed only two years before, was placed in the independent civil charge of the district of Narsingpore. It was here that the future suppressor of Thuggism gained first the knowledge of its diabolical ramifications and activities, and it was here that he laid the foundations of that remarkable reputation for capacity and sympathy which was to stand in good stead throughout his glorious, benevolent career. His keen observation discovered the dens of Thuggism and his endeavours got the power as well as the resources of the Government to act for their destruction. It was of course a service which the people of the district could never forget; and Thuggee Sleeman could have boasted of a fine record if he had retired even then. But he was to stay for many a year more, and benefit the country of his adoption on a much larger scale. In 1828, after a year's interval of ill-health and leave, he assumed the civil and executive charge

of the Jabalpore district, and in 1831, of Sagar. It was while he was at Jabalpore that he married Amelie Josephine, the daughter of a French nobleman who had left his native country at the time of the Revolution. To this place again he returned in 1835; for the Supreme Government saw the necessity to appoint him as the General Superintendent of the Operations for the Suppression of Thuggee. Ill-health, however, prevented him from taking up the task immediately, and he had to take leave and recruit his waning health. With his wife and son he spent the period of his leave in a tour from Jabalpore to Agra and from there to Delhi, Meerut and Simla. A shrewd and sympathetic student of popular customs, he noted down whatever he saw and heard, and this journal became the basis of the present work. In February 1837 Sleeman was gazetted Major. In the same year he proceeded on a tour in the interior of the Himālayas, which he described at length in an unpublished journal. In 1839 the post of Commissioner for the Suppression of Dacoity, which had been a separate one, was amalgamated with that of the Commissioner for the Suppression of Thuggee, and Sleeman was placed in charge. For two years he was engaged in the investigation of the criminal organizations of Upper India and gained the warm affection of the people and the gratitude of the Government. In 1841 he was offered the post of Resident at Lucknow, a rich prize of the age and the goal of most officers; but with that remarkable magnanimity which always characterised Sleeman, he gave it up as Col. Low, whom he succeeded, happened to lose all his savings, immediately after his resignation, by the failure of his bankers. From 1841 to 1843 Col. Sleeman was employed in the special duty of investigating the grave disorders in the province of Bundelkhand. It was not a safe work and in the course of it, he had a narrow escape from assassination at the hands of a dismissed and discontented Afghan. Sleeman acknowledged the Lucknow Residency, which again fell vacant in 1848, and spent here the rest of his official life. All the talents and virtues of the statesman and the administrator he displayed in this period. He tried his best to improve the Nawab's administration, suppressed crime and corruption, and though by doing so he created a large number of enemies who did not hesitate to make frequent attempts at his life, he remained unshaken and undismayed in his work of reform. His *Journey through the Kingdom of Oudh*, written in 1849, illustrates the awful misgovernment and corruption of the then Oudh Government and the extent of the evils which he wished to eradicate. Sleeman, it should never be forgotten, was a mere reformer and not an advo-

cate of the annexation policy of Dalhousie; but the revelations of hopeless mis-government which his writings made, induced his superiors to go beyond him and, later on, annex the State itself. Continued strain of 45 years' service compelled Sleeman to retire in 1854. He tried but in vain to recruit his shattered health in the hills, and was ordered home; but "while on his way home on board the *Monarch*, he died off Ceylon," and was buried at sea. He was 67 years old when he died; of these he had given 45 years to the service of India.

It is scarcely necessary to dilate on the value of the writings of such an officer and benefactor. In the realms of mythology and religions, of popular customs and beliefs, of Indian administration and law, of folklore and witchcraft, of crimes and morals, of Indian systems of medicine and amusements, he was a deep and well-informed student, and his work has always been considered a classic. The heart of India of the middle 19th century is there; and the historian cannot but admire the deep sympathy, the clear understanding, and the genuine earnestness of the patient recorder. We are very much indebted for the publishers for placing this treasure-house of Indian customs and beliefs at the disposal of a wide public; for the career of Col. Sleeman, the ideal officer, is necessary as an example in this age of lamentable racial conflicts and narrow-minded officials, of whom, unfortunately, there are too many. Mr. V. A. Smith's annotations are admirable and display scholarship as well as sympathy.

THE MYSORE ECONOMIC JOURNAL. VOL. I, No. 10 (Oct. 1915.)

The place of honour is given in this number to an article by Mr. Alfred Chatterton on the prospects of sugar industry in Mysore. He dwells on the necessity on the part of the State to help the sugar manufacturers by advancing the capital which is necessary for the supersession of the present iron mills, worked by bullocks, by power-driven mills; and proves, with the aid of statistics, that such a policy is likely to result in great profit both to the producer and to the State. Mr. A. J. Saunders contributes an article on Australia and her economic activities and shows how in her regulations regarding land tenure, technical education, old age pensions, industrial and labour legislation, etc., she has proved herself to be an experimental laboratory "for the good not only of her citizens, but for the justice, happiness and lasting good of the whole world." Mr.

Saunders concludes that Australia's three words to the nations are union, social consciousness and democracy. Under the heading *Malaria and the Malnad*, Dr. M. Srinivasa Rao discusses the causes of malaria in general, the ways in which its ravages are checked, and the means which should be adopted in Mysore where, it is well-known, the people of the Malnad districts are singularly subject to it. He gives in detail the anti-malarial operations in the Panama Canal zone, the Gold Coast, etc., and discusses how far they are applicable in the present case. In his article on *Ramie Culture and Decortication*, Mr. Herbert Carter shews that India's weak production of ramie—she produces, with all her climatic facilities, one-third of a ton of useful fibre per acre while in France the production of 2 tons is not uncommon—is due to defects which can be remedied. He advocates closer plantation, use of a narrower plough so as to avoid the present wastage of land, a judicious adjustment of moisture and the return of the refuse of decortication to the soil. He further describes the process of steam decortication and its value in India. A highly valuable and technical description of the mining of Manganese in Shimoga by Mr. O. R. Valentine then follows. Mr. Fred. Devereaux writes on the *Gomal Lands in Mysore*, i.e., the grazing lands allotted by Government to raiyats for grazing their cattle. He attributes the barrenness of these areas and the consequent suffering of the cattle to three causes, namely scraping of the grass, the daily removal of the droppings of the cattle and the overgrowth of scrub-jungle and santana. He therefore advocates the statutory prohibition of the first two practices and the experimental clearing of a few village gomals by the State so as to make the raiyats appreciate the beneficial results of it and then display their own enterprise. Mr. C. Ranganatha Rao's article on *An Indigenous System of Weights and Measures* is an earnest and well-argued plea for the reduction of the weight of the Rupee by five grains so that the old Indian system will be perpetuated in such a way as to be placed in an easily ascertained relation to the British system as well as the world's other systems. The number contains an interesting symposium of views regarding the hoarded wealth of India. It is curious to observe that while Indian economists and public men are, as a rule, very sceptical in regard to the existence of hoarded wealth, the European officers are of a contrary view. The number contains the usual topics from economic periodicals, progress abroad, the departmental notes, the work of the Economic Conference, and so on.

The November number begins with a contribution on *Land Banks* by the Editor. He briefly traces the history of such banks in France, Germany, South America and South Africa, and points out how an agricultural country like India needs it most. Mr. J. W. Coombes dwells upon the superstructure of brick houses to stone ones, and gives some general facts as to the construction of kilns and the production of bricks. By far the most substantial contribution in the number is that on *Soap Manufacture* by Mr. S. G. Sastry. It is a technical description and must be of great use to those actually engaged in the industry. In his address on the Economic Development of the United Provinces, Prof. Burnett-Hurst advocates the development of the agricultural industry and holds that, which such a development, industrial and commercial expansion is bound to follow. How can the stimulus to agriculture be given? Prof. B. Hurst believes not so much in any change in the system of land tenure, the size of the holdings or the existing tenancy right, etc., but to the removal of the poverty and ignorance of the raiyats. He must be made to invest more in the land as "most of the land of these provinces would follow the law of increasing return for an expenditure up to Rs. 100 per acre." And he must be given greater education. Rural children should have a half-time system of education in agricultural areas and be taught by experimental farms, nature-study classes, etc. The present undue emphasis on University Education at the expense of the other branches should be given up. And the incentive to save should be given by the more extensive adoption of the co-operative movement for the purchase of machines, etc. The Professor then makes an interesting survey of the factors of Production in the United Provinces. A short article on *the Papain* by Mr. A. P. Smith concludes the number. The gleanings, notes and reviews are, as usual, very copious and constitute a monthly encyclopædia of economic references. The Journal has reached the very summit of Indian economic journalism.

STUDIES AND CRITIQUES, BY M. S. PURNALINGAM PILLAI. (P. R. RAMA IYER & Co., Price 1 Re.)

We desire to congratulate Mr. M. S. Purnalingam Pillai on this volume of *Studies and Critiques* produced by him. The book covers a vast field of literary study and exhibits considerable learning on the part of the writer. Two interesting aspects of the book are, the treatment of themes which are of special attraction to the

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Madras Teachers' Guild.—A meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild was held recently in the Pachaiyappa's College when a discussion was opened on the "Grant-in-Aid Code" by Mr. V. Venkatasubbiah and K. Mangesha Rao. Professor Lakshmi Narasu presided.

Mr. Venkatasubbiah began by saying that the Madras Teachers' Guild was rather always late in giving expression to its opinions on important educational questions of the day. 'Better late than never' was the only consolation to be derived from such an attitude. The educational policy of the Government had become to be characterised as being illiberal. The Madras Presidency did not compare favourably with other provinces in the matter of Grant-in-Aid Code. The Non official Members of the Legislative Council had moved the Government to take a more sympathetic attitude towards the poor schoolmasters in the Presidency.

Ten years ago there was a different system. It was called the salary grant. It served as an incentive to the managers to increase the number of trained teachers in their institutions on better salary. The advantages of the system overweighed the disadvantages. A number of schools came into existence then.

According to the present system a large number of schools could not thrive in a particular locality as the Government insisted upon certain conditions being fulfilled before recognition was given. There was a certain amount of uncertainty in the quantity of grant a school could get at the present time.

The Managers did not know how much they would get from the Government in a certain year and there was no chance of the Managers knowing how long such grants would continue. Further there was something inherently wrong in the half and half system. The richly-endowed institutions got more and the poor schools requiring the help of the Government had been neglected and they got very poor grant. According to the present system free scholarships were not encouraged. Deserving poor students were not given full opportunity to develop their talents.

It is the duty of the State to provide for the complete education of children in the country. Wealth and education did not often go together. Poor children in the land needed encouragement more than the children of rich men. The Government should help the managers to maintain the educational institutions in efficient condition by giving them liberal grants. The present system gave no inducement for the Managers to pay their teachers liberally. The speaker suggested that the net cost of the expenditure of school should be borne by the State.

Mr. A. Panchapagesa Iyer, M.A., L.T., observed that when the system of salary grant was in existence, there was not much strain on the managers of

Indian, Southey's *Curse of Kehama* for instance, and the constant comparisons drawn by the writer with Indian literature and currents of thought. The essays are eminently readable and constitute one of the few successful attempts by Indians at excursions into the regions of literary criticism.

THE POEMS OF TUKARAM, TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY NELSON FRASER AND K. B. MARATHE. VOLS. I—III. (THE CHRISTIAN LITERATURE SOCIETY). Rs. 2-8 each.

Readers of Ranade's brilliant monograph on the *History of the Mahrattas* will realise the important part played by religious reformers in the Great Mahratta Renaissance in Western India. The Hindu revival was no accidental uprising under the guidance of an able freebooter, as has been represented by prejudiced historians like Grant-Duff, but a slow and comprehensive uplifting of the nation by eminent sons of the country working in almost every sphere of national activity.

Tukaram is one of the foremost characters in this revival and his influence on the Mahratta people even to-day is as deep as it is widespread. Messrs. Nelson Fraser and Marathe have laid the whole country under a deep debt of obligation by the admirable translation of his poems. It is not only the sons of Maharashtra, acquainted with the language of Tukaram that have now the privilege of catching the inspiration of his lofty spirituality—the ennobling influence of his songs can spread to all corners of India through the medium of English.

It is not the mere devotional fervour of the poems that we should like to emphasise upon here—there would be nothing peculiar in an Indian saint rising to such heights of spiritual ecstasy, but we are anxious to draw attention to the catholicity of spirit so characteristic of the pieces. The heart of Tukaram has realised the highest lessons of universal brotherhood and embraces all humanity in one deep embrace of love. The poems are also of considerable interest to the social reformer in India as Tukaram repeatedly points out the futility of convention and ceremony devoid of the genuine spirit of religion and has nothing but bitter hatred towards those who set up unhealthy barriers of caste among the children of God, especially among the followers of the same faith. The translation is eminently readable and with the additional guarantee of accuracy presented by the collaboration of an Indian scholar of the language with a European scholar like Mr. Nelson Fraser, the volumes must find a place in the library of every cultured Indian.

schools. According to the present system the Government expected all schools to be well endowed. If the salary grant system should be resorted to, the schools would get much more grant than under the present system.

Mr. M. Krisnamachariar, B.A. L.T., said that the period of retrogression had passed away after the departure of Dr. Bourne and that the administration was put into the hands of a very able and sympathetic officer the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone. They had everything to hope for their improvement and progress. There existed some years ago the result grant, the salary grant and the fixed grant. The Grant-in-Aid Code should be so framed as to meet the growing demands of schools and to bring such grants to schools as would cover up any deficit.

Mr. K. Mangesha Rao said that the policy of the Government could not at any time be changed and all they could ask the Government to do was to give them more money by way of grants. The teaching grant must go into the pockets of teachers. The fee income should be utilised for awarding scholarships for the deserving poor students.

Prof. K.B. Ramanathan observed that, in all the advanced countries in the West, the State had recognised its duty to educate the children of the land. Such a policy would soon be followed by the Government of India. The responsibility of the Government would no doubt be to some extent lessened by the existence of aided schools. If there should be no aided schools at all, the Government would be obliged to take up the whole burden. The educational charges were a burden, a necessary burden upon the Government. The generous endowments made in cases of some schools were no doubt additional advantages to the Government. Government would of course go to the rescue of any institution that deserved this support if proper representations should be made to them.

A number of teachers took part in the discussion. A Committee was formed to frame proposals to revise the Grant-in-Aid Code to be submitted to the Government for their kind and sympathetic consideration. A resolution was also passed to request the Government to invite representatives from the teaching profession to attend the Grant-in-Aid Conference to be held in Madras.

The Coles Memorial Night School, Kurnool.—On the evening of the 14th instant there was held in the Hall of the Coles Memorial High School, a Prize-giving over which the Principal, Rev. B. J. Rockwood, B.A., B.D., presided. An interesting programme was gone through and at the close of the programme the prizes were distributed and a short but very instructive and interesting address was made by Rev. F. W. Stait of Udayagiri.

This school is wholly conducted by Hindu boys who are students of the Coles Memorial High School and serve without any sort of pay.

This is an interesting movement among Hindu boys working towards the betterment of the depressed classes. It is to be hoped that many such schools may spring into existence and Kurnool can surely support them.

Hindu High School, Madurantakam.—The 32nd anniversary of the school was celebrated with much éclat on Sunday the 12th inst. Mr. A. R. Knapp, M.A., I.C.S., Collector of Chingleput District, presiding on the occasion, and many of the leading gentlemen of the Taluk were present. Called upon by the Chairman, the Manager and the Headmaster presented their reports. The Manager in his report gave in detail the history of the growth of the institution from its infancy to its present position and observed that arrangements are being made for the construction of a hostel at an early date for which Mr. C. Arunachala Mudaliar, Zemindar of Chinnammet, has contributed Rs. 10,000 in memory of the late Hon'ble Mr. C. Muthukumarasami Mudaliar. The Headmaster's report showed that the strength of the school rose to 262 as against 248 in the last year. Out of the 15 boys presented for the S.S.L.C. examination, 8 came out successful, of which 3 have got admission into the Pachayappa's College. During the year the total receipts and expenditures amounted to Rs. 6,473-11-3 and 7,157-14-5 as against Rs. 7,834-7-5 and 8,288-12-5 respectively in the previous year. The net cost borne by the Manager rose to 684-3-2 as against 414-5-0 in the previous year.

The portrait of the present Manager Mr. K. Muthuvenkatapathi Reddiar was unveiled amidst acclamation by the President and then announcements were made for two scholarships by Mr. A. Rajagopalachariar in the lower classes in memory of his father Mr. A. Narasimachariar, the founder of the institution, one scholarship by the Manager and two prizes in the shape of medals to successful students in Mathematics and English by Messrs. M. A. Rangachariar and P. Chinnaaswami Aiyengar. Prizes were then distributed to the successful candidates after which the President made an interesting speech in which he expressed his high appreciation of the interest evinced by the public of Madurantakam towards the advancement of education and said that it was only such sort of schools in rural areas that will build up the Indian character.

The Wesleyan High School, Negapatam.—Their Excellencies visited the Wesleyan High School, where they were received by the Rev. Mr. Dodd and Rev. Mr. Smiles (Principal). Rev. Mr. Smiles in requesting His Excellency to lay the foundation stone of the additional building to the High School made a statement about the history of the school.

In laying the foundation stone His Excellency made the following speech:—

It is a source of sincere satisfaction to me that the commencement of work on the new buildings of

the Wesleyan Mission High School should coincide with my visit to Negapatam, since I am thus enabled to connect myself in however remote and honorary a capacity with the good work which your society has now been carrying on for many years in this town and district. As the Member of Government in immediate charge of the portfolio of Education I have of course become to some extent acquainted with your work, but there is a great difference as we all know between what I may call an acquaintance on paper and that which is based on personal knowledge and intercourse. I have been able, I am glad to say, to see already something of your activities in the higher branches of education during my visit recently to the Findlay College at Mannargudi, which, I am glad to say, has newly acquired further recognition and I welcome the opportunity now presented of studying the problems of school education with which you have here to deal.

This High School is, I believe, one of the oldest in the Presidency and has almost completed a century of existence. So far from betraying signs of senility, it displays, I am glad to find, every sign of vigorous vitality. Like the familiar banyan tree it has put forth a branch and struck root in Nagore while here in Negapatam the need for the new buildings, which I am about to sound has arisen owing to a similar tendency to expansion.

I congratulate you most warmly on these encouraging signs and in laying the foundation stone of the new buildings, I desire to express my sincere good wishes for the continued prosperity of this institution.

His Excellency then laid the stone with a silver trowel presented to him and declared it well and truly laid.

Trichinopoly Teachers' Association.—An ordinary meeting of the above Association was held at Kulitalai on Saturday, the 27th ultimo in the Board High School with Mr. H. Champion, Inspector of schools, 5th Circle, in the chair. There was a very large representation of teachers about 60 in number. The morning session began at 10.30 A.M. in which Mr. K. Rangaswamy Iyengar, History Assistant, Saint Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, read a paper on the "S. S. L. C. scheme and how it has stood the test of our experience."

He said that having regard to the fact that the merits of the S. S. L. C. scheme outweigh the demerits he was against going back to the old Matriculation.

The Inspector pointed out that although the essayist had touched upon all the aspects of the scheme he wanted to say one or two words. He was of opinion that the teachers themselves were solely responsible for the hard work complained of by the essayist since the teachers say more and that they could make their teaching more efficient and their work less hard by trying to draw out more from the taught than is at present attempted. He

next took the various systems which prevailed in France, Germany and United States of America and said that the French system was extremely efficient. The moderation of the marks by the Syndicate is quite necessary to standardise the judgment of various teachers since the marks given by the latter vary only between the fair and the good. On the whole he did not like to commit himself to any opinion on the scheme proper.

The evening session began at about 3 P.M. in which Mr. S. K. Devasikamani, Headmaster, S.P.G. High School, Trichinopoly, read a paper on "Montessori System of Education." In the course of his essay he pointed out that Dr. Montessori, the Italian lady, worked upon the principles of education propounded by the educational reforms of previous ages, that she started a school in 1907 in which she admitted children from 3 to 7 and trained them to be clean in body and dress. Expelling dirty and incorrigible children, she allowed the children to room at will within the school compound and trained them in the habits of self-reliance and self control in order to make them feel free and natural and independent units of society. Any outsider will find the school to be in a complete chaos but beneath the apparent lack of discipline one could discern complete order and realization to fit them for social life.

The salient features of the system are their education which is to be based on their spontaneously adopting only heuristic methods and following the laws of psychology that the personality of the teacher is much important inasmuch as he has to watch more than to talk to them.

The rights of the children should not be invaded but should be scrupulously respected and that above all the child is to be brought as a growing organism which would have complete freedom for growth. He wound up his paper by saying that the system is a very great improvement and is an eye-opener to and a corrective of all the systems of child training obtaining now and that in the opinion of some the system is controversial in character.

The Chairman thanked the lecturer for the very able way in which he dealt with the subject, and pointed out that the personality of the teacher and the spontaneity of children were the most essential features of the system.

The Muthialpet High School, Madras.—The authorities of the Muthialpet High School, Georgetown, Madras, celebrated the Durbar Day with great éclat recently when an Educational Exhibition was also held in the morning. The Exhibition was opened by Mr. H. A. Hart, B.A., L.T., Inspector of Schools.

In opening the Exhibition at the request of the Headmaster of the School, the Chairman said that it was a very commendable thing that the school authorities should have thought it fit to hold an

Educational Exhibition on the Durbar Celebration Day. There was in Madras one such Exhibition long ago and many schools were represented in it. He hoped that the quality of articles in the Exhibition would be very good and declared the exhibition open.

Prizes were distributed to the pupils responsible for the best exhibits and the Chairman congratulated the school authorities on the success of their efforts and hoped that such exhibitions would be more and more encouraged in future.

With a vote of thanks to the Chair the morning proceedings came to a close.

The Srirangam High School.—The celebration of the 1st High School Day on the 28th ultimo began with Bhajana and offering of thanksgiving to God at which a good number of teachers and boys displayed a large amount of genuine earnestness and religious fervour. It engaged the boys for about an hour.

Next came the most interesting function of the morning—the athletic sports and the distribution of prizes to the winners. The sports consisted of a variety of races, besides high and long jumps, kicking and throwing the foot-ball, tug-of-war and treasure hunt. The sports were open even to the infant class boys. The programme was completely gone through. There was a large and distinguished gathering. The sports being over Mr. K. R. Sreenivasa Row, in the capacity as Chief Judge took a very leading part. The prize articles were of good selection. After distributing the prizes, Mr. K. S. Krishnamachariar the young energetic and popular Chairman, Municipal Council, addressed in a lengthy speech. With the usual vote of thanks the meeting came to a close.

The P. S. High School Literary Society.—The 7th anniversary of the P. S. High School Literary Society was celebrated recently in the Mahava Bagh, Luz, Mylapore. Mr. A. Rangaswami Aiyangar, B.A., B.L., Editor, *Swadesamitran*, read an essay on "Some Fundamental Political Concepts." The Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar presided.

A few scenes from Mr. Doraisamy Aiyangar's *Sundarangi* and *Henry IV* were enacted by the students admirably. Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyar left the place before the proceedings came to a close and Rao Bahadur S. Ramaswamy Aiyangar then occupied the chair.

The Chairman in his concluding remarks gave sound advice to the students and congratulated them on the success of their performance. He hoped that the Society might continue for a long time and enable the students to develop their mental and moral culture. He wished them all success and prosperity. The function came to a close with a vote of thanks to the lecturer and the Chairman.

The annual prize-distribution of the P. S. High School, Mylapore, also took place recently at Madhava Bagh, the Luz, Mylapore. Dewan Bahadur M. O. Parthasarathy Iyengar, M.A., M.L. presided. The proceedings of the evening began with the school prayer. Mr. L. A. Govindaraghava Iyer, secretary of the institution, read the annual report, which showed the great progress the institution had made during the period in all directions.

The Chairman then distributed the prizes to the students. The historic drama, "The Rajput Hero" was then staged by the pupils of the school. Recitation, comic and tragic by Mr. M. Krishna Iyer then followed.

With a vote of thanks to the Chair the proceedings came to close.

Thondamandalam Vellala School.—The sixty-first anniversary of the Thondamandalam Vellala School was celebrated recently at the school premises in Mint Street. The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Countts Trotter presided on the occasion. The proceedings commenced with a prayer after which there were some recitations and play-acting by the students which were deservedly cheered by the audience. The Secretary Mr. C. N. Saravana Mudaliar then read the report for the year 1914-15. After the reading of the report the Chairman distributed prizes to the successful students of the past year. Mr. P. M. Sivagnana Mudaliar, President of the Committee, then proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman and in doing so made an appeal to the public to support the school. The Chairman was garlanded after which the gathering dispersed.

The Zamorin's College.—The annual prize distribution of the Zamorin's College, Calicut, took place recently at the Town Hall under the presidency of Mr. F. B. Evans, the Collector of Malabar. Mrs. Hall kindly distributed the prizes. There was a large attendance.

The Report, read by the Principal, Mr. M. U. Moore, showed (i) that the College had made considerable progress during the last two years as far as numbers went, there being now some 750 boys in the school department and 220 in the College, and (ii) that the financial position was quite satisfactory, there being a surplus balance of Rs 21,000 at the beginning of the present academical year, which the Principal estimated would be increased by at least 8000 at its close. On the other hand, the Principal drew attention to the fact that the accommodation was quite insufficient, and it handicapped greatly the educational work, and made real efficiency a difficult, if not an impossible, task.

The meeting concluded with a drama which was an abridgement of Shakespear's "Tempest."

Board High School, Amalapuram.—The Delhi Durbar Day was celebrated in the above institution with great *eclat*. Mr. B. Venkatesvara Rao Pantulu, B.A., B.L., the Principal District Munsif, who presided, led off with an excellent speech on the benefits of the British administration. He was followed by many brilliant speakers mostly from the enlightened local bar, who by their very learned and thoughtful speeches, half of which were in Telugu, carried loyalty deep into the hearts of the boys. Several verses were sung, which had been composed for the occasion in Telugu and Sanskrit, and a few in Hindustani also. The usual vote of thanks and three cheers to Their Imperial Majesties brought the proceedings to a close. Illuminations formed a special feature of the programme.

Government Girls' School, Tuni.—The Distribution of prizes to the pupils of the above Institution, took place on the evening of the 18th instant, in the premises of the Sri Rajahs' High School, Tuni, under the presidency of M.R.Ry. Ch. Sooryanarayana Raju Bahadur Garu, Yogi Srinivasa Sastri Garu and V. Padmanabharaju Garu, B.A., spoke at length on the advantages of Female Education. The Headmaster read his report which showed that the strength of the school had considerably increased and that the results were fair. Some girls appeared for the competitive examination conducted by the N. T. P. Union, Narsapur, and all got success and received prizes and certificates. The school has not got a permanent building of its own and a decent building is not available in the locality even for rent. It is the unanimous prayer of all the townsmen that the generous Rani Sahiba will be pleased to place the house formerly occupied by the Girls' School, again at the disposal of the Government, until the latter provides the school with a building of its own. After Kummi Kollattam and the distribution of prizes, a short drama of Savitri, composed by Mr. K. Jagannadharam, the Secretary of the Ramanujaram Free Library, was enacted by the girls and well appreciated by the audience. With the usual vote of thanks and with the singing of National Anthem and *Mangalam* to the Rani Sahiba, the pleasant function terminated.

Mahajana High School, Erode.—The Durbar Day was celebrated on Sunday, the 12th instant, in the school premises by the teachers and students of the institution under the presidency of the local Deputy Collector. The programme began with a prayer in Sanskrit followed by English recitations by some of the pupils. Then Mr. S. Sivarama Aiyer, B.A., L.T., the History Master of the school, read a paper "India under the Crown" in Tamil. The President, in his concluding remarks, spoke a few words upon the significance of such celebrations and exhorted those present to be loyal. The function terminated with the singing of the National Anthem. At 7-30 P.M., there was a procession

of Their Majestys' Photographs round the school compound. All the gentlemen who had come for the occasion also took part in the procession.

The celebration of the Mahajana High School Day by the Past and Present students of the Institution took place at the premises of the School, on Monday, the 27th instant under the presidentship of M. R. Ry. K. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyer, Avl., M.A., L.T., Principal, The College, Coimbatore.

55th Birthday Anniversary of Mr. J. P. Cotelingam.

We are asked to publish the following:—

TO

J. P. COTELINGAM, M.A., F.M.U.,

PRINCIPAL,

Wardlaw Institution, Bellary.

ON THE OCCASION OF HIS 55TH BIRTHDAY ANNIVERSARY,
9th December, 1915.

Hail Thou! whose life's chief care and souls delight
It ever is, with Patience, Love and Hope,
This weighty world of ours to bear aright
Upon thy shoulders strong, as Heaven's blue cope—
Is borne by Atlas old! to feed our hearts
And minds on all that's Godly, true and wise,
To fit us well to play our destined parts
As worthy men and true and win the prize
That's promised those who tread the narrow way—
For these, and gifts too many to state here
We come to pour, upon this joyous day,
Our hearts in gratitude and love sincere.
May Heaven grant thee strength and grace to strive
'Midst us for more than other fifty-five!

THEO. W. LA TOUCHE.

ADDRESS,

To J. P. Cotelingam Esq., M.A., F.M.U., Principal,
Wardlaw Institution, Bellary.

Dear Sir, Our hearts are filled with intense joy that we have leave to congratulate you to-day when you complete the fifty-fifth year of your life.

We are in the "Age of the young" and the civilised world devotes its best efforts for the training of youth. Regardless of immense sacrifices, you cheerfully entered the profession of teaching and for nearly three decades you have worked for young India with so much wisdom and success that you have very deservedly earned the reputation of being one of the leading educationists of South India. More than the example of your past life in the service of the country we admire that now when you are advancing in years you continue to work with an energy and devotion to duty hardly to be seen in young men of even half your age. At fifty-five many an Indian longs for repose; but you desire no rest, for you realise that there is a vast amount of work to do for our beloved country and she needs every hand to labour for her progress. Only a very

few sincere workers like yourself are available and nothing but ceaseless activity on their part will ameliorate the condition of our motherland. Your ripe experience, tact and wisdom are in demand in quite a large number of organisations which adds very considerably to the strain of your already onerous duties in the school and in the class room. Your systematic habits have preserved your frame from the effects of overwork and we rejoice to find you are enabled to devote your best attention to every duty that you are called upon to undertake.

We masters and students of the Wardlaw Institution deem ourselves peculiarly fortunate that we are privileged to have you working in our midst. Your stainless and well regulated life, true to your precepts in the prayer-hall and in the class room, is a source of inspiration for us and your students fondly hope that they too, like scores of your students in the past, will lead useful and virtuous lives and render their service to the land of their birth.

Our hearts are overfull and we are unable to express in words all that we feel and the above few faltering sentences, however defective in other respects, may not fail, we hope, to express the spirit with which we devoutly pray to our Father in Heaven to bless you and us that we may meet together on many many more such auspicious landmarks of a life so well spent in the past and which promises to be no less useful in future.

We beg to remain,

Dear Sir,

Your Assistants and Students.

Congratulations to an Educationist, Bellary.

The Wardlaw College hall presented a very lively appearance on the evening of Thursday, the 9th December '15, when the former students of the institution assembled in large numbers in response to an invitation from the staff and the senior students. The occasion was the 55th birthday anniversary of Mr. Cotelingam, their revered Principal. Their cheerful faces and the enthusiasm they displayed showed how much they valued the opportunity of tendering their personal congratulations to a teacher for whom they have the highest regard and affection.

Mr. Kandri Raghunatha Rao the senior among the former students present and a member of the local bar was voted to the chair. He spoke of Mr. Cotelingam as the Dr. Miller of Bellary although this was not the first occasion when he was so styled. He said that Bellary was specially fortunate in having an educationist of Mr. Cotelingam's type and that for so long a period. The College has had a bright career due to the efficient management of the Principal and the interest he evinced in the students.

On behalf of the staff and the students Mr. Govinda Rao, B.A., presented a congratulatory address with a silver cup and saucer as a memento

of the happy occasion. The address briefly described some of Mr. Cotelingam's qualities of mind and heart which have endeared him to his students. Telugu verses specially composed for the occasion by Mr. K. Subba Sastry were well rendered by one of the students and this was much appreciated.

Mr. R. Ranga Rao, a former student of the Institution now employed in the Collector's Office made a rousing speech recalling several incidents during his student days. He referred to the impression made upon his mind by the Principal's addresses in the prayer hall and how he was helped to make use of the Library and the Reading Room. He related how one evening long after the school was closed for the day he was found by the Principal lying in a room in an unconscious state. When he was brought back to his senses two peons were sent to take him safely home. He also related incidents showing interest taken in the school sports of the students and described how sympathy was shown in dealing with students when they went wrong and how parents and guardians were on such occasions called for and advised to deal with the erring boy at home. He exhorted former students to remember such kind deeds.

Mr. K. Rama Sastry, B.A., First Grade Pleader, Bellary, in the course of a thoughtful speech, said that with his high educational attainments and ability the Principal had made sacrifices in choosing teaching as his life work. He also mentioned interesting personal reminiscences and although he passed out of the College as far back as 1895 he received letters of encouragement and advice. He mentioned that the habits he had formed while he was his student have been of great help to him and that in short Mr. Cotelingam had been his guardian angel.

Mr. M. Gopalaswami Mudaliar beautifully summarised the excellent life work of Mr. Cotelingam and his many sided activities. Having been in touch with him for the last twenty years or more he claimed to know him well. He spoke of Mr. Cotelingam being a strict disciplinarian paying attention to students' deportment and such matters as their style of clothing, his dislike of mongrel styles of dress, his presiding at public functions, the active part he takes in several public organisations and his not being seen frequently in the company of other men. He spoke of these as 'defects' which some people in Bellary find in Mr. Cotelingam, but he explained how on the contrary these were commendable qualities and points of excellence in an educationist of his standing and a public citizen. The secret of the success he has attained is due largely to these and other virtues he possesses. Coming after the late Rev. Mr. Haines he raised the prestige of the Institution and its name is known far and wide. One may boast with pride that he was an alumnus of the Wardlaw College.

Khan Bahadur Abdul Karim Saheb spoke of the excellent health maintained by Mr. Cotelingam and his stalwart appearance at 55 when except for

a few streaks of grey hair he does not appear to be more than 35. He spoke of his temperate habits as the secret of his good health. He related how Mr. Cotelingam took him to task as Secretary of the Entertainment Committee for having provided liquor at the public reception given when H.E. Lord Amthill visited Bellary and how it was due to Mr. Cotelingam that at subsequent entertainments liquor was entirely omitted. Mr. Abdul Karim Saheb next referred to Mr. Cotelingam's strictness in making promotions. He would for hours speak to pupils and their parents and succeed in convincing them that a boy should not be promoted when he is not fit. He related with much amusement the occasion when he called on the Principal for favour of promotion to one of his boys and after some time had to go home convinced that it was not in the interests of the student.

Mr. Cotelingam then made a felicitous speech by way of reply. He spoke of the joy it gave him to be amongst his students on such an occasion. Five years ago the former students inaugurated the celebration of his birthday, and since then every year he had the privilege of meeting those who have gone out of the Institution. He thanked the staff and the present students for all the kind words they said of him. He found it well nigh impossible to reply to or acknowledge adequately the appreciative terms in which they spoke of any services he may have rendered, and of any help he may have been to individual students. The address made mention of several scores of former students leading useful lives. It was a matter of pride and thankfulness to him that so many of the former students are holding positions of influence and usefulness in this and other adjoining districts. He has frequently heard with pleasure the testimony borne by others to the character and efficiency of the students that have gone out of the Wardlaw College. This year two of the former students are reported to have taken the B.A. Honours degree, and 3 the Pass degree. Six passed the Intermediate Examination, of whom 5 appeared for the first time this year, when the results in that examination and in the S.S.L.C. Public examination were poor. One appeared for and passed the Matriculation examination from the Institution and he with two others who appeared for the S.S.L.C. examination obtained seats in Intermediate classes. He earnestly hoped that the present students will emulate the success of those who had gone before them and maintain the prestige of the Institution. He hoped above all that they would lay to heart the stress laid by the previous speakers on the help given in the Institution for laying the foundation of an all round and noble character. In accepting the beautiful silver cup and saucer they had given him as a souvenir he said that as often as he took his tea or coffee in it there would be an added aroma which would make him remember with pleasure the occasion on which the gift was made.

The proceedings of the evening terminated after the presentation of garlands to the Chairman and Mr. Cotelingam amidst deafening cheers.

Karur Municipal High School.—The Durbar Day and the Anniversary of the Boys' Association were celebrated with great eclat in the Municipal High School. Different kinds of games and sports came off successfully in the morning when Mr. M. S. Ramswami Ayyar, the Deputy Superintendent of Police, presided, and Mrs. Dawson kindly gave away prizes to the winners.

At the celebration of the anniversary in the evening several European and Indian ladies and gentlemen were present. The School and the Hall were tastefully decorated and illuminated and Mr. G. W. Priestley, the Sub-Collector, presided. The proceedings began with the reading of the report of the Association by the Secretary which showed a good year's work done. On this occasion certain specially endowed prizes were distributed, viz., Mr. Pethachi Chettiar's gold medal for gymnastics, and his Tamil and Sanskrit prizes, and the Padmanabiah Sanskrit prize.

The Secretary read the report of the Association from January to December 1915.

On the literary side of the Association meetings were held almost every Friday of the week. The weekly programme included lectures by gentlemen or papers and discussions or debates by pupils prefaced by recitations in English, Tamil and Sanskrit. There were 13 meetings held in this term. Papers were read or lectures delivered on many subjects.

The singing of the National Anthem and the distribution of pan-sapari brought the function to a close.

The Madura College.—Rao Bahadur S. R. M. M. A. Annamalai Chettiar of Kanadukathan, a rich member of the Nathukottai Chetty community, has come forward with an offer of one lakh of rupees, as an endowment to the Madura College.

The Madura College Board met at a special meeting a few days ago, considered the generous offer of Mr. Chettiar and resolved as follows:—

"That the unprecedented offer of one lakh of rupees to the Madura College by Rao Bahadur S. R. M. M. A. Annamalai Chettiar of Kanadukathan be accepted with deep gratitude and that the Committee cordially recognise and appreciate the philanthropy, public spirit and genuine love of learning that have prompted the munificent donation and that a copy of the Resolution be sent to the generous donor."

BOMBAY.

Elementary Education in Indore State.—Following the good example set by their Highnesses the Gaekwar of Baroda and the Maharaja of Mysore, His Highness the Maharaja Holkar of

Indore has made elementary education compulsory throughout his State, and has thus earned the gratitude of his people. His Highness has made adequate provision for building and maintaining additional schools for the fulfilment of his object, and as soon as these schools are ready this order will take effect.

The All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference commenced its sittings at Poona on the 28th instant under the distinguished presidency of the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Abdur Rahim of Madras.

University of Bombay.—A Meeting of the Senate will be held in the Sir Cowasji Jehangir Hall of the University on Monday, the 10th January 1916, at 5-45 P.M.

The Rev. Dr. J. H. Moulton has been appointed as University Lecturer on "Aryan Origins."

The University institutes a new Degree designated "Master in Agriculture."

CALCUTTA.

Foundation day at Serampore.—The foundation day was celebrated at the Serampore College recently. H. E. Lord Carmichael presided. His Excellency after inspecting the Library was conducted to the College Hall in a procession. After the prayer by the Rev. Principal Gee followed by reading from the Scripture, the Rev. Dr. Howells read the report on the working of the Serampore College, and in doing so he made reference to the history of the College from the year 1818 and its subsequent stages.

In 1910 it was re-organised on the lines laid down by the original founders. It was in 1911 it was again affiliated to the Calcutta University up to F. A. and in 1913 up to B. A. standard.

This over, His Excellency distributed prizes to the successful students which was followed by the graduation ceremony in which three gentlemen received certificates and badges amidst cheers. His Excellency shook-hands with these three men.

His Excellency then delivered an instructive speech in the course of which he said: When Carey came to Serampore in 1793 he set before himself to preach the Gospel to the people of India and to teach young boys instructive lessons. The example which was set by three noble missionaries had been proved by to-day's graduation ceremony. His Excellency then went on referring to the early history of the College till its reaffiliation in 1913 up to B. A. Standard, its theological department being entirely reorganised.

New Honour for Dr. J. C. Bose.—A despatch has been received from the Secretary of State creating a new appointment in research for Dr. J. C. Bose in recognition of his important contributions to the

progress of science. As Dr. Bose's discoveries are regarded as contributions made by India, the cost of the new appointment will be defrayed by the Imperial Government.

A sum of Rs. 75,000 including an annual recurring grant of Rs. 50,000 has been sanctioned to Dr. J. C. Bose to carry on Research work. He will also have a Laboratory in the Presidency College. Government will also allow use of a garden near Calcutta and also another near Darjeeling for carrying on his experiments on plant life.

Mahakali Patshala.—The annual prize-distribution ceremony of the Mahakali Patshala came off recently at the Mahakali Patshala premises. The Maharajadhiraj of Burdwan presided. A varied programme of recitations was gone through followed by a "Siba Stotram" sung in chorus by the pupils. Mr. S. C. Ghose, the sons of the late Babu Saroda Prasad Chatterjee and Mr. T. P. Ghose promised donations of Rs. 500, Rs. 250 and Rs. 100 respectively.

The Maharajadhiraj in the course of his speech said he greatly missed the highly intellectual, nay, almost spiritual face of the late Mataji Tapaswini. Referring to the annual report he said that there was ample evidence that the financial position of the institution was not all that one would desire it to be and whilst he could understand the apathy or almost antipathy of that extreme section of England returned Indian community who looked upon everything appertaining to orthodox India and orthodox Hindus as beneath contempt, and in that sense were real enemies of the community he was at a loss to understand why those who did not feel ashamed to be called orthodox. Hindus should lag behind and permit such an institution for the good of their girls to run the risk of a financial crisis. In reference to the patriotic acts of the Maharaja of Darbhanga, who was the President of the Patshala, the President said that His Highness kept his interest alive in this institution in the past and he hoped that he would help it even in future and requested the members of the Patshala to keep in touch with him and to kindle, if need be, his enthusiasm for that cause.

He then gave some good advice to the pupils of the Patshala in Bengalee. After a vote of thanks to the chair, the meeting came to a close.

ALLAHABAD.

Female Education in United Provinces.—Sir James Meston, presided at a public meeting in the Senate Hall called by the Association for the Higher Education of Indian Women in the United Provinces to consider what steps should be taken for the encouragement and expansion of female education. His Honour in an excellent speech said that no doubt the position of female education in the provinces was unsatisfactory and apportioned the

blame between the Government and public and indicated how the Government could help and pointed out that real help in the matter must come from the people themselves.

The Hon'ble Mr. De la Fosse, Director of Public Instruction, gave figures which he said spelt failure as regards female education, and this he said was chiefly due to the death of women teachers. He urged the audience to improve the minds of their women folk as times were changing rapidly. He cited the example of French women who were doing such a great deal for their country, while their husbands and brothers were in the trenches.

A number of resolutions were passed urging the taking of early steps, for the establishment of elementary and secondary schools for girls, classes for training teachers, and purdah schools and urging the Government to accept financial responsibility for the education of girls in secondary stage.

The Indian Science Congress.—The local Committee of the Indian Science Congress has decided to transfer the place of meeting fixed for early next year from Allahabad to Lucknow as Sir James Meston found it impossible to be at Allahabad on the dates fixed, but has consented to open the Congress at Lucknow.

Laying the Foundation-stone of the Kyhaastha Patshala.—Sir James Meston distributed prizes of Kyhaastha Patshala and laid the foundation-stone of the proposed Kyhaastha College in the presence of a large gathering. The College will be built on the banks of the Ganges and the complete scheme will cost about five lakhs of rupees.

Dr. Ranjit Singh, President of the Kyhaastha Patshala in the course of an address to Lieutenant-Governor said that their ideal was as far as possible to provide for all their students and their staff a home far from dust and noise of the City and to revive their ancient ideal of relationship between the teachers and pupils. His Honour replying gave the community a good deal of sound advice and praised them for trying to get out of their old grooves and to follow learning and other professions and occupations. He appealed to the Kyhaastha community of the province and the surrounding provinces to rally round as promoters of the College and make it a success. It was only by higher education the community could take their place in all professions, and even in commercial and industrial occupations.

Kindergarten Exhibition.—A Kindergarten and Educational Handwork Exhibition, the first of its kind in the city, was opened by Lady Meston in the Mayo Hall. A large number of ladies and gentlemen were present to witness the interesting function. Among them were Sir George Knox, the Hon. Mr. De la Fosse, the Hon. Mr. J. H. Stone, Director of Public Instruction of Madras, Dr. E. G. Bill, Mr. S. Fremantle, Mr. Mackenzie, Principal of the

Training College, Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. Gangadhar Jha and Prof. Burnett-Hurst.

Lady Meston was received by Miss Burnett-Hurst the organizer of the Exhibition, and the Director of Public Instruction and conducted to the *dais*.

Miss Burnett-Hurst in explaining how the Exhibition had come to be started, said:—

"I feel that Kindergarteners the world over would to-day be immensely encouraged in their work could they but know that you have honoured an exhibition such as this by your presence. We, who have the interests of the children at heart, owe you a deep debt of gratitude. I have felt very much encouraged in the kindly interest every one has taken in the organization of the Exhibition."

Lady Meston, in declaring the Exhibition open, thanked Miss Burnett-Hurst, expressed her pleasure to open the Exhibition and said that she deserved credit for organizing such a demonstration. She trusted that it would prove instructive and successful.

Then followed an interesting demonstration of kindergarten games, songs, etc., by the children of the Colvin Free School, St. Cecilia's School, St. Mary's Convent Free School, St. Mary's Convent High School, Wanamaker Girls' High School and Girls' Guild and E. I. Railway School which were highly appreciated by the visitors.

The Maypole dance, the children's hospital song, and some of the games were particularly interesting and the little ones taking part in them were much applauded. All the items on the programme were gone through with unerring precision which reflects great credit both on the girls and their teachers. After the National Anthem had been sung the gathering dispersed.

MYSORE.

Tumkur Empress Girls' High School.—The annual prize-giving of this school came off on the 16th instant in the hall of the Local Government High School. The hall was overcrowded with the girls of the school, their parents and the gentry of the town. Mr. K. R. Srinivasa Iyengar, M. A., Deputy Commissioner, presided. The programme consisted of welcome song, invocation to *Ganesha* and *Saraswati*, dialogues in Sanskrit and Kannada. The girls acquitted themselves admirably. English recitation formed also an item of the programme.

The Headmaster Mr. B. Ramesvara Iya, B. A., read the report for 1914-15 in Kannada. He gave a very lucid account of the history of the institution from its inception to the present time. The Chairman made a very interesting speech and was then garlanded. With the singing of the British and Mysore National Anthems and three lusty cheers to His Majesty the King-Emperor, His Highness the Maharaja, His Highness the Yavaraaja and the Chairman, the proceedings terminated.

The Educational Review.

When the Hon'ble Sir Harcourt Butler, then member in charge of the Education portfolio of the Government of India opposed the late Mr. Gokhale's

Elementary Education Bill in 1912, he remarked, "I ask you, has not my honorable friend begun at the wrong end? Even if it be the case, though instances are not forthcoming, that a local body here and there may desire in the near future to introduce the principle of compulsion and is prepared to raise the whole of the necessary funds by local taxation, even assuming such a case, which we should be quite prepared to consider on its merits, would not the natural course be to provide for it by local legislation, by the amendment of the Municipal Law or otherwise?" The Hon'ble Mr. A. S. Krishna Rao, accordingly, attempted in the last meeting of the Madras Legislative Council to grasp the right "end" of the stick and to "provide by local legislation, by the amendment of the Municipal Law" for the introduction of compulsory education in the Madras Presidency. The resolution that he proposed was framed in very plain terms so as to prevent the debate being turned on side issues; it merely enunciated a desirable principle of educational policy, running as follows:—"This Council recommends that the Governor-in-Council be pleased to take such measures as are necessary to

empower the Municipalities in the Presidency to make elementary education in their respective areas free and compulsory." The immediate occasion for the proposal of this resolution of the Council was the impending revision of the District Municipalities Act, and in view of the fact that in the debate in the Imperial Legislative Council on the late Mr. Gokhale's Bill the Government of India accepted compulsory education as an ideal to be striven for and opposed the immediate acceptance of the principle from administrative and financial difficulties, the Hon'ble Mr. A. S. Krishna Rao while speaking on his proposal, restricted himself to pointing out how in certain Municipalities the number of pupils seeking elementary education was sufficiently high to justify the immediate extension to them of the principle of compulsory education and how ways and means can be provided for the purpose by means of (1) expending 15 per cent. of the income of Municipalities, instead of 5·8 per cent. as now, on education, (2) by levying education cesses in Municipal areas where compulsory education may be introduced, and (3) by Government grants. We wish that the Hon'ble Mr. A. S. Krishna Rao had worked out in the case of a few selected Municipalities how the scheme would actually work, how much the Municipalities could immediately provide, what rate of education cess the people might reasonably be called on to pay and how much Government grants might be demanded. The honorable member's speech, as

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reported in the daily press, has too much of the look of a mere pious expression of opinion and is perhaps responsible for the fact that the resolution was "lost by a large majority." The Hon'ble Dr. T. M. Nair in seconding the resolution pointed out prominently this aspect of the question. He said, "the first question, therefore, was how many schools were required [in any particular Municipality], and what was the expenditure that would have to be incurred in buildings and in keeping these schools up." He then supplied these figures with reference to the Madras Corporation and pointed out that, on the basis of the principle enunciated in Mr. Gokhale's Bill that the Government ought to contribute two-thirds and local bodies one-third of the cost of compulsory education, "the Government would have to contribute some Rs. 19 lakhs on buildings in the city of Madras, the Corporation spending Rs. 9 lakhs and the Government would have to contribute annually Rs. 1·90 lakh, while the Corporation had to find Rs. 95,000..... It would be impossible to finance education anywhere without additional rates. The additional rate that the Corporation of Madras would have to impose would be a little over 1½ per cent. taxation on real property. That was a taxation which the city of Madras could well bear, and for such a purpose of [as?] free compulsory education would be willing to bear." Thus, to use his own phrase, the Hon'ble Dr. T. M. Nair brought the question "within the range of practical politics," and present-

ed a definite programme of compulsory free elementary education in the city of Madras for the Government to say yea or nay to. The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone, speaking on behalf of Government quietly dismissed the practical turn attempted to be given to the discussion by the Hon'ble Dr. T. M. Nair with the remark that "the financial aspect of the matter" was "a serious one," which could not be considered "with any thing like a light heart." This is a truism which no one ever thought of denying. The question was how far the principle of compulsory education can be adopted in the city of Madras, whether it was possible to adopt it wholesale and how much the Government could finance the scheme and how much the citizens of Madras be taxed for the immediate adoption of the scheme. The non-official members of Legislative Councils are frequently charged with visionary tendencies, with contenting themselves with vague, general statements, with being wedded to theories without displaying the knowledge necessary to tackle with administrative problems like practical statesmen; but when a definite programme was placed by the Hon'ble Dr. T. M. Nair before the Council, it is regrettable that speakers on behalf of Government should not take up the question and discuss it like practical administrators but should turn the debate into a mere academic one. The Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone was more anxious to prove that the Government of Madras was consistent in its opposition to compul-

sory free elementary education, that when that Government said that "it would not be so disastrous to introduce compulsory education in selected Municipal areas," it was meant that time had not "arrived when the policy of free and compulsory education must be adopted," he was more anxious to prove all this, than to discuss how far this "necessary and desirable thing" could be adopted in the city of Madras.

Turning now to the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone's arguments to justify the fact that "the Government of India and the Local Government were inclined to think that the time had not arrived" for free and compulsory education in India, we find that he said that because education was wider spread in Municipalities than in rural areas, there was less need for compulsion. This, we regret to have to remark, is sophistry pure and simple. In the leading States of Europe and North America, it was when education was wider spread than it is in our Municipalities to-day that compulsion was introduced. The necessity for the introduction of compulsion in Municipalities is really due to the fact that the conditions of life in Municipal areas, the concentration of industrial activity and the facilities that exist for boys of school age earning wages and finding activities other than educational to occupy their time and energy, divert them from education; hence the need for the immediate introduction of the principle of compulsion in Municipal areas arises. In rural areas com-

pulsion is neither practicable nor, so urgent as in Municipalities. There is nor can be any real competition or rivalry between rural and municipal areas in the matter of spread of education, for the conditions of life and the facilities for starting schools and getting pupils to attend them are so different that any comparison between them, any attempt to pit one area against the other would be meaningless and a needless throwing of confusion on the real question at issue—the need for compulsion where alone compulsion is necessary and possible.

Another argument used by the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone contradicted his own remark earlier in the debate that he "personally looked forward to the time when there would be a free and compulsory education in the country;" and that was that compulsory education "would be a hardship felt by the backward classes." This contradiction is perhaps due to the clash between his personal opinion and what he was "instructed" to say as the spokesman of the Government. This contradiction apart, we are surprised to see the great side-benefit of compulsory education, *viz.*, that it would prevent, at least partially child-labour among the under-fed backward classes, is used as an argument against it. If compulsory education will prevent child-labour, that is all the more reason why its introduction is urgently needed.

Speaking of free education, the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone said that it was most important to make education free

to the backward classes. We applaud the expression of this very generous sentiment and are eagerly awaiting the day when it would be embodied in the Grant-in-Aid Code. This code now contains a formidable list of backward classes, pupils from which may be admitted on half-fees. But there is really no inducement for managers of private schools to admit such pupils on half-rates. We know schools which refuse admission to pupils from backward classes because they ask for a remission of half fees, and the Department does not notice such vagaries. Nor does the Department encourage school managers who admit such pupils by giving them special grants-in-aid. So the Hon'ble Mr. J. H. Stone's remark about the urgency of free education to pupils of the backward classes is an excellent sentiment, excellently expressed—but nothing more.

Another spokesman of the Government of Madras on the occasion of this debate was the Hon'ble Sir Harold Stuart. His one argument was that Local Governments "could not adopt a policy to which he admitted there was a great deal to be said, until, as he said, the system of provincial finance was radically changed." This is, of course, a perfectly sound argument so far as the Government of Madras is concerned. But what does it amount to? The provincial government is the wrong end of the stick to grasp. If this is so, what becomes of Sir H. Butler's argument that the Government of India was the wrong

end. We ask, has the stick a right end at all?

The only educationist member of the Council, the Hon'ble Rev. G. Pittendrigh, while admitting that "it was his instinct and natural desire to support the resolution," yet opposed the resolution because he was so concerned about the interests of aided [secondary] education as it exists at present that any measure endangering the grants which are now being paid to High Schools and Colleges he felt bound to vote against. This is entirely beside the point. No one ever asked the Government to reduce the grants now being dispensed not very generously to aided institutions, missionary or national. If compulsory education should be adopted as an experimental measure, in any Municipality, special funds will have to be provided for it, other than what are now spent as grants-in-aid.

We do not propose to refer to other speeches on this question, because the debate was so academic in tone, as to give one the impression that the Legislative Council meeting was one of a glorified college debating society, than one of practical statesmen met to solve an urgent educational problem.

We are indebted to the Government of Bombay for a copy of the Report of the Director of Public Instruction in that Presidency for the year 1914-15 and the Government's review thereon.

Report of the
Bombay Edu-
cational De-
partment for
1914-1915.

be done by the Government's legal expert, the Advocate-General. He is merely a man of culture, with a knowledge of the needs of the people and with a broad outlook on the country's affairs, capable of advising Government on any intended course of legislation or rousing their attention to any wrong committed either by their laws or by those engaged in administering them. It has even struck us sometimes that the average politician in India has not been able to produce much effect in debates in the Legislative Council, for want of continued and unselfish political training. Every member of the Legislative Council aspires to be an authority on every subject from the details of educational policy to those of the excise administration, from the intricacies of currency to those of settlement, subjects which have not come within his remotest purview during his daily work. His annual exhibition at the Budget meeting is an astounding attempt at comprehensiveness, noteworthy only for its repetition of commonplace and futility of aim. We should not hesitate to say that Principal Srinivasa Iyengar's profession will enable him, as it has enabled such distinguished leaders in Indian politics who belonged to the same profession, as the late Mr. Gokhale, to apply himself to the treatment of politics, with an intellectual sobriety which will compel attention. And he has already furnished ample proofs of capacity for meritorious work.

Principal Srinivasa Iyengar is at the

same time, no stranger to politics. Even before he went to Vizagapatam a quarter of a century ago, to occupy the Principalship of the College which he has brought to the high level of efficiency at which we find it to-day, he was editing a paper in Srirangam and his was a name to conjure with all the young men of that part of the Presidency who were being initiated by him into the world of political life. And during his long stay in the city of Vizagapatam, he has always lent his support to the work of political organisation and has even been President of the District People's Association. He has identified himself with the most forward aspirations of the Telugus, and it was only the other day that he declared himself enthusiastically in favour of the Andhra Province. With a record of strenuous work of over quarter of a century amidst the Telugus, which found fitting recognition at the recent celebration of the Silver Jubilee of his Principalship, it would come with very little grace indeed, if any voter dared maintain that he was not a native of the district, and was not therefore qualified to be a representative of local interests and we hope the electorate will return him to the Council in preference to retired and superannuated Government servants, or busy members of the legal profession.

A controversy has recently been started in the columns of the **Teaching and Research in India.** daily and the monthly press, on a statement